Rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their professional competencies as curriculum workers

by

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DECLARATION

I, Boy Thembinkosi Hlongwane, declare that this thesis:

Rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their professional competencies as curriculum workers

is my own work. I also declare that all sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that the thesis has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at another university.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ABSTRACT

Since the first National Curriculum Statement matriculation results for 2008, there has been an outcry that rural secondary schools in KwaZulu Natal are lagging behind in terms of pass rate compared to urban and former Model C secondary schools. There are various contributory factors that are impacting on poor learners' performance in rural schools. This study was specifically conducted in rural secondary schools of KwaZulu Natal. The reason was that there is few research conducted in rural schools, particularly with regard to teacher job satisfaction and professional development. There is therefore a belief that satisfied teachers produce good performance in their schools. Furthermore, it is also believed that satisfied and adequately developed teachers are the key to successful implementation of the grades 10-12 National Curriculum Statement. The study was therefore conducted to investigate rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers.

The research problem was investigated through the mixed methods research. The use of mixed methods research was to ensure that reliability and validity are addressed. The concurrent strategy of mixed methods research was employed. In concurrent mixed research methods, data is collected during the same phase. Data was collected from rural secondary schools of Umzinyathi, Ilembe and Empangeni districts in KwaZulu Natal. There were fifty rural secondary schools which participated in the study. Four hundred rural secondary school teachers completed survey questionnaires. Eighteen rural secondary school teachers participated in individual interviews. Only nine rural secondary schools were involved in observation and interviews.

Research findings show that poverty was one of the major contributory factors that led to poor performance of rural secondary schools. Poverty and lack of adequate professional development programmes in rural secondary schools have negative impact in terms of teachers' job satisfaction. Learners' poor command of English in rural secondary schools contributed to their poor academic performance. Lack of support services, bad condition of roads and, long distances travelled by both learners and teachers contributed to teachers' job dissatisfaction and learners' poor performance. Rural secondary school learners were demotivated about learning, since they

lacked role models in their communities. Rural secondary school learners were also undisciplined. They bunked classes. They carried weapons to schools. Rural secondary school learners also helped criminals to steal and vandalize school property. They smoked dagga inside the school premises. Moreover, research findings indicate that rural secondary school teachers were not involved in school decision-making processes. School management teams were the only structure making school decisions. Growth opportunities for teachers were not fairly provided to them by their principals. Schools governing body chairpersons and principals were abusing the teacher promotion process since they were biased. They only promoted their friends and relatives and sometimes they were bribed by candidates. The latter findings contributed to teachers' job dissatisfaction.

Further findings indicate that there were teachers who were teaching subjects for which they were not qualified. Some heads of department were supervising subject streams that were outside of their specialization since the school post-provisioning norms (PPN) was small. Rural secondary school principals possessed inadequate grades 10-12 National Curriculum Statement expertise. Integrated Quality Management Systems was unable to develop teachers for effective grades 10-12 National Curriculum Statement implementation since it was not implemented accordingly in rural secondary schools. Clusters were effective strategies to develop teachers in rural schools although geographical isolation of school was their main challenge.

The recommendations of this study are that RSSs must be fully supported by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education. All roads to schools must be repaired in time. Decent teacher accommodation must be built inside schools with security guards to look after teachers' safety and their property when they are away. Recreation venues/centres must be established in rural areas to relieve and address teachers' stress and boredom. The KwaZulu Natal Department of Education must ensure that all schools have libraries, laboratories and computer classes. The Department of Education must also fully recognize postgraduate qualifications such as honours, master's and doctoral degrees to retain highly qualified teachers in rural secondary schools. Teachers must be promoted on merit rather than on friendship or relationship.

KEY WORDS

Professional development

Job satisfaction

Curriculum

Grades 10-12 NCS

Rural secondary school teachers

ABBREVIATIONS

ACE: Advanced Certificate in Education
ASs: Assessment Standards
BEd: Bachelor of Education
CAPS: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CASS: Continuous Assessment
CoP: Community of Practice
CREATE: Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity
CW: Curriculum Worker
DBE: Department of Basic Education
DoE: Department of Education
DSG: Development Support Group
EC: Eastern Cape
EI: Emotional Intelligence
ELRC: Education Labour Relations Council
EMCs: Education Media Centres
EMS: Economic Management Sciences
ERG: Existence, Relatedness and Growth
FDE: Further Diploma in Education
FET: Further Education and Training
HDE: Higher Diploma in Education
HEIs: Higher Education Institutions
HET: Higher Education and Training
HOD: Head of Department
ICT: Information and Communication Technology
INSET: In-service Education and Training
IQMS: Integrated Quality Management Systems
km: Kilometre
KZN: KwaZulu Natal
KZNDoE   KwaZulu Natal Department of Education
LOs: Learning Outcomes
MiET: Media in Education and Training
NCLB: No child Left Behind
NCS: National Curriculum Statement
NEEDU: National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NFER: National Foundation for Educational Research

NMMU:	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NPDE:	National Professional Diploma in Education
OBE:	Outcomes-Based Education
PD:	Professional Development
PDPs:	Professional Development Programmes
PGP:	Professional Growth Plan
PhD:	Doctor of Philosophy
PL1:	Post Level One
RSA:	Republic of South Africa
RSS:	Rural Secondary School
RSST:	Rural Secondary School Teacher
SACE:	South African Council for Educators
SADTU:	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SAIRR:	South African Institute of Race Relations
SASA:	South African Schools' Act
SDT:	School Development Team
SGB:	School Governing Body
SMT:	School Management Team
SRL:	Self-Regulated Learning
SRLP	Self-Regulated Learning Programme
TBP:	Tobephobia
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Fund
US:	United States
VBL:	Video-Based Learning
VBSRL:	Video-Based Self-Regulated Learning
WIL:	Work-Integrated Learning
WIPD:	Work-Integrated Professional Development
WIPDPs:	Work-Integrated Professional Development Programmes

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

CHAPTER TWO

RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES OF JOB

SATISFACTION

CHAPTER THREE

STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER SIX
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
JOB SATISFACTION

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

TABLES

(xviii)

PICTURES

GRAPHS

APPENDIXES

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1.1 Introduction

Although this study focuses more on KwaZulu Natal (KZN) rural secondary school teachers' (RSSTs') job satisfaction and professional development programmes (PDPs), it is therefore vital to begin this chapter by conceptualizing *rurality*. Rural generally refers to isolation, poor and traditionally administrated areas (Kozol in Nkosi, 2008:3). The term rural is derived from the Latin word *ruralis* which means countryside or open land (Seroto, 2004:22). Before 1425 until late into the twentieth century, rural was specifically associated with farm work (The Barnhart Dictionary in Seroto, 2004:22). Rural had its historical roots in America, and it used to refer also to areas of low population density, small absolute size, and relative isolation, where the major economic base was agricultural production and where the way of life of people was reasonably homogeneous and differentiated from that of other sectors of society, most notably the city (Bealer, Willits & Kuvlesky in Seroto, 2004:22). In addition, Seroto (2004:230) points out that geographical isolation, poverty and racism are used to define what rural areas entail in the South African context.

Rural areas are diverse (Adams, 2003) and the actual differences and similarities between rural and urban communities are multifaceted and complex (Yang & Fetch, 2007:1). Census data indicates that in comparison with metropolitan statistical areas, rural areas have lower median family-household and per-capita incomes, high poverty rates for families and individuals, and higher unemployment rates (Yang & Fetch, 2007:1). Furthermore, they argue that rural areas are far too poorer than urban areas. Poverty is especially prevalent among rural people and their schools. In the United States, for example, if you are an African American, your chances of living in poverty are greater if you live in rural America (Beeson & Strange, 2000:64). This is similar to the South African context because, if you are Black, the chances of living in poor rural areas are greater. This is confirmed by Beeson and Strange (2000:74) that the majority of rural learners that live in poverty are Black learners. Similarly, Banks and Banks (2010:v) and Bode (2010:55) point out that many of the nations' learners are poor. These rural poor learners need RSSTs who possess rural knowledge and who enjoy teaching in such an

environment. This study will therefore explore whether RSSTs enjoy teaching these poor learners and whether they have relevant capacity to teach in rural secondary schools (RSSs) in KZN.

1.1.2 What are the rural schools?

Rural schools are schools which are situated in the residential areas where the land is held in trust by some authority on behalf of heads of households (Department of Education (DoE), 2004:2). Moreover, Risimati (in Risimati, 2007:20) describes rural schools as schools which are situated in remote areas that are infrastructurally under-developed. In addition, Graaf (1995:182) contends that the concept rural in education in the South African context, is not so much about how far those schools are from town and cities, or about whether they are in farming areas or not, but rather that they are disadvantaged communities with little political power. Seroto (2004:55) contends that the majority of Black schools in South Africa were found in rural areas and continued to exist even after the democratic government took over. This means that RSSs still exist and must be catered for.

Furthermore, Khattri, Riley and Kane (1997:91) identify the following characteristics of rural schools: size: due to isolation and population density in rural communities, rural schools are typically small compared to schools in more populated communities; location: in sparsely populated rural areas, pupils often travel long distances to attend schools; budgets: rural budgets are small and do not adequately cover the considerable costs of operation; course offering: many rural schools are unable to provide the types of courses needed to prepare learners for further studies; availability of special programmes and technological resources: programmes and extracurricular activities offered in rural schools are limited and affect learners' opportunities to learn; and staff qualifications and preparedness: teachers' experience and the recruitment and training of teachers are frequently cited as a major problems in rural schools. The latter are some of shortcomings of the RSSs in KZN, which might negatively affect learners' academic performance.

In addition, Seroto, (2004:56) provides the following characteristics of rural schools: lack of infrastructure resources, overcrowded classrooms and rural poverty, which present a unique mix of obstacles to gaining sound education for rural school learners. Teaching and

learning might become more difficult to succeed in such conditions since RSSTs and their learners are more challenged than their counterparts in urban secondary schools.

Gorudzo-Kusereka (2003:12) defines RSS, which is the focus of this study, as an educational institution located in the rural area to provide school age youth with formal education. RSSs are associated with low social status, slow learner achievement and more onerous living and working conditions than urban schools (McEwan, 1999:849-850). Among the inherent characteristics of rural schools are small size, sparse settlement, narrowness of choice (with regard, for example, to shopping, schools, and medical services), distance from population concentration, and an economic reliance on agricultural industries (Monk, 2007:156). He further argues that many RSSs are impoverished. This is confirmed by Bloch (2009:13) that most of South African schools in rural areas have no libraries, laboratories, computers, sports fields, staff rooms, water or toilets and they are not noticed or invited places to go to and spend the day. Additionally, Nkosi (2008:3) asserts that the rural schools in KZN province are characterized by geographical isolation, poverty, and poorly educated parents who are mostly unemployed or self-employed. She further argues that there is a shortage of well qualified teachers, and classrooms for teaching and learning are inadequate in RSSs. Furthermore, research by Bourke (2004:38) found that learners in rural schools face many personal and educational hardships - from living in poverty to having less opportunity and sophisticated technology.

1.1.3 Rural secondary schools and poverty in South Africa

As stated in the previous sections, rurality and poverty go hand in hand. The previous sections have indicated that poverty prevents learners from access to good education in South Africa and in other countries. This is because learners' parents in rural communities are poor (Risimati, 2007:189). Risimati further argues that poverty plays a significant role in the achievement of learners in South African schools. Poverty dictates the way learners perform in school (Risimati, 2007:189). Based on experience, KZN rural secondary school learners from poor families come to school hungry and fail to concentrate in their classrooms. This is a clear indication that hungry children are more unlikely to achieve good results in their subjects (Risimati, 2007:189).

Furthermore, Rathogwa (2006:4) points out that in some South African RSSs, education

takes place under the trees for lack of classrooms. He argues that alternative available classrooms are overcrowded for the lack of facilities in RSSs. In support, Banks and Banks, (2010:3) point out that social class status is also related to academic achievement. Persell (2010:85) complains about the influence that social class has on education provision:

> *Children of different social classes are likely to attend different types of schools, to receive different types of instruction, to study different curricula, and to leave school at different rates and times. As a result, when children end their schooling, they differ more than they entered, and society may use these differences to legitimize adult inequalities. If we understand better how schools can help construct inequalities, we may be in a better position to change.*

In South Africa, learners who grow up in high-income families obtain more education and learners from low-income families obtain less education (Mazibuko, 2007; Dala, 2009). In the similar vein, Banks and Banks (2010:4) state that educational opportunities are much greater for middle-class and upper class learners than for low-income learners. In addition, Persell, (2010:86) concurs that learners from higher-social class backgrounds tend to get better grades and to stay in school longer than do learners from lower-class backgrounds. As the gap between rich and poor is widening (Banks & Banks, 2010:v), teachers need to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to maximize the opportunities that diverse cultures offer to minimize its challenges (Banks & Banks, 2010:vi).

However, exceptional learners, whether they are physically or mentally disabled or gifted and talented, often find that they do not experience equal educational opportunities in schools (Banks & Banks, 2010:4). Equal access to quality education for the majority of learners in South Africa has not been realized (Delport & Makaye, 2009:97). Black learners' performance in the grades 10-12 NCS is still lagging behind. A study by Christie, Butler and Potterton (2007:29) found that the popular conception of schooling in South Africa is still set by the privileged sector of schools, while the majority of schools in the mainstream of South Africa are under-resourced African schools in relatively poor socio-economic circumstances. Huge disparities in human, financial and material resources, even at neighbouring schools still exist (Delport & Makaye, 2009:97). Fleisch (2007:2) thus warns that the current South African schooling system continues to perpetuate school patterns of dissimilarity and inequity. As a result, RSS learners' performance is poor.

1.1.4 Why the focus is on rural secondary school teachers?

There is a general consensus that RSSs exist in a unique environment as compared to the balance of other types of schools in public education (Arnold, 2005; Belsie, 2003). This is similar to the South African context where rural schools operate under the same laws such as the grades 10-12 NCS and with comparable expectations and goals as their urban and suburban counterparts, but without the quantity or quality of support and resources available from a school's central organization or local community (Huysman, 2008:31). He argues that it remains a school district's responsibility to provide a quality and appropriate education to the youth of their community. To accomplish this, RSSTs and administrators are the main vehicles who set the climate, offer encouragement and deliver the curricula that learners require in pursuit of successful meeting of expectations set by the national or provincial legislation, regardless of the functioning conditions of each district (Huysman, 2008; Bantwini & Diko, 2011).

Consistently, the most valuable resources located within a rural district are teaching staff (Huysman, 2008:31). Despite having teachers as accessible resources, schools often do not take advantage of RSSTs as a resource at the levels desired or expected by the teachers themselves. Most teachers are interested in being active participants in the processes of significant school-based decisions, such as those dealing with professional development (PD), curriculum, and general procedure associated with schooling (Huysman, 2008; Singh 2010). Commitment and enthusiasm, both of which are fundamental components of job satisfaction, are compromised when RSSTs perceive that their experience, talents, and expertise are dismissed, ignored or underutilized (Blackmore, 2000; Desimone, Smith & Ueno, 2006; Huysman, 2008).

Published studies have indicated that motivation and job satisfaction have been accepted as bona fide conditions that affect one's performance on the job (Belle, 2007; Huysman, 2008; Maforah, 2010). Researchers have recognized that there is a strong relationship between commitment and job satisfaction (Breston & Kaston in Bull, 2005; Martin & Rootz, 2008). Breston and Kaston (in Bull 2005:56) found that intrinsic motivation was the more powerful link to teachers' performance. Although job satisfaction has been extensively studied in the business and industry, little research has focused on attitudes and beliefs related to job satisfaction of teachers (Brunetti, 2001). Collins (1999) and Brunetti

(2001) each noted that research on job satisfaction is incomplete within the education profession; it was noticeably absent in the area of rural schools. This study is therefore, trying to address the shortage of RSS research regarding RSST professional development and job satisfaction.

1.1.5 Teachers' attitudes towards curriculum change in South Africa

Educational dispensation has brought about radical changes in schools, particularly with reference to curriculum changes in South Africa (Somo, 2007:vi). Therefore, finding teachers' opinions may help curriculum developers to improve the curriculum (Balta & Eyrilmaz, 2011:73). As we know that every change is interpreted by others based on attitudes (Newstrom & Davis in Kasapoglu, 2010:18). The term attitude can be defined as what people think, feel and do (Kasapoglu, 2010:18). Moreover, Nel, Muller, Hugo, Helldin, Backmann, Dwyer and Skarlind (2011:77) define attitude as the tendency to react positively or negatively towards a certain object, be it a person or situation. They further argue that attitudes are closely related to one's opinion and are based on previous experiences.

According to psychologists, attitudes consist of three dimensions, namely: cognition; affective; and behavioural tendency towards change (Van der Zander in Kursunoglu, 2006). Attitudes towards change in general consist of a person's cognitions about change, affective actions to change and behavioural tendency towards change (Kasapoglu, 2010: 18). Attitudes towards a specific change such as the grades 10-12 NCS in South Africa consist of a person's recognition. As stated by Kursunoglu (2006), that when attitudes of employees (RSSTs) in an organization towards change are determined, possible preventative actions can be taken and right decisions can be given about the change process and about determining, planning, implementing and finally evaluating change. This can be valid for RSSTs in KZN. It seems possible to take preventative actions and give right directions about determining, implementing and evaluating any type of change when attitudes of teachers towards change are exactly known. Teachers may either be willing to change or resist changing (Kasapoglu, 2010:19). Benveniste and McEwan (2000) suggest that adoption of educational changes such as new pedagogies might be accounted for by teachers' willingness (motivation and willingness to change).

On the other hand, Guhn (2009) defines the resistance to change as a human tendency that is easily understood since change, particularly in the grades 10-12 NCS, requires new competencies and might lead to undesirable outcomes, such as exposing one's lack of competence and also strategies for facilitating curriculum implementation. Similarly, Makhwathana (2007:17) points out that the change in any domain of life does not always meet with approval. She argues that curriculum change can appear threatening and therefore bring resistance. It can also bring suspicion, fear and dissatisfaction (Pretorius, 1999:v). It is therefore the quality of teachers, principals and district officials, including the knowledge, background and progressiveness that will guarantee the grades 10-12 NCS success in RSSs (Piek in Makhwathana, 2007:17).

However, RSSTs' resistance to change might be caused by lack of adequate training in the grades 10-12 NCS in KZN. To confirm this, research by Gunes, Ates, Eryilmaz, Kanli, Serin and Arslan (2010) in Turkey found that investigated teachers were not ready for the new curriculum and their attitudes were negative. Similarly, a study by Kapucu and Yildirim (2010) in Turkey found that more than 50% of teachers lacked content knowledge in the new curriculum. Similarly, due to the lack of understanding and training in the new curriculum, not many South African teachers interpret the grades 10-12 NCS appropriately (Bosman, 2010:52). Their lack of knowledge and poor interpretation of grades 10-12 NCS place these South African teachers under extreme pressure causing them to feel discouraged and significantly disempowered (Bosman, 2010:52).

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Rural education in South Africa is not only of particular importance because of its political and economical dimensions, but also because the majority of learners in South Africa receive their education in these areas (Hofmeyer & Buckland in Seroto, 2004:2). This is confirmed by DoE-UNICEF (2008:3) that there are 55% of rural learners compared to 45% in urban schools in KZN. Unfortunately, RSSs in South Africa struggle to offer quality instruction, especially during the transformation period (Jita & Mokhele, 2008:254). In addition, Delport and Mangwaya (2008:221) point out that the challenge is that learner achievement, and in particular grade twelve results, are normally perceived to reflect the general standard of learning and teaching, not only at a particular school, but also in a particular country. In this regard, one of the troubling issues in South Africa is the

unsatisfactory level of learners' academic achievement, especially in historically African secondary schools (Christie, Butler & Potterton, 2007:55). Every year, the performance of secondary schools in the matriculation (grade twelve) examination comes under spotlight as soon as the results are published. Compared to urban secondary schools, secondary schools in the disadvantaged (rural) communities perform poorly in the matriculation examination each year (Joseph, 2004:iv). In 2005, Statistics South Africa concluded that the progress of Black South African learners, especially those in rural areas, is slow compared to other learners (Delport & Mangwaya, 2008:221). This is confirmed by Kobus Maree (in Mfusi, 2011) when commenting about the 2010 matriculation results:

> *We are in crisis. There is a huge divide; non-affluent schools are still getting the raw end of the deal.*

Some of the major causes for learners' poor performance are rapid changes such as the NCS terminology, continuous assessment, work overload and paperwork in various levels in the field of education in South Africa, which placed many demands on teachers, and have had a profound effect on their job satisfaction and working lives (Maphalala, 2006: 7). This is because the grades 10-12 NCS implementation demands from teachers, new and improved skills, and values and attitudes to cope with the wide range of demands (Mestry & Singh, 2007:47). Furthermore, Mazibuko (2007:6) points out that RSSTs in KZN are facing serious challenges that negatively affect learners' performance in the grades 10-12 NCS such as shortage of furniture, running water, flushing toilets and electricity. In the similar vein, Delport and Mangwaya (2008:224) point out that due to their remoteness, limited resources, and fluctuating quality of teacher expertise, RSSs are often more challenged in terms of the grades 10-12 NCS implementation.

1.2.1 South African contemporary curriculum for secondary schools

The Free Dictionary (2007) defines the secondary school as a school that is intermediate in level between elementary school and college and that usually offers general, technical, and vocational or college preparatory curricula. In South Africa, secondary school begins in grade eight. Learners study five years, at the end of which they write what is known as *matriculation* (Free Dictionary, 2007). As from 2008, in the National Senior Certificate Examinations the learner must attain a pass in his/her home language, additional language,

mathematics or mathematical literacy and life orientation to progress on to university (Free Dictionary, 2007). The NCS for grades 10-12 in South Africa is a complete revamp of the previous school curriculum to bring it in line with the 21st century skills and knowledge (Govender, 2008:4). Unlike the previous curriculum, the new one focuses a lot more on South Africa and Africa while also setting up high expectations of what South African learners can achieve (Govender, 2008:4). The new curriculum is sensitive to issues of diversity such as race, gender, language, age, disability, poverty, inequality and other factors across the various subjects (Govender, 2008; Banks & Banks, 2010; Nieto & Bode, 2010; Persell 2010). Learners are taught how to address these challenges in South Africa. The big question is: Are the KZN rural secondary school teachers adequately prepared and motivated to use these teaching and learning organizing principles in their classrooms?

A fundamental shift towards the grades 10-12 NCS was needed in South Africa, which would seemingly necessitate a change in theoretical frameworks, methodology and teaching practices (teaching styles, learning styles and teaching methods), the way teachers teach, the teaching and learning strategies they design and apply, and the assessment approaches they use (Alexander, le Roux, Hlalele & Daries, 2010:15). This new approach to teaching and learning requires radical changes in learning environment and the level of responsibility expected of teachers in South Africa (Aldridge, Laugksch, Seopa & Fraser, 2006). The grades 10-12 NCS focuses on what learners can actually do once they have been taught (Alexander et al., 2010:16). They maintain that all curriculum and decisions are made based on how best to facilitate the desired outcomes. This leads to planning in reverse of traditional planning (Alexander et al., 2010:16). The desired outcomes are selected first and the curriculum is created to support the intended outcomes (Lorenzen, 2004). This is a new role for RSSTs to play which needs them to be effectively and sufficiently developed by the district officials more particularly subject advisers, school management teams (SMTs) and their peers. For example, district-based and school-based PDPs are needed to develop RSSTs' skills, knowledge and attitudes in the grades 10-12 NCS implementation.

The new policies related to the grades 10-12 NCS, language of instruction and assessment may be well intentioned, but entrenched assessment practices seem to be hampering the government's efforts to transform school education (Vandeyar & Killen, 2007:101). The reluctance of many South African teachers to change their assessment practices in response

to the new policies and curriculum guidelines may be due to their conceptions of assessment (Vandeyar & Killen, 2007:101). Brown (2003:1) provides a strong argument that pedagogical acts are affected by the conceptions teachers have about the act of teaching, the process and purpose of assessment, and the nature of learning. Such conceptions act as filters through which teachers view and interpret their own teaching environment (Morton in Vandeyar & Killen, 2007:101). On the other hand, research by Poutiainen (2009:2) in Pietermaritzburg (KZN) secondary schools, found that no acknowledgement had been made of the differing conditions within which teachers in various schools were working. Consequently, any efforts to change teachers' pedagogical practices whether by mandate or through PD activities may be doomed to failure unless these conceptions are acknowledged, challenged and eventually changed (Vandeyar & Killen, 2007:101).

According to Motshekga (2009:15), the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS, however, depends on teachers who will implement it. She further argues that how teachers make sense of the curriculum, what they oppose and what they regard as assisting them, make a difference. As Fullan (2001) pointed out that to introduce curriculum reform without thinking through the implications for teachers and their classroom practice is likely to collide with very different understandings and result in insecurity and instability in the system. The success of the curriculum initiative is largely determined by what teachers think about the intended changes (Motshekga, 2009:16). Unfortunately, lack of resources and inadequate PD and training are still major challenges facing teachers in transforming the South African educational system (Singh, 2010:56). The other challenge is that there are a number of teachers who are teaching outside of their area of specialization in South African secondary schools (Motshekga, 2009:59). She states that in particular, there is a shortage of teachers for computer studies, arts and culture and economic and management sciences. There is also clear evidence that teachers are avoiding certain topics for mathematics, science, and accounting because they do not know them (Sapa, 2010). In mathematics, some South African teachers avoid trigonometry, and in accounting they avoid bookkeeping and management accounting. This is because teachers did not receive specialized training for teaching these new subjects from district officials and SMTs (Motshekga, 2009; Sapa, 2010). Not having capacity to usher in the changes at classroom level can lead to untold levels of anxiety, stress and tension within the teaching staff resulting in them suffering from tobephobia (Singh, 2010:56).

1.2.2 KwaZulu Natal RSSTs and the new curriculum

Research by Dala (2009:76) in KZN rural secondary schools indicated that learners cited the difficulty of the grades 10-12 NCS learning areas as the cause of their challenge. This is confirmed by a grade eleven RSST in the same research who referred the impact that the introduction of the grades 10-12 NCS has had on learners' performance:

> *Half of my class has a problem with basic punctuation, simple spelling and sentence construction.*

This indicates that RSS learners in KZN are not adequately prepared for the grades 10-12 NCS. The study further found that the lack of resources relevant to the grades 10-12 NCS was a serious contributory factor towards learner underperformance in KZN rural secondary schools (Dala, 2009:80).

One of the challenges of rural schools according to Monk (2007:159) is that teachers have comparatively low educational attainment, which suggests one reason why rural areas may be less likely to offer college-preparation programmes. Similarly, a study by Seroto (2004: 241) found that the rate of under-qualified and unqualified teachers still remains high in rural schools in KZN, which affects educational standards in the province. In addition, William and Monk (in Monk 2007:159) found that rural science teachers, for instance, were less likely to have graduate degrees and more likely to have majored in education with less coursework in science and mathematics than their urban school counterparts. In support, research by Dala (2009:76) found that a lack of qualified teachers in KZN rural secondary schools was raised as a challenging factor because learners are taught by their former school mates, particularly in mathematics and science subjects. This can negatively affect KwaZulu Natal RSS learners' performance since less and unqualified teachers generate lower learner achievement (Hodgson, 2010:36).

Furthermore, Rathogwa (2006:1) asserts that the drastic changes in methodology and learning content in South Africa left many teachers, particularly those in RSSs, in a state of uncertainty about their role in the classroom situation. Those RSSTs found themselves especially in need of skills and knowledge that would enable them to cope with educational transformation. Moreover, Munonde (2007) stresses that the inability of these South African teachers to facilitate teaching and learning using the new

curriculum gives them less confidence to engage in their teaching and reduce their motivation. Therefore, if RSSTs are to move with change and provide quality education, the need for PDPs must be realized (Rathogwa, 2006:2). Thomas (2003:1) argues that a quality assurance system is required that will feed into schooling via in-service training programmes so that curriculum, assessment practices, leadership, and governance and organization of schools will be improved.

However, a significant number of RSSTs lack motivation or capacity to upgrade themselves (Rathogwa, 2006:4). Rathogwa believes that many South African RSSTs do not have the time and means to study or otherwise, feel that they are matured and their student days are over and they are unable to return to studies due to the responsibilities of adulthood. Hayes (1997:107) emphasizes that many teachers have blasé attitude to their work. This is evidenced in the dropout rate of those enrolled in further education once they are in active service as teachers (Rathogwa, 2006:4).

Moreover, Ngcongo (2009:7) indicates that research shows that the majority of South African RSS grade twelve learners failed in the 2008 NCS examinations. She believes that one of the causes was that the grades 10-12 NCS demands learners to know what is happening worldwide, which is impossible to RSS learners since their parents are poor and illiterate and they are unable to buy them radios, newspapers and televisions. In addition, most RSSs have no computers and libraries (Ngcongo, 2009:7). Similarly, research by Dala (2009:76) confirms that unavailability of libraries makes it difficult for KZN rural learners to conduct research. This might negatively affect RSSTs' attitudes towards the working environment of RSSs. Another study by Ncube (2004:i) found that the reasons for the low pass rate in RSSs include the lack of resources, low teacher morale, long distances walked by learners to school and the curriculum which does not address the needs of rural learners. Similar findings were revealed by Seroto's (2004:241) research that there was a general feeling among RSSTs that the new curriculum was irrelevant to the needs of African rural learners. The latter will be investigated in this study.

The Ministerial Report on Rural Education (2005) highlighted the shortage of qualified and competent teachers, large classes, under-resourced school facilities and access to PDPs for RSSTs, being specific challenges facing teachers in rural schools in South Africa to implement the new curriculum. In addition, Nkosi (2008:2-3) points out that teachers in

KZN rural secondary schools are not frequently exposed to PD which empowers them with relevant skills and knowledge for the grades 10-12 NCS.

1.2.3 Job satisfaction of rural secondary school teachers

Teachers in a rural location are expected to teach multiple content areas and multiple grades levels with few resources and are also expected to supervise extracurricular activities (Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006). Teachers in rural schools are less prepared and less experienced than those in urban schools (Hammer, Hughes, McClure & Salgado, 2005). Hayes (2009:11) argues that teachers are professionals who want to work in an environment that fosters good teaching and supports their professional growth. Yet poor working conditions and lack of substantive PD and support are primary reasons that large numbers of teachers leave the profession within five years (Ingersoll in Hayes, 2009:11). He found that teachers in rural high poverty schools are 50% and more likely to leave compared to suburban and urban. This is confirmed by Mitra, Dangwal and Thadani's (2008:178) research that found that the urban school investigated had many resources. In this urban school, teachers regularly attend workshops to improve and advance their pedagogical methods. There were also a library and audio-visual room, science labs, and computer rooms. All the computing resources available at this urban school were absent from any of the rural schools studied. They also found that no teacher from this urban school wished to move away to rural areas, while most rural school teachers (69%) wanted to migrate to their nearest urban schools (Mitra et al., 2008:178).

Furthermore, Shrestha (2005:19) points out that teachers do not want to teach in rural schools. Similarly, Oluoch (2006:11) asserts that the working environment in rural areas does not attract teachers especially those with high qualifications, to work in very remote areas. Some of the reasons are the great shortage of staff houses and there are no good houses for rural school teachers to rent (Oluoch, 2006:11), together with the remoteness, insurgency and also lack of opportunities for further education (Shrestha, 2005:19). Due to this situation, highly qualified teachers are either in urban or semi-urban areas (Oluoch, 2006:11). Moreover, a study by Shrestha (2005:57) found that urban schools had better facilities than rural schools; they at least had toilets, water and sufficient classrooms, while rural schools lacked even basic infrastructure. Rural school classrooms were often dark and did not have enough space for learners.

Although studies suggest that RSSTs are not as well educated as their urban counterparts, with 37% holding master's degrees versus 47% urban school teachers (Domenech, 2006: 29), some believe that education in rural schools is better that in urban areas while some still disagree (Lawless, 2009:2). For those who believe that an urban education is better, research does not provide clear evidence that rural schools are inferior to urban schools, and analysis revealed that rural schools achieve mean annual gains in performance that equal or are better than those of their urban counterparts (Bylund & Reeves, 2005:360). This is supported by recent research by Hussain, Ali, Khan, Ramzan and Qadeer (2011: 990) that found that teachers working in RSSs were more committed and satisfied compared to the teachers working in urban secondary schools. This study will therefore investigate the levels of job satisfaction among RSSTs in KZN.

1.2.4 Professional development of teachers as curriculum workers

In order to implement the grades 10-12 NCS successfully in KZN rural secondary schools, teachers must be adequately developed. Research on school effectiveness and improvement has emphasized the necessity for continuous growth of professional knowledge and skills (Desimone, et al., 2006:178). Since teachers have the most direct sustained contact with learners, as well as considerable control over what is taught and the climate of learning, it is reasonably assumed that improving teachers' knowledge, skills and dispositions is one of the most critical steps to improving learner achievement (King & Newman, 2001:86). This implies that even experienced RSSTs are required to renew their knowledge and their skills throughout their teaching career (Van Eekelen, Vermunt & Boshuizen, 2006:408). To ensure that all teachers are appropriately equipped for improving learner performance in the grades 10-12 NCS, it is necessary to find suitable PD approaches (Hirsh, 2005:38).

Recent PDPs have become more continuing and content-based (Brandt, 2003; Desimone et al., 2006). Mundry (2005:9) outlines three shifts in belief regarding PD: the importance of teachers' experience and knowledge of learner learning is increasingly being acknowledged; PD focuses on learning content, as well as teaching methods, and PD aims to improve all learners' learning of the challenging content to enable them to meet the required standards. However, mere attendance of PDPs does not necessarily guarantee

teachers' PD (Van Eekelen et al., 2006:408). Some researchers believe that many PDPs are ineffective and do not meet the set goals (Boyle, Lamrianou & Boyle, 2005:40).

To meet the growing RSSTs' challenges and needs in South Africa, it has become necessary to transform education and to equip teachers appropriately to address challenges and needs (Steyn, 2009:14). According to the President's Education Initiative Research Project, the most critical challenge for teacher education in South Africa is the limited conceptual knowledge of many teachers (RSA, 2007:14). RSSTs' limited access to PD is also identified in the Report of the Ministerial Committee on Rural education of 2005 (RSA, 2007:5). Furthermore, with a larger learner diversity and social inequality, South Africa needs more skilled teachers to assist learners in learning operating on appropriate levels (RSA, 2007:4). The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development aims to meet the needs for teachers in South Africa (RSA, 2007:5). It focuses on two complementary subsystems, namely: professional education of teachers such as national professional diploma in education (NPDE) for unqualified and under-qualified teachers and advanced certificate (ACE) for qualified teachers; and continuing PDPs such as workshops, conferences, seminars and meetings for teachers to update their knowledge and teaching skills (RSA, 2007:2). These two types are referred as PDPs in this study since they are both provided to RSSTs who are already serving.

According to Lee (2005:40), teachers develop professionally when PDPs recognize their needs. Fortunately, the PD also expects teachers to take charge of their self development by identifying areas in which they need to grow professionally (RSA, 2007:3). Need-based PD is also supported by Desimone et al. (2006:206), who believe that the principal should monitor and evaluate teachers to decide what kinds of PDPs that match their needs. However, to keep support for PD and balance in teachers' development in equilibrium may be more difficult if decisions about PD are made from the top down (Steyn, 2009:117). This may contravene the teachers' professionalism and autonomy (Desimone et al., 2006: 206). If teachers have no, or have little choice in the selection of PD, the programmes may be less effective as a result of the top down approach (Desimone et al., 2006:206). This view is supported by Lee's (2005:46) findings that the success of PD model is attributed to the fact that teachers have been partners of the whole process-planning their own learning experience, implementing practices, providing feedback and evaluating the programmes. This study will therefore investigate whether RSSTs' PD needs are addressed by PDPs in

KZN rural secondary schools.

1.2.5 Relationship between teacher professional development and job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is recognized as a significant factor in motivation and PD (Garrett, 2009). Teacher job satisfaction has been recognized as extremely important to implementing any education reform, for involving teachers in lifelong learning, for the quality of teaching-learning process and for satisfaction with life in general (Dos Santos Seco, 2002:1). For the development of quality teachers in KZN rural secondary schools one has to understand factors associated with it such as working conditions, PDPs and support from the SMTs and subject advisers (Sharma & Jyoti, 2010:1). They also identify job satisfaction as one of those factors. In addition, research by Mello (2008:39) discovered that PD increases job satisfaction. In particular, this analysis demonstrates that different types of PD influence job satisfaction in different ways and highlight the importance of categorizing PDPs into two groups; traditional and non-traditional (Mello, 2008:39).

Teacher commitment is an important factor determining the successful implementation of educational reforms in the schools (Sargent & Hannum, 2005:175). Therefore, the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS will require greater level of teacher initiative and innovation, making teacher commitment and motivation important (Sargent & Hannum, 2005:175). However, a study by Lee (2006:649) found that Bossac teachers did not mention PD as an element of their job satisfaction because most of them did not view the teaching profession as their lifelong career. In contrast, Noga teachers in the same study mentioned more multiple satisfaction factors than Bossac teachers, namely: in-service training, scholarships to further their studies and opportunity for teaching certificate (Lee, 2006:649). Furthermore, Garner (in Oliver, 2007:2) points out that when teachers are satisfied, they are more energetic, innovative and productive. In addition, Sargent and Hannum, (2005:181) point out that research on teacher job satisfaction has noted the importance of collegial relationships and administrative support for teaching. They argue that this support is in the form of RSST induction and organizational socialization such as peer-mentoring programmes. Therefore, working collegially can create a web of support that helps RSSTs with stressful, frustrating and dissatisfying tasks that reduces their job satisfaction (Garner in Oliver, 2007:2).

To ensure the highest return on KwaZulu Natal RSSTs' PD investments, it is important that the expected increase in teacher knowledge and skills is accompanied by an increase in teacher job satisfaction and retention (Mello, 2008:2). Meaningful teacher learning is more likely to occur when PD is relevant to specific district and context of RSSTs' own classroom (Mello, 2008:6). Additionally, sustained opportunities to reflect, practise, and experiment with new instruction and curriculum knowledge is more effective than brief, one time training programmes that cover broad and unfocused topics (Mello, 2008:6). Presumably, high quality PD will encompass all of these preceding elements to support RSSTs so that they feel effective, empowered and satisfied in their teaching (Garet, Porter, Birman & Suk-Yoon, 2001).

1.2.6 Impact of socio-economical issues as RSSTs' challenges

All humans, including the KZN rural school learners, are directly influenced by their environment (Greene, 2005:10). The environment in which learners live has direct bearing on their ability to progress and cope with academic and social aspects of the schooling system (Bosman, 2010:1). RSSs in particular face several challenges that affect academic performance including high rates of child poverty (Johnson & Strange, 2007). Learners from households where poverty prevails and parents cannot provide the necessary support to enhance learning, often find it difficult to succeed in an academic environment (West & Pennell, 2003:118). This indicates that poverty is one of the KwaZulu Natal RSSTs' challenges since they teach children from homes of poverty, which have unique educational needs. Furthermore, Hatfield (2002) suggests that rural school districts serve a large percentage of learners living in poverty. Similarly, Flora, Flora and Fey (2003) argue that RSSs serve a large numbers of African learners, families in socio-economic distress and many single parent families with little education.

Another problem is that lower-class learners who tend to encounter less prepared teachers, are less likely to be exposed to valued curricula, are taught less of whatever curricula they do study, and are expected to do less work in the classroom and outside of it (Persell, 2010: 97). In such unfavourable condition, RSS learners are at risk for low motivation and lack of school success (Lichter, Roscigno, & Condron, 2003). Considering that factors such as poverty, unemployment, high illiteracy levels among parents and their low levels of

involvement in school matters are often common in low socio-economic areas such as rural areas, it stands to reason that these will not impact only on learners' academic success, but will also negatively influence South African teachers' morale, as teaching success is hampered (Bosman, 2010:2).

1.2.7 Geographical isolation challenges to RSSTs

Rural schools face a unique set of challenges, largely due to their geographical isolation (Arnold, Newman, Gaddy & Dean, 2005:1). There is a combined impact of distance and sparse populations on schools' abilities to staff classes according to learner needs (Johnson & Strange, 2007). There are limited transport resources to these areas where learners and RSSTs usually walk long distances to school (Harselman, 2003:947). Harselman (2003) further points out that when it rains these rural gravel roads become dangerous to travel on. Furthermore, Howley and Howley (2005) state that the other challenge is that there are limited resources for educational materials and RSSTs' PDPs. In addition, Lowe (2006) points out that RSSs are unable to attract and retain highly qualified teachers who have appropriate training and credentials. Hodgson (2010:11) argues that RSSTs are often professionally isolated as well as geographically and socially isolated. This is because teachers who move into rural areas to teach often relocate far from family and friends, familiar cultural and social outlets and opportunity to continue their education (Hammer et al., 2005). In addition, Sarda (2005:1) points out that in most cases the low attendance of teachers in poor rural schools is a consequence of high geographical isolation of schools and the distance of teachers from large cities. This study will therefore find out how geographical isolation affects RSST in KZN.

1.2.8 Language issue in South African schools as RSST challenge

According to Lefera (2010:1), the education system in South Africa is to blame for the low matriculant pass rates because of its ineffectiveness and irrelevance to the South African context. The leading cause of failure in South Africa is that RSS learners do not understand the language (English) that is used in education. It is a common knowledge among people who have set foot in rural schools that learners do not understand the English language and therefore, they cannot use it to verbally express themselves or write effectively. Research accomplished by the Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005:88 & 91) revealed that rural school learners in South Africa found it difficult to understand their teachers and what is

18

written in the textbooks they use due to English language as the medium of instruction. Similar findings are presented by Labane (2009:30) study in the Eastern Cape province (South Africa) that discovered that rural school learners have problems in understanding school subjects in English. Yet this same language remains the language of instruction (Labane, 2009; Lefera, 2010). This English challenge can significantly constrain the educational achievement of all learners served in KZN rural secondary schools and may limit the attainment of even the most promising learners (Chance & Segura, 2009:1). These learners experience cognitive dissonance since they cannot display their abilities due to English as a learning barrier.

1.2.9 Rural districts in KZN

In KZN, the vast majority of districts within regions are situated in remote rural areas where infrastructure is extremely poor and often non-existent (Dala, 2009:3). According to him, these rural districts are Sisonke, Ilembe, Uthukela, Empangeni, Vryheid, Umzinyathi and Obonjeni. In terms of the 2009 matriculation results, these districts obtained poor results. Some of the reasons cited for their high failure were inadequate facilities and shortage of teachers in RSSs (Dala, 2009:3). Although there was an improvement in the 2010 matriculation results nationally and also in KZN, Empangeni, Umzinyathi, Obonjeni, Vryheid, Ilembe, Sisonke and Uthukela districts still lagged behind.

The reason is that many secondary schools in these districts reside in inaccessible areas which make it difficult for facilities to reach them (Harselman, 2003:947). In addition, one of the contributory factors to the low pass rate in KZN rural secondary schools is revealed by Dala's (2009:85) research that unfavourable working conditions led to teacher migration. This has been also pointed out by Barley and Brigham (2008:iii) that achievement of rural learners can be negatively affected by the low retention rates for rural teachers. Every year South African RSSs are losing teachers in succession because of the low level of lifestyle in rural areas (Phungula, 2012:4). Table 1.1 below shows how rural districts performed in previous four years (from 2009 to 2012) compared to urban districts.

Table 1.1 KZN matriculation results for 2009, 2010, 2011 and 2012

District	2009	2010	2011	2012
Amajuba	64.53%	78.78%	73.08%	77.66%
Empangeni	56.91%	63.98%	63.73%	67.15%
Ilembe	55.63%	69.33%	65.66%	70.31%
Obonjeni	48.82%	63.53%	55.27%	65.16%
Uthukela	64.64%	73.4%	68.42%	73.16%
Pinetown	64.77%	71.24%	68.51%	77.44%
Sisonke	42.75%	62.02%	65.99%	68.89%
Ugu	60.03%	69.08%	68.37%	71.99%
Umgungundlovu	66.68%	75.86%	72.27%	75.66%
Umlazi	72.12%	78.8%	76.98%	79.94%
Umzinyathi	55.92%	69.22%	70.94%	70.79%
Vryheid	61.78%	66.57%	66.57%	72.54%

Source: Mchunu (2011, 2012)

Table 1.1 shows that rural districts such as Vryheid, Ilembe, Umzinyathi, Sisonke, Empangeni, Obonjeni and Uthukela districts are still lagging behind in grade twelve NCS pass rate. The lowest was Sisonke with only 45.75% in 2009, but improved to 62.02% in 2010. Although improvement is noticed in 2010 and 2011 matriculation results, rural districts are still performing worse than urban districts such as Umlazi, Pinetown, Ugu, Amajuba and UMgungundlovu. The lowest of the urban districts in 2009 was Amajuba with 64.53% in 2009 and improved to 78.78% in 2010. Only one rural district managed to achieve more than 70% (Uthukela with 73.4%) in 2010. Similarly, in 2011 only one rural district managed to get more than 70% (Umzinyathi with 70. 94%). Although there was vast improvement in 2012 matric examination results in KZN, rural districts are still lagging behind compared to urban districts except Uthukela (73.16%). This shows that there is a lot to be done to improve the performance of RSSs in KZN. The latter has been supported by Sishi (in Mail and Guardian, 2012) that socio-economic issues still determine the performance of learners in KZN. This is because RSS learners have to walk long distances and learn in adverse conditions discussed in the latter sections.

The problems experienced in KZN rural schools are in fact wide spread at varying degrees in the previous disadvantaged communities (Ministry of Education, 2005:7). There are inappropriate conditions of service for teachers and district support is minimal (Ministry of Education, 2005:7). However, the KZN rural districts are expected to perform as urban districts. Singh (2010:131) aptly points out that schools in African communities in South Africa still suffer from the legacy of large classes, deplorable physical conditions and the absence of learning resources, and yet the teachers and learners in these poor schools are expected to achieve the same levels of teaching and learning as those in schools with well endowed resources in largely well developed urban areas. A high failure rate in the grades 10-12 NCS is common among this group of learners, especially in secondary schools (Singh, 2010:131). Additionally, Mazibuko (2007:3) complains that some learners attend schools which are well developed while many RSS learners in KZN are still in schools which are comparable with the worst in Africa. This might cause RSSTs stress because their schools were also compelled to meet the South African national matriculation pass rate of 70% in 2012 even though their working conditions are not conducive for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS (Motshekga, 2012:5).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teachers are the most important resource in the school, and a high quality education system depends on high quality teachers (Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003:1). Teachers are responsible for guiding learning experience (Bosman, 2010:52). Bosman (2010:52) further points out that the South African curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS) is articulated by what school wants learners to learn, what skills they have to master, and what values and attitudes they have to acquire. Through understanding the curriculum contents, teachers appreciate what knowledge is important for learners to know what the purpose is of utilizing the curriculum, and how this will provide the needs of the learners (Willem, Ishler, Hutchison & Kindsvatter in Bosman, 2010:52). More importantly, the quality of school education basically depends on the professionalism and devotion of teachers, and positive changes in schools cannot be realized without teachers' commitment to and participation in reform; therefore, teachers' quality and morale are the key to success of education reform (Kim, 2000:35). In addition, Manser (2005:1) believes that teacher (RSST) job satisfaction is an important factor for effective curriculum implementation in South African schools:

The South African government's vision of culture of teaching and learning in all schools may not become a reality if teachers are unmotivated and dissatisfied at their place of work. An improved teachers' levels of job satisfaction is crucial if meaningful development in schools is to take place.

According to Khan (2004:1), the overall job satisfaction is strongly determined by higher order emotional and social needs, most notably professional self-esteem, job security and interpersonal relations at work (between teachers, education managers, learners and parents/ communities), opportunities for career progression, the working environment, the workload and learning outcomes. In addition, Yunying and Bang (in Free Research Papers Download Center, 2010) found that factors such as the nature of work, occupation sense of involvement, interpersonal relationships, salary, leadership, education and physical conditions are among the factors that affect teacher job satisfaction. Furthermore, Mwiria (2006:10) contends that effective teaching is influenced by the school climate. A satisfactory school climate induces teachers to produce more and better results (Mwiria, 2006:10). A positive learning climate is essential in building a supportive learning environment which in turn encourages competent contributors (Lewin, Samuel & Sayed, 2003:157). Such a climate encompasses issues such as relationship between teachers, learners, the subject matter, and establishing a culture within the school environment that contributes towards a positive learning experience (Willem et al. in Bosman, 2010:48).

On the other hand, the learning climate may be extremely poor in specific socio-economic areas such as in KZN rural secondary schools (Bosman, 2010:48). She believes that this poor learning climate may be due to a culture of non-learning in the community. The challenges discussed in this chapter make the grades 10-12 NCS implementation in KZN rural secondary schools a challenge that needs to be addressed. These challenges can only be addressed if KZN rural secondary school teachers' attitudes towards the grades 10-12 NCS, salary, working conditions and PD strategies, and expectations about PD strategies provided to them are known. These challenges are the focus of this study. Limited research on job satisfaction and PDPs of RSSTs has been conducted in South Africa and therefore, it is the aim of this study to address this research gap. The study focuses on KZN rural school secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers. The main question of this study is:

What are rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers?

To answer the main question, the following sub-questions will be investigated:

(1) Why do RSS learners still lag behind compared to urban and former Model C school learners?

(2) What are the RSSTs' job satisfaction levels in the grades 10-12 NCS, working conditions and the wider school community?

(3) Is there any difference between multicultural education, job satisfaction and PD, and biographical variables (gender, age, experience, type of employment, qualification and level of position)?

(4) Do RSSTs enjoy teaching in poverty-stricken communities of rural areas?

(5) What PD strategies are in place and what is their impact on the development of teachers' competencies as competent curriculum workers (CW)?

1.4 THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim is to investigate the extent of rural secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and support provided to develop their competencies as CWs. To explore the main aim the following objectives are realized:

(1) To identify the causes why RSS learners' performance is still lagging behind compared to that of former Model C schools;

(2) To investigate RSSTs' job satisfaction levels in the grades 10-12 NCS, school working conditions and the conditions in the wider school community;

(3) To explore the differences between multicultural education, job satisfaction and teachers' PD, and biographical variables (gender, age, experience, level of education, post level and type of employment);

(4) To find out whether RSSTs enjoy working in poverty-stricken communities of rural areas; and,

(5) To investigate PDPs provided and their impact on developing teachers as CWs.

1.5 ASSUMPTIONS AND HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 Assumptions

This study is based on the following eight assumptions:

1: Learners' poor command of English and poverty contribute to learners' poor performance in rural areas.

2: RSSTs are not happy with their job, working conditions and the wider school

community.

3: Work overload, too much paperwork and the grades 10-12 NCS lead to teachers' job dissatisfaction.

4: Subject advisers and SMTs are not effective work-integrated professional development (WIPD) facilitators.

5: There are no planned PDPs in RSSs.

6: RSSTs are not adequately developed.

7: The current PDPs do not cater for RSSTs' development needs since they are provided without teachers' input.

8: Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) does not develop teachers.

1.5.2 Hypotheses

This study is based on the following six hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Poverty influences RSS learners' poor command of English.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between the wider school community and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The WIPD determines the teachers' levels of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: The wider school community determines the school working conditions.

Hypothesis 5: There is a relationship between poor school safety and bad unsafe teachers' accommodation.

Hypothesis 6: PD plan influences the current PD strategies.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted through the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, a strategy supported by Borland (2001:12), when he argues that quantitative and qualitative research are not mutually exclusive approaches, rather the most useful research findings typically result from appropriately applying both paradigms. Mixed methods research is the systematic combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in research or evaluation (Chen, 2006:1). Furthermore, Tashakkori and Creswell (2007:4) define mixed methods research as a research in which an investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single study. In addition, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) point out that mixed methods inquiry is an approach to investigating the social world that ideally

involves more than one methodological tradition and thus more than one way of knowing, along with more than one kind of technique for gathering, analyzing, and representing human phenomena, all for the purpose of better understanding. This study therefore used mixed methods research in order to address the shortcomings of quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Only three KZN districts participated in the study, namely, Ilembe, Umzinyathi and Empangeni. Data from the respondents was in the form of words and numbers. The qualitative type of data was categorized in terms of their sources such as individual open-ended interviews, observation and audiovisual materials such as video camera and digital camera (Creswell, 2006:114). On the other hand, a quantitative type of data was collected using instruments (closed-ended questionnaires) that measured individual attitudes. This information was in the form of numbers (Creswell, 2006:115). Therefore, data analysis in this study was based on narrative data and statistical data. Research design is discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

1.7 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

1.7.1 Professional competencies

Professional competencies include knowledge and understanding of learners and their learning, subject learning, curriculum, the education system and teachers' role (Malm & Lofgren, 2006:1). They further state that professional competencies entail skills such as subject application, classroom methodology, classroom management, assessments and recording and undertaking a wider role. Furthermore, Katane, Aizsila and Beitere, (2006: 44) define competencies as the set of knowledge, skills, and experience necessary for future, which manifest activities. Similarly, Gupta (1999:4) defines competencies as the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, motivations and beliefs people need in order to be successful in a job. The common understanding related to teacher competencies is divided into three main areas as a field of competencies, pedagogical competencies, and cultural competencies (Selvi, 2010:168).

Different authors have different terms regarding the development of professional competencies of teachers. For instance, Fullan (2001) calls it capacity building. In addition, Weller and Weller (2000:118) maintain that terms such as in-service education, human

resources and professional or continuous development are frequently used synonyms. They further state that staff development focuses on providing new knowledge and skills, attitudes and beliefs. According to Weller and Weller (2000:118), teachers attend regular workshops, seminars, or in-service programmes with more of the same content and delivery systems that are grounded in the belief that more is better.

For the purpose of this study, professional teacher competencies are knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that are required for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in KZN rural secondary schools. The development of professional competencies of KwaZulu Natal RSSTs is important in this study since PD strategies to develop them were investigated.

1.7.2 Curriculum workers

CWs are very important in this research because teachers are also CWs. CWs mean education professionals who work with the curriculum at different levels such as national, provincial, district, school and classroom levels. According to Marsh (1997:8), CWs are many and include school-based personnel such as teachers, principals and parents, and university-based specialists; industries; and community groups; and government agencies and politicians. However, the focus of the study is on CWs at school level, which are teachers.

The responsibilities of CWs within the school structure are important (Ornstein & Lunenburg (2007:435). For example, teachers are usually expected among other things to provide instruction and assess learners (Ornstein & Lunenburg, 2007:435). Teachers are also expected to assess the learner performance in terms of continuous assessment (CASS) and summative assessment including tests and/or examinations (Hendricks, 2008). Additionally, teachers as CWs are also expected to play the facilitator's role rather than being the transmitter of knowledge in the South African constant curriculum changes (Hendricks, 2008). Bobbitt (in Apple 2004:67) states that the task of the CW is to be determined by the local community which the RSSs are situated.

The concept CWs in this study is important since it drives this research to focus more on the grades 10-12 NCS implementation in KZN rural secondary schools. In addition, CWs

are important in this study because the study aimed to investigate RSSTs' experiences of the PD strategies provided to develop them as competent CWs.

1.7.3 Rural secondary school teachers

The teacher is defined as a full time classroom practitioner whose main function is more instructional than management; one who offers formal instruction to learners and whose professional activity involves transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills that are stipulated to learners enrolled in an educational programme in a school (Van Amelsvoort, Hendricks & Scheerens, 2000:25-26). On the other hand, a secondary school teacher teaches one or more national curriculum subjects to learners aged 11-19 in schools with grades 8-12 (Maxwell, 2008). This implies that RSSTs are teachers who teach in RSSs. RSSTs are challenged at the level of individual teaching skills, as well as the organizational and cultural level (Conco, 2004:5).

Secondary school is our final stage for preparing learners for higher education institutions and the world, and therefore, secondary school teachers are obvious critical components of the quality of that preparation (Tyler, 2011:1). To ascertain the high quality of teaching in secondary schools, these teachers are required to have a teaching diploma (M+3) or a bachelor's degree in education (BEd=M+4) qualification (American Federation of Teachers, 2011). Secondary school teachers generally conduct classes in their fields of specialization such as mathematics and science, languages, social sciences and economic and management sciences (American Federation of Teachers, 2011). Therefore, these teachers must have the competency to effectively use assessment and data to impact on teaching and learning, to have the ability to teach in a specialized teaching environment, especially in RSS settings, and the ability to convey knowledge to learners in an understandable manner (Miller, 2009:4).

In the context of this study, RSSTs are teachers who teach in RSSs in KZN. These teachers are qualified, under-qualified and unqualified. Since these teachers possess different experiences; gender; age; and qualifications, their experiences and perceptions can be different regarding job satisfaction, multicultural education and PDPs provided. It is therefore the aim of this study to explore their experiences of job satisfaction and the PDPs provided.

1.7.4 Curriculum

The curriculum is defined in terms of the technical or scientific approach and non-technical or non-scientific approach. As O'Neill (2010:5) points out, in the technical approach, the curriculum is a blueprint, definable process; unusually pre-ordained objectives, the emphasis is on efficiency. Furthermore, the technical approach is considered as fluff, watered down, or disorderly by most administrators, who rely on the orderly and rational work (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008:419). Advocates of the latter model take issues with the assumption and consequences of traditional models (Luneburg & Ornstein, (2008:419). Compared to technical approach, the non-technical approach stresses personal, subjective aesthetic nature of curriculum, focus on learner, view learning as holistic and learners as participants (O'Neill, 2010; Lunenburg, 2011). The key focus in non-technical approach is not on the content or on learning outcomes (LOs) but on the learner (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008; O'Neill, 2010). The subject matter selected in the development process of the curriculum has importance only to the degree that the learners can find meaning in it for themselves (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). The subject matter in the non-technical approach only provides learners with opportunities for reflective and personal growth (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008:419).

The wider conceptions of curriculum in a non-technical approach include numerous theories and ideas that are aesthetic, feminist, pluralistic and diverse, political/social, moral/ethical, visionary and imaginative, spiritual (Greene, 2008; Banks, 2011; Pinar, 2012). These new curriculum theories and ideas represent a rejection of the technical curriculum approach but to a more practical approach (Lunenburg, 2011:5). Although some of these concepts may be considered dysfunctional and divisive, as well as impractical for teachers, they are considered relevant to learners' needs (Lunenburg (2011: 5). The non-technical approach to curriculum is considered more speculative, expressive, emotional, argumentative, politically-based, controversial and crisis-driven, far different from the rational, logical, behaviourist, technocratic ideas that have characterized the traditional curriculum making (O' Neill, 2010; Lunenburg, 2011). The more learner-centred approach such as the grades 10-12 NCS approaches would align themselves with the non-technical approach (O'Neill, 2010:6).

For the purpose of this study, the curriculum is a plan of learning programmes and learning activities that take place within formal and informal educational institutions. These activities are based on a non-technical model of curriculum development which is learner-centred. Curriculum is the backbone of this study since job satisfaction of RSSTs and PD strategies of the RSSTs are investigated on the basis of the grades 10-12 NCS implementation in KZN.

1.7.5 Teacher job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as the positive feeling resulting from attaining what one wants or values from a job (Olsen in Ali, 2009:289). According to Brief (in Khalifa and Truong 2010:136), job satisfaction can generally be defined as an employee's attitudes towards his or her job. Although job satisfaction is a major factor for school productivity and retention, there are several theoretical models to explain, predict, or understand it. Furthermore, Hagedom (2000) states that job satisfaction is measured subjectively, depending on an individual's personal preferences and values. Job satisfaction influences many factors in an individual's job performance, including work commitment, motivation, productivity, stress level and turnover (Ali, 2009:289).

Job satisfaction is an affective emotional response towards various aspects of one's job (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008; Locke in Westover, 2011a). Moreover, Knights and Kennedy (2005) define job satisfaction as an attitude that reflects how people feel about their job. Here the focus is on the work environment and reflects immediate reactions towards tangible employment aspects (Van Rooyen & Keyse, 2011:53-54). Additionally, Singh and Manser (2011:89) point out that job satisfaction for teachers can be defined as the extent to which individuals are happy in their jobs. Singh and Manser (2011) regard job satisfaction and happiness as being synonyms. Moreover, Thordike and Banhart (in Giacometti 2005: 16) define job satisfaction as the fulfilment of conditions or desires. Therefore, one would expect that a person is satisfied when his or her expectations and desires are met. The latter is supported by Yilmaz and Dilmac (2011:303) that job satisfaction is about meeting expectations of employees. It is also believed that a satisfied teacher produces good performance in the class. As the literature on teacher job satisfaction has consistently shown a significant relationship between teacher job satisfaction and learner achievement (Leslie in Lee, 2006:643). However, teachers would exit the teaching profession if their

experience in their schools and in their classrooms is not satisfactory (Kirby & Grissmer in Giacometti, 2005:17).

In the context of this study, job satisfaction is a result of RSSTs' perception of how well their job provides things such as joy, resources, accommodation and protection that are viewed as important. RSSTs' desires and expectations from their job are important for their satisfaction. This study will therefore investigate whether RSSTs' job, school working conditions and the school wider community meet their expectations and desires to make them feel happy with their job.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While admitting that the problem under investigation may occur in other provinces of South Africa this study is confined to only three districts in KZN, which are Ilembe, Empangeni and Umzinyathi. Because of the time and financial constraints, only one circuit at Empangeni district and two at Umzinyathi district and also two at Ilembe district participated in the study. Fifty RSSs participated in the study. The sample of RSSs chosen and participants to complete questionnaires and to be interviewed were consistent with the mixed methods research. This research was purposefully limited to RSSs of KZN. Only the RSSs with grades 10-12 participated in the study. Participants were chosen on the basis of willingness to take part in the research.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The importance of the study is that it increased the RSSTs' literature study in the South African context. The study was conducted with the aim also to provide education stakeholders about the RSSTs' levels of satisfaction in their job in terms of the grades 10-12 NCS implementation in KZN. It also informs the South African society about RSSTs and the environment under which they work. In addition, the study revealed the PD strategies and their impact on the development of the KwaZulu Natal RSSTs. It also provided recommendations for future effective RSST job satisfaction and PDPs. The study also revealed the levels of RSST job satisfaction and which would in turn help schools, the Ministry of Education and other stakeholders to improve educational provision more particularly in KZN rural secondary schools.

1.10 PROPOSED CHAPTERS OF THE STUDY

1.10.1 Chapter One: General orientation and background

The chapter provides an orientation of the study, background to the problem, job satisfaction of urban and rural secondary schools. The chapter also provides PDPs for teachers, statement of the problem, research questions and aims. Methodology, clarification of important concepts and limitations of the study are provided.

1.10.2 Chapter Two: Job satisfaction of the rural secondary school teachers

The impact of multicultural education in the school reform and teaching in rural schools is provided. Job satisfaction theories are reviewed. Emphasis is placed on Maslow's hierarchy of human basic needs, Herzberg's Two Factor theory, McClelland's Achievement theory and Alderfers' ERG theory. Job satisfaction in African countries is also discussed.

1.10.3 Chapter Three: Strategies to develop the profession competencies of RSSTs

This chapter deals with a literature review that provides theoretical background to strategies used to develop RSSTs. This chapter provides general strategies of PD and current strategies that are used in South Africa to develop RSSTs. The role players in PD such as principals, heads of departments (HODs) and subject advisers, are studied in chapter three. The nature of IQMS in KZN is also reviewed.

1.10.4 Chapter Four: Research design

This chapter outlines the research methodology and the procedures for the study. It discusses how the study is designed and conducted. This chapter also provides information on the selection of participants and the manner in which data is collected.

1.10.5 Chapter Five: Discussion of findings on multicultural education

This chapter analyses the data on multicultural education. Research finding of subsections such as teachers' expectation of RSS learners and bias and racism are presented.

1.10.6 Chapter Six: Discussion of findings on job satisfaction

This chapter presents findings of job satisfaction. Research findings of sub-sections such as teachers' experiences of job satisfaction, WIDP, working conditions, the wider school community and the grades 10-12 NCS are presented in this chapter.

1.10.7 Chapter Seven: Discussion of findings on professional development

This chapter presents research findings on PD theories, IQMS, current PD strategies, PD plan and how WIPD are provided for effective teacher development.

1.10.8 Chapter Eight: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter provides conclusions from the literature study and from the empirical study. Conclusions and recommendations are based on multicultural education, teachers' job satisfaction and teachers' PD.

1.11. SUMMARY

This chapter provides an orientation of the study, background to the research problem, the job satisfaction of urban and rural school teachers. Issues affecting teacher job satisfaction such as the grades 10-12 NCS, PDPs, socio-economic status in rural areas, geographical isolation of schools, and English as the language of learning and teaching are provided and discussed in this chapter. This chapter provides a table of previous years' matriculation results (2009-2012). The latter results show that rural districts' performance is poor compared to urban districts. Furthermore, this chapter provides the statement of the problem, research questions, aims, assumptions and hypotheses of this study. The type of research methodology to be used in this study is provided in Chapter One. Proposed chapters of this study are also provided.

CHAPTER TWO
RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

From a detailed account in "Chapter One" of this study on specific challenges of RSSTs such as rural learners, geographical isolation, the grades 10-12 NCS, the English language, and PDPs, the focus turns to a discussion of the RSSTs' job satisfaction. Therefore, one of the objectives of this chapter is to investigate experiences of RSSTs' job satisfaction in KZN. To address this objective, it is therefore vital to know precisely the type of learners they teach, the nature of environment in which they work, their responses in these challenges and how multicultural education can overcome these challenges.

Rural schools in KZN serve low-income Black learners who experience impoverished (meaning becoming poor) circumstances such as lack of resources and poor learning conditions that are linked to poor education and occupation outcomes (Risimati, 2007; Mazibuko, 2007; Dala, 2009). The DoE-UNICEF (2008:10) and Dala (2009:20) concur that there is a high rate of poverty and unemployment (35%) in KZN that hinders learners' access to better education resources and limits their performance. In support, Joseph (2004: 3) points out that schools that are constantly producing extremely poor results in South Africa are located in the previously disadvantaged communities. A school that exists in the society that has seriously socio-economic problems tends to produce poor results (Joseph, 2004:3). Hirsch (2007:3) supports that learners from disadvantaged background do worse than those from advantaged background. In addition, Flippo and Caverly (2009) point out that Black learners from a lower-income background are less likely to have sustained patterns of school engagement in adolescence. They further state that these learners are also less likely to experience social support for planning career beyond secondary school education or enter the workplace.

Poverty impacts on the development ecology of youth through a variety of family and community factors, including household structure, adult role demands on youth, parental practices, inadequate nutritional and health resources, and limited educational community supports for poor families and youth (Conger, Wallace, Sun, Simons, McLord, & Brody, 2002). Thus, in the context of this study, concepts such as low-income, poverty, low-status, lower-class, non-whites are all referred to rural areas, rural schools and rural Black learners in

KZN. The above discussion shows that these concepts are interrelated. This chapter begins with the presentation of the theoretical background on which the whole chapter is based: school reform and multicultural perspective, and teaching in rural schools. Black (2009:3) points out that:

> *Rural Black secondary schools remain generally the poorest schools in the country in terms of financial, physical and human resources. Generally, the standard of education is low because of multifaceted handicaps which continue to impact them.*

In the context of this study, handicap is a condition or a situation that makes it difficult for individuals to do what they want (Free Dictionary, 2011). It means that effective teaching and learning are not common in RSSs because of various barriers such as lack of resources, geographical isolation of schools, unavailability of sufficient transport and lack of infrastructure. Some of these barriers have been discussed in Chapter One. The focus of this chapter will therefore be to present and analyze these barriers. The question is: Are teachers happy to work in RSSs in order to address these multifaceted handicaps? In answering this question, literature on teachers' job satisfaction will then be presented and reviewed.

2.2 SCHOOL REFORM WITH A MULTICULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female learners, exceptional learners, and learners who are members of diverse racial, ethnic, language, and cultural groups will have equal chance to achieve academically in school (Banks & Banks, 2010:1). To transform schools, teachers must be acknowledgeable about the influence of a particular group/groups on learner behaviour (Banks & Banks, 2010:1). In order to approach school reform with a multicultural perspective, we need to begin with an understanding of multicultural education within its "sociopolitical context" (Nieto & Bode, 2008). A sociopolitical context underscores that education is part and parcel of larger societal and political forces, such as inequality based on stratification due to race, societal class, gender, and other differences. Given this perspective, decisions concerning such practices as native language instruction, retention, curriculum reform, and pedagogy are all influenced by broad social policies (Nieto & Bode, 2010:396).

Freire (in Nieto and Bode, 2010) points out that every educational decision, whether made at classroom, city, state, or national level, is embedded within a particular ideological

framework. Such decisions can be as simple as whether a classroom should be arranged in rows with all learners facing the teachers, its tables with groups of learners to encourage co-operative learning, or in a variety of ways depending on the task at hand. Alternatively, these decisions can be as far reaching as eliminating tracking in an entire school system, teaching language to Black learners by using both their native language and English, or by using English (Nieto & Bode, 2010). They argue that within each education decision are assumptions about the nature of learning, about what particular learners are capable of achieving, about whose language has value, and about who should be at the centre of the educational process. The latter can be the reason why there are challenges in implementing the grades 10-12 NCS in South Africa more particularly in rural schools (Risimati, 2007; Lumadi, 2008; Dala, 2009). Tatum (2005) supports that teachers hold low expectations for Black rural school learners. Schools that have a predominantly African population often lack necessary education resources and qualified teachers that can be easily found at predominantly ex-Model C schools (Collins, 2010). This is supported by Cowdery (2010:2) that educating learners in the South African rural districts always held economic and cultural challenges such as long distances travelled by teachers and learners to school, which may affect learners access to special programmes (extra classes) and teachers' access to PD. In such conditions, the grades 10-12 NCS is more likely to favour only well-resourced schools (urban and former Model C schools).

2.2.1 Conditions for educational reform with a multicultural perspective

The South African Schools Act of 1996 (SASA) states that all learners have the right to learn and to receive quality education to meet their unique needs (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:491). This emanates from the fact that the South African system of education has changed over the last seventeen years of democracy as human rights began to feature as a cornerstone of the country's policy imperatives, extending it to include the right to education, free of discrimination and prejudice (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:491). However, offering low level courses such as mathematics literacy in schools serving cultural diverse and poor learners is a clear message that the learners are not expected to achieve to high levels; for instance, considering learners to be at risk simply because of their ethnicity, native language, family characteristics, or social class is another clear sign that some learners have been defined by conventional wisdom as uneducable based simply on their identity (Nieto & Bode, 2010). This has resulted in historical Black schools in South Africa continuing to lag behind former

White, Indian and Coloured schools' performance, and hints towards a vast difference in quality of schooling that is provided for a minority of school going population (Shepherd, 2011:3).

Although it is true that conditions such as poverty, attendant hardships such as poor health, and nutrition may create obstacles to learning, they should not be viewed as insurmountable obstacles because we have substantive evidence that some learners can achieve despite such barriers (Nieto & Bode, 2010:397). They point out that there are learners who achieve to higher levels, however, when these obstacles are removed. For instance, eMhlwaneni RSS in KZN achieved 100% pass rate with exemptions in 2006 (Mthethwa, 2006). This is because its RSSTs were willing to sacrifice and they worked hard to succeed. To confirm the latter, of the KZN eighty-three schools that received 100% pass rate in 2011 matriculation exams, twenty-seven were quintile one schools - most of them under-resourced in rural areas (Memela, 2012).

As a result, "We cannot think about education reform without taking into account both micro- and macro-level issues that may affect learners learning" (Nieto & Bode, 2010:397). Micro-level issues include culture, languages and experiences of learners and their families and how these are considered in determining school policies and practices (Commins, 2000). Macro-level issues include the racial stratification that helps maintain inequality and the resources and access to learning that schools provide or deny (Kozol, 2005; Spring, 2007). Ladson-Billings (2006a:3) has argued that the focus on school performance gaps is misplaced and that what must be considered are the historical, economic, sociopolitical, and moral components of racial stratification that have accumulated over time, mounting to what she has dubbed the "education debt."

Furthermore, how learners and their families view their status in schools and society must be considered (Nieto & Bode, 2010:398). However, researchers have inadequately explored this area since research has focused more on learners' perceptions of opportunity structures, as well as their personal assertions and identity (Nieto and Bode, 2010). Conchas (2006:123) points out that linking academic rigour with strong collaborative relationships among learners and teachers plays a significant, positive role in high achievement for some youths from economically strapped communities. Yet he maintains that transforming learners' perceptions of the opportunity structure is tied to larger and economic inequality and its devastating

impact on the perceptions of racial Black learners concerning social mobility. Carter (2005: 173) notes the complex ways in which the learners take up, express, and border-cross cultural identities in relation to schooling. She calls for teachers, parents and adults in the community to become "multicultural navigators", that is, to help demonstrate to learners how to use both dominant (isiZulu) and non-dominant (Western) cultural capital and develop adeptness at moving through a range of socio-cultural settings (Carter, 2005:135).

However, a major challenge facing teachers in South Africa according to a recent study by Singh (2010:75) is to "implement a curriculum free of cultural bias". Teachers' inability to construe cultural differences among learners as part of their teaching programme does create tension and anxiety for them. Teachers are still grappling with major epistemological issues regarding the integration of indigenous knowledge into the curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS) (Singh, 2010:72).

2.2.1.1 Tobephobia of the RSSTs

Tobephobia (TBP) is explained by Singh (2010) as the fear of failure experienced by teachers. This definition ties with Singh and Morar's (2009) definition that TBP is the fear of failure in education. This is associated with the outcomes in education. For instance, teachers who specialized in specific subjects such as those associated with the traditional curriculum are feeling despondent about teaching unknown subjects such as computer application technology and mathematical literacy in the grades 10-12 NCS (Singh, 2011:376). Another cause of TBP is that grades 10-12 NCS outcomes fail to give adequate specifications of essential learning and also these outcomes are left opened unspecified (Singh, 2011:374). Another flaw in the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS which had led to its demise is the lack of adequate training of teachers (DoE, 2009a). Teachers have either limited or even no clarity of what is required as far as the grades 10-12 NCS is concerned (Masondo, Mahlangu & Mclea, 2010). This has led Singh (2011:374) to state that:

> *Teachers are in fragile position: Their occupation is inherently stressful to cope with the diverse needs of their learners plus they are currently practising their occupation within a fear manifested environment caused by violence, crime, drug abuse, curriculum innovations without support structures in place, to mention a few cases.*

Not having capacity to usher in the changes at classroom level can lead to untold levels of anxiety, stress and tension within the teaching community (Singh, 2010:56). Eisner (in Singh, 2011) points out that it is difficult to be pedagogically graceful when you are lost in

information territory. When RSSTs suffer from the fear of failure they feel weak, deficient and they are devoid of self-confidence and they go on working in a concern where they have little job satisfaction and at times they feel angry (Heering, 2011). This situation has contributed to the existence of phobia (fear) in the educational environment (Singh, 2010). The fear of failure also results when there is absence of achievement motivation among RSSTs (Singh, 2011). Birney, Burdick and Teevan's (in Singh, 2011) theory on fear of failure indicates that individuals attempt to escape from achievement-oriented situations because of their fear of failure in those situations. For RSSTs, the fear can be associated with the grades 10-12 NCS (Ginsberg & Cooper, 2008).

Research by Singh and Morar (2009) revealed the existence of TBP in the school environment. This is supported by a recent study by Singh (2011) that found that TBP has a negative impact on teachers' emotions which could even result in them being angry over petty matters. In a study by Singh and Morar (2009), teachers admitted that their greatest fear is lacking the knowledge to teach their subjects as required in grades 10-12 NCS. They admitted that working in a fearful situation places a high rate of stress and anxiety on them. Being Tobephobic, they spend most of their time worrying about their fear of being incompetent and therefore they are too frightened to carry out their normal duties (Singh & Morar, 2009). This study will therefore investigate the fear of failure among RSSTs.

2.2.1.2 School reform should be antiracist and antibiased

In the South African system of education, antiracism addresses the shortcomings of the multicultural approach by attempting to theorize ethnicity in non-essentialist ways, acknowledging unequal power relations and critiquing static constructions of culture (May, 2009:43). This is to ensure the provision for quality education for every learner, irrespective of race, colour, religion and culture. The introduction of diversity in South Africa does not only encompass desegregation to cater for various cultures or making accepted additions to the schooling curriculum (Meier & Hartell, 2009:181). Another study by Meier (2005) showed that the schools' responses to discovering diversity and changes are inadequate. This is supported by McKinney and Sodien (2010:10) that the critical difference in South Africa is in achievement between learners who attend good and well-resourced schools of middle-class, and bad poorly-resourced for lower-class learners. However, schools need to get clarity on issues like whose culture they reflect, who is getting equal access to knowledge in the school, whose perspective is being heard and whose is being ignored (Vandeyar, 2006; Meier

& Hartell, 2009). The latter is one of the challenges in South Africa since Black learners are taught through the medium of English, which they do not understand (Gorski, 2010; Singh, 2010).

In the school context, being antibiased means paying attention to all areas in which some learners may be favoured over the others, including curriculum and pedagogy, sorting policies, and teachers' interactions and relationships with learners and their communities (Nieto & Bode, 2010:399). Schools committed to multicultural education with an antiracist perspective need to examine closely both school policies and the attitudes and behaviour of their teachers to determine how these might be complicit in causing academic failure (Nieto & Bode, 2010:399). The kind of expectations that teachers and schools have for school, whether native language use is permitted or punished, how sorting takes place, and how classroom organization, pedagogy, and curriculum may influence learner learning, all need to be considered (Commins, 2000; Conchas, 2006). In the South African context, research by Singh (2010:72) found that there is a lack of literature available to teach highly specialized subjects such as mathematics and science in the medium of the indigenous languages such as isiZulu and isiXhosa. Although isiZulu and isiXhosa are the two largest languages in South Africa, they continue to be almost completely neglected and English remains unchallenged (Prah, 2007). This situation disadvantages African learners, especially RSS learners to excel in such school subjects, while English speakers (13.6% of the KZN population) such as Whites, Indians and Coloureds have the advantage when it comes to performance in their subjects (Dala, 2009:1). Learners who do not have basic literacy skills in English experience cognitive dissonance (Singh, 2010:64). These learners who communicate largely in indigenous languages such as isiXhosa and isiZulu think in their native languages but are "compelled" to write in English, which they have poor command of (Singh, 2010:64-65). This study will therefore investigate the impact of English on learners' performance.

The South African curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS) of the mainstream is Eurocentric (Gorski, 2010; Singh, 2010). For instance, the apartheid education systems have been teaching world civilization by teaching European civilization as if Europe is the world (Ramoupi 2011:7). Teaching about African civilization in South Africa has not been part of the curriculum and content of the post-colonial and post-apartheid education system (Ramoupi, 2011). For instance, many textbooks, children's books, software, audio-visual media, and web media are still replete with racist and sexist images and with demeaning

portrayals of people from low-income communities (Gorski, 2010; Nieto & Bode, 2010). In comparing to South African context, the curriculum is more based on urban context which favours White, Indian and Coloured learners while disadvantages the majority Black learners (Singh, 2010:64-65). For example, the grades 10-12 NCS does not recognize African indigenous knowledge such as traditional medicine, indigenous food, traditional wedding and rural life since indigenous knowledge learners bring along to the classroom is still regarded as invalid and illegitimate (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011:10). Therefore, Black learners fail to relate what they learn at school to their existing knowledge, because teachers still see a dichotomy between school knowledge and everyday knowledge particularly if it emerges from previously disadvantaged groups such as Black South Africans (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011). Continuing to a biased curriculum will perpetuate negative perception even further (Nieto, 2010:13). For indigenous knowledge to find its way into the grades 10-12 NCS, rural secondary school teachers in KZN should think of creating a space to allow learners to think in ways that are consistent with their existing knowledge and practices (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011:10).

Although the situation is improving in the grades 10-12 NCS and the stereotypes that exist are not as blatant as they once were, there are still many inequalities and negative portrayals (Loewen, 2008; Botelho & Rudman, 2009). For example, research by Singh (2010:72) in South Africa found that 70% of teachers pointed out that the curriculum in our schools is still based on Eurocentric principles; not granting all religions equal recognition and status in school functions, ceremonies and assemblies. Another example is that, if a learner is absent from school and upon return indicates that s/he has attended a traditional function after the death of a family member, the explanation or evidence may not be taken as authentic because such explanation does not fall within what is regarded as a valid knowledge (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011:10). This is because the valid knowledge is still seen as being western-based (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011). This study will therefore investigate whether indigenous knowledge is considered in the grades 10-12 NCS to meet RSS learners' learning needs.

2.2.1.3 School reform should reflect an acceptance of learners' cultures and languages
Teachers' perceptions, attitudes and personal experiences may fundamentally be at odds with the experiences of learners who come from a different background in class, religion and culture (Rios in Meier & Hartell, 2009:187). A classic example comes from Ryan (in Nieto

and Bode 2010:402), who coined the expression *blaming the victim*, for the tendency to place responsibility on learners and their families for their failure to achieve in school. The learners generally from low-income families, especially Black learners, are often considered deficient or cultural deprived, a patronizing term in 1960s (Reissman in Nieto & Bode, 2010:402). But Ryan (in Nieto and Bode 2010:402) turned the perspective of "culturally deprived" on its head when he wrote that:

> *We are dealing, it would seem, not so much with culturally deprived children as with culturally depriving schools. And the task to be accomplished is not to revise, amend, and repair deficient children, but to alter and transform the atmosphere and operations of the schools to which we commit these children.*

Learners might be thought of as culturally deprived simply because they speak a language other than English as their native language or because they live in poverty (Nieto & Bode, 2010:402). Sometimes they are labeled in this way just because of their race or ethnicity. These notions of "culture of poverty" were developed by Harrington (in Nieto & Bode, 2010). Ladson-Billings (2006b) notes that the way the concept of "culture" is used by some teachers and learners in pre-teacher education exacerbates the problem and perpetuates stereotypes. For example RSSTs may believe that it is part of their culture for groups of learners to be noisy or underperform. Another problem is that a growing number of teachers use culture as a catch basin for all manner of behaviours and characteristics when discussing about learners, particularly KZN Black learners who only speak isiZulu (Ladson-Billings, 2006b; Mokibelo & Moumakwa, 2006). A growing body of research points to the most detrimental results of this deficit view in what has come to be called *the school to prison pipeline* (Edelman, 2007).

Instead of placing the blame for failure to learn solely on learners, teachers need to become aware of how their biases can negatively affect learners' performance (Nieto & Bode, 2010: 403). Teachers also need to consider how to teach their learners effectively and how their own pedagogical practices need to be changed as a result. This implies that teachers need to learn cultural responsive ways of teaching all of their learners (Ladson-Billings, 2006b). Learners whose native language is not English tend to be viewed as deficient and their home language and culture as inferior (Sleeter & Grant, 2009:55). Commins (2000:57) explains that the basic challenge for learners whose first language is not English is that they have to learn academic content through the language of instruction. To address this challenge, teachers need to consider how the native languages (isiZulu) of learners influence their academic

achievement. For this to happen, they need to dispel some of the conventional myths surrounding native languages (Crawford, 2008). For instance, it is common practice in school to try to convince parents whose native language is other than English that they should speak English with their children. Second, this recommendation makes little sense for at least three reasons. First, these parents in KZN rural secondary schools speak isiZulu; they do not speak English at all themselves, and their children are provided with less than adequate models of the language (Beykont, 2000). Second, this practice often results in cutting off, rather than stimulating communication between parents and children. Third, if young people are encouraged to learn English at the expense of their native language (isiZulu) rather than in conjunction with it, they may lose meaningful connections that help maintain close and loving relations with family members (Beykont, 2000).

2.2.1.4 School reform needs to be based on high expectations of all learners

There are eleven official languages in South Africa: isiZulu; isiXhosa, Sesotho, Afrikaans, Sepedi, English, Tshivenda, isiNdebele, Xitsonga, Setswana and isiSwati. Teachers have different levels of competence in the language of teaching, which is English (Lemmer, Meier & van Wyk, 2006; Wikipedia, 2011). Although the teacher and learner population may be multilingual, for historical reasons the majority of secondary schools in KZN have only one language of teaching and learning, which is English despite that isiZulu speakers make 80.9% and English speakers make only 13.6% of the provincial population (South African Consulate General, 2011). In many cases, English does not match the first language particularly isiZulu for the majority of learners in KZN (Lemmer et al., 2006; Wikipedia, 2011). Consequently, KZN rural secondary school learners fail to understand their teachers, and that makes the grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs more difficult to implement (Lefara, 2010).

Nieto and Bode (2010:407) argue that far too many learners cope on a daily basis with complex and difficult problems, including the language of teaching (English), poverty, violence, racism, abuse, families in distress, and lack of health care and proper housing. While it is undeniably true that many learners face unimaginably difficult problems, the school cannot be expected to solve them all. To address this reality, the Economic Policy Institute in the US convened a task force in 2006 to consider the broader context on No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act to inform the nation's approach to education and youth development policy. A group of educational researchers drafted the statement "A Broader, Bolder Approach to Education" to inform legislators and the general public that school

improvement ought to be fully effective; it must be implemented by a broader definition of schooling and by improvements in the social and economic circumstances of disadvantaged youth (Ladd, Noguera, & Payzant, 2006). In the South African context, education policy stipulates that schooling is compulsory between the ages of seven and fifteen (Department of Basic Education (DBE), 2011a). This is to ensure that every learner irrespective of colour, race, religion and language, has equal access to education (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:491). Unfortunately, only few Black learners in South Africa, particularly in RSSs receive quality passes in the final school exit point, or in the National Senior Certificate (McKinney & Sodien, 2010:1). It seems that addressing issues of difference and democratic values enshrined in the constitution are not seen as a current priority in redressing inequality in education in South Africa (McKinney & Sodien, 2010:1). KZN learners do not receive equal education opportunities particularly Black learners in RSSs, because there is shortage of libraries (77%), running water (10%) and electricity (26%) (Mazibuko, 2007; Cronje, 2008; Hlongwane, 2008). In support, research by Baruth (2009:46) in KZN rural schools found that schools were facing challenges such as lack of learning space, poor working conditions, lack of classroom facilities, lack of proper classrooms and lack of teaching and learning resources.

2.3 TEACHER, CURRICULUM AND TEACHING PRACTICE

2.3.1 Teachers in rural schools

Schools with a high percentage of low-income learners are more likely to have teachers who are not certified at all or who are teaching out of their areas of certification (Darling-Hammond, 2004). In high poverty schools, particularly RSSs, teachers may be new, unprepared and inexperienced (Sleeter & Grant, 2009:63). One of the reasons is the arduous conditions in RSSs hardly attract people with academic attainment to teaching position (Hu, 2008:70). Differences in teacher qualifications between urban and rural areas in South Africa can account for some of the disparities in academic achievement between learners from those contexts (Stronge, Ward, Tucker, & Hindman, 2007). To confirm the latter, research by Dala (2009:84) in KZN found that one of the causes of learner underachievement in KZN rural secondary schools is that qualified teachers are leaving RSSs to urban and former Model C schools.

Furthermore, Lees (2010) points out that nine thousand and three teachers in KZN are unqualified and under-qualified. This can negatively affect teaching and learning, particularly

in RSSs, because qualified teachers choose to work in urban areas rather than in rural areas (Mulkeen, 2006; Mulkeen & Chen, 2008). This has resulted in vacant positions in rural schools being filled by unqualified teachers to keep RSSs functioning. In support, a recent study by Liu and Teddlie (2009:335) found that academic achievement of learners in urban schools was higher than that of learners in townships whose achievement was, in turn, higher than that of rural areas. This is because working in a poverty population such as in rural areas is difficult, particularly for unqualified and under-qualified teachers, since they have inadequate teaching skills, and classroom management knowledge and skills (Donahue, 2010). Research by Liu and Teddlie (2009:346) in China concurs that rural teachers generally have lower teaching skills. Similarly, a study by Dala (2009:79) in KZN rural secondary schools found that one of the causes of learner under-achievement is that teachers were not sufficiently trained in the grades 10-12 NCS. This is in line with Mukeredzi's (2009:237) findings that RSSTs' workshops conducted by the KZNDoE were not beneficial.

2.3.2 Teachers' expectations

Teacher training and textbooks have tended to attribute educational failure to deficiencies in the learners (Persell, 2010:95). Often such deficiencies are assumed to reside in the social characteristics of the learners such as their social class background, ethnicity, language, or behaviour rather than social structure (Persell, 2010). Furthermore, research by Persell (2010: 95) found that learner social class was related to teacher expectations when other factors such as race were not salient, when expectations were engendered by real children, and when teachers had a chance to draw inferences about a learner's social class rather than simply being told the learner's background. Sometimes social class was related to teacher expectations even when the children's current intelligent quotient (IQ) and achievement were comparable. The teachers held lower expectations for lower-class children than for middle-class children even when those children had similar IQ scores and achievement (Persell, 2010).

Teachers may consider learners difficult to teach simply because they come from families that do not fit neatly into what has been defined as the main stream (Nieto, 2010:161). In addition, low expectations are common in high poverty schools (Sleeter & Grant, 2009; Singh, 2010). Similarly, Liu and Teddlie (2009:346) argue that rural teachers have low expectations of learners because they recognized that teaching quality was poor in rural

schools. Some of the learners in these schools speak little or no language of learning and teaching which is English, may come from cultures that seem to be at odds with the dominant culture of the western society that is inevitably reflected in the school; others begin their schooling without the benefit of early experiences that could help prepare them for the cognitive demands they will face (Nieto, 2010:161). Assumptions are often made about how such situations may negatively affect learners' achievement and, as a result, some children are condemned to failure before they begin. In a study by Hidalgo (in Nieto 2010:161), a teacher's description of learners at a high school speaks to this condemnation:

> *Students are generally poor, uneducated and come from broken families who do not value school. Those conditions that produce achievers are somewhere else, not here. We get street people.*

This is similar to the KZN context where poverty limits the performance of RSS learners (Dala (2009:20). When such viewpoints guide teachers' expectations, little progress can be expected from the RSS learners (Nieto, 2010). As Nieto (2010:30) points out that:

> *What often stands in the way of learning are the attitudes concerning what children living in difficult conditions are capable of doing: If they do not speak English, it is as if they do not speak at all; if they live in poverty, they are treated as if their minds are also impoverished; and the darker their skin, the lower their intelligence is thought to be.*

However, an autonomy-supportive teacher behaviour can be effective in fostering intrinsic motivation to such learners (Reeve & Jang, 2006:209). As Margolis and McCabe (2006) point out, when learners are struggling with poor academic performance, self-efficacy or low motivation, one strategy that may help is to teach them how to learn. That is for example to outline specific strategies for completing an assignment and note-taking or reviewing for examination. These tactics can strengthen the learners' belief in their academic abilities and increase their willingness to engage in their academic tasks (Margolis & McCabe, 2006: 218). Furthermore, Nieto (2010:162) suggests that teachers and schools need to build on rather than tear down what learners bring to school. That is, teachers need to understand and incorporate culture, linguistic, and experiential differences, as well as difference in social class into the learning process (Abi-Nader in Nieto, 2010:162). The results of such efforts often provide inspiring examples of success because RSSTs begin with a belief that all learners deserve a chance to learn. The study will therefore investigate teachers' expectations of RSS learners in KZN three rural districts.

2.4 TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

There are many variables that can affect the productivity (Yilmaz & Dilmac, 2011:303). They point out that the most important variable is the teacher. A productive teacher is a person who has attitudes to make the learners learn in the best way (Aktakli in Yilmaz & Dilmac, 2011: 303). The teacher is the most important factor in the process of increasing the quality of education up to the expected level (Huysman, 2008; Yilmaz & Dilmac, 2011). Satisfaction or non-satisfaction of teachers changes the school structure and application. For example, if the teachers' personal characteristics and expected work characteristics are fulfilled they are more motivated and productive (Bilgin in Yilmaz & Dilmac, 2011:303).

2.4.1 Brief description of job satisfaction

Kolleberg (in Burger, 2009:23) defines job satisfaction as an overall effective orientation on the part of individuals towards work roles which they are occupying. Additionally, Huysman (2007:14) defines job satisfaction as the sense of contentment and happiness of individual RSSTs in their current teaching positions. The latter is the reason why satisfied employees tend to be more productive, creative and committed to their employers (Michael, David & Ulmer in Ndlangamandla, 2011:32). Moreover, researchers have distinguished commitment from job satisfaction by stating that commitment is an affective response to beliefs about the organization, while job satisfaction pertains more to responses of experiencing specific job tasks (Glisson & Dirich in Burger, 2009:23). According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) job satisfaction is an emotional reaction or affective response to several aspects of an employee's work situation and has been depicted as a positive emotional reaction resulting from appraisal of an employee's job.

Oudejans (2007:27) states that job satisfaction includes various aspects of one's job and therefore some kind of a total sum of various components. Oudejans (2007:27) indicates that teachers can be reasonably satisfied with one part of their job but dissatisfied with another part. For example RSSTs can enjoy their salary and colleagues but at the same time they can be annoyed by their SMTs, the distance to work and school infrastructure. Furthermore, teachers who are dissatisfied with their current work situation hold negative thoughts about their jobs while those who are satisfied with their current work situation hold positive thoughts about their jobs (Robbins, 2003; Belle, 2007). Therefore, if the negative aspects of one's job outweigh the positive aspects of one's job, the logical consequences is that RSSTs

will search for better jobs elsewhere (Oudejans, 2007:27). This study will therefore investigate RSSTs' levels of job satisfaction in KZN.

2.4.2 The nature of teacher job satisfaction in South Africa

Teaching in South Africa is facing serious problems with teacher retention (Collins-Warfield, 2008; Diko & Letseka 2009). This is because teaching in South Africa has been identified as a particular stressful occupation (Day & Gu, 2007). High level of stress in teachers is related to poor health, high rate of absenteeism and increase desire to leave the profession (Montgomery & Rupp, 2005). Similarly, Rangraje, Van der Merwe, Urbani and Van der Walt (2005) in KZN found that 86% of two hundred and eighty teachers in the sample mentioned take a huge workload home, 79% mentioned lack of teaching resources, and 78% mentioned large classes as additional reasons for their dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Burger (2009:2) identifies causes of teacher dissatisfaction as intensification of workload due to policy changes and the requirements of the grades 10-12 NCS, including planning, preparation of reporting, recording and assessment. Teachers in the post-apartheid South Africa experience multiple, complex and the constant curriculum changes (assessment, moderation, learner-centred approach, paperwork) which contribute to high levels of stress and potential burnout (Chisholm, Hoadley, & wa Kivilu, 2005). Factors that cause stress include personal demands, lack of professional recognition, discipline problems in classrooms, the diversity of task required, lack of support ((Montgomery & Rupp, 2005; Kokkinos, 2007). Other factors that cause RSST job dissatisfaction include work overload, the amount of paperwork, large classes, isolation, fear of violence, fear of failure, lack of classroom control, limited PD opportunities and lack of availability of resources (Petty, 2007; Masitsa, 2011; Singh, 2011).

In areas with large populations of Africans such as rural areas, factors such as lack of learning materials, large class sizes, dilapidated buildings and lack of DoE support are a legacy of the apartheid regime, when Black South Africans received poor education with inadequate resources (Afolayan, 2004; Lumadi, 2008). Furthermore, a study of secondary school teachers in the Eastern Cape (EC) by Mwamwenda (in Collins-Warfield 2008:2) found that the teaching profession is in serious jeopardy if the majority of its teachers are dissatisfied with the job of teaching and do not regard matters related to work as being of central concern. In addition, a study by Steyn and Van Wyk (in Collins-Warfield 2008:20) in Black schools in South Africa found that teachers were complaining about poor salaries, yet

they also complained about being overloaded. Their study further found that overloaded classrooms, difficult learners (slow learners), and lack of support services as other factors that contributed to their low levels of job satisfaction.

In order to boost the productivity of RSSTs in schools it is important to improve the quality of teachers so that they have positive attitudes towards their job (Haizumothman, 2009:9). This is supported by Bull (2005) that job satisfaction can lead to an increase in commitment for South African teachers. In addition, Belle (2007:4) argues that motivation has to do with teachers' attitudes. Motivation is defined as all those inner striving conditions, described as wishes or urges that stimulate the interest of a person in an activity. Therefore, motivated teachers have a sense of professionalism and are enthusiastic and committed to teaching. However, teachers of low stress schools develop fewer physical symptoms related to job stress and psychological or emotional stress (Belle, 2007:4). On the other hand, in any school where teachers are happy and productive, the learners are also likely to be the same. As also pointed out by Lethoko, Heystek and Maree, (2001:311), committed teachers make committed learners. The study will investigate whether learners and teachers are committed.

2.5 JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES

According to Westover (2011b:13), job satisfaction researchers have explored a variety of theories to explain job satisfaction. These job satisfaction models can be grouped into five distinct model types, including needs fulfilment models, discrepancy models, value attainment models, equity models and dispositional/genetic components models. Only needs fulfilment models are provided and reviewed because of the scope and focus of this study.

2.5.1 Needs fulfilment models

According to the needs fulfilment models, satisfaction is determined by the extent to which a job with its specific characteristics and duties, allows individual workers to meet their personal needs (Pinder in Westover, 2011b:13). Needs fulfilment models build off the early work of Maslow, Alderfer, McClelland and Hertzberg. These theories will be extensively reviewed.

2.5.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

According to Hansia (2009:13), one of the most popular motivation theories, is frequently referred to as the hierarchy of needs theory, which was proposed in the 1940's by Abraham Maslow. According to Maslow, people are motivated by their desire to satisfy specific needs. In addition, Kroth (2007:8) points out that unsatisfied needs motivate until they are met. Maslow claims that people move up a needs hierarchy as they satisfy each of these needs (Kroth, 2007). He visualizes the hierarchy as a pyramid. He arranged these needs in hierarchical order, with physiological needs at the bottom, followed by safety needs, social and belongingness needs, esteem needs, and at the top, self-actualization needs (Kroth, 2007; Hansia, 2009). In general, lower needs must be substantially met before higher order needs become important (Hitt, Miller & Colella, 2006; Westover, 2011).

Figure 2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs of RSSTs

Physiological	Safety & security	Social belonging	Self-appreciation	Self-actualisation
Shelter Water Electricity Roads Food	Protection against: Robbery Rape Hijacking Learner discipline Abuse	Study groups Association Acceptance Friendship Socialising Clusters Peer tutoring Being loved	Recognition Need for: Power Achievement Self-respect Rewards	Fulfilment of potential Self-oriented Self-discovery Creativity Emotional intelligence

Source: Adapted from Werner (2007)

2.5.1.1.1 Physiological or biological needs

These are the most basic needs, the lowest orders needs which are basic to the survival of the organism and include the need for air, water, rest, shelter, and clothes, water, electricity and roads (Envision Software, 2007). Physiological or biological needs are what psychologists

refer to as basic, physical and lower order needs (Ejere, 2005; Schaefer in Maforah, 2010). These needs are regarded as the most important of all (Maforah, 2010:23). Maforah further argues that, for a person (RSST) who is deprived of everything in life, the basic physiological needs become the most important of all. Maslow (in Maforah, 2010:23) points out that an employee (RSST) generally does not have unmet physiological needs, since the need for food, shelter and water can be taken care of by the salary the person receives. However, teachers feel that the salary they receive is not a reflection of their responsibilities (Okoroma & Robert-Okah, 2007; Maforah, 2010).

2.5.1.1.2 Safety and security needs

Research overwhelmingly suggests that effective teaching and learning occur only in a safe environment (Dilion, 2007; Trump, 2008). However, there is a deep-rooted culture of violence that has been cultivated in different ways over many years, thus making schools unsafe and insecure (Masitsa, 2011:164). The following media reports speak for themselves regarding this unsafe environment in our South African schools. A high school pupil was robbed and killed by a fellow learner, and a teacher was robbed at gun point in front of the class (Kuppan, 2008:1). In another incident, a gang of four girls, one armed with a knife, have been robbing their school mates of their money as they get off taxis and buses (Kotlolo & Ratsatsti, 2009:1). A security guard was shot and killed in cold blood by two robbers who robbed a nursery school (Carstens, 2009:1). In addition, a Zamazulu secondary school grade eight learner died after being accidentally shot with his father's gun by a friend in front of the class (Ngobese, 2009:1).

A recent article by Makwabe (2009:7) indicates that the teacher whose ambitions were to nurture and educate learners was afraid of entering her class after she was attacked by a learner in the class. She ultimately had a nervous breakdown. She believes the learner was seeking attention, as his journal reflected deep resentment towards his parents. The boy spoke about a dysfunctional home where he felt unloved and neglected (Makwabe, 2009). These incidents indicate that schools in rural areas and townships in South Africa are not safe and secure and that the perpetrators of violence come from within and outside schools (Masitsa, 2011:164). Perpetrators include learners, parents and gangs of individuals from the community (Masitsa, 2011). Trump (2008:66) cautions that if teachers do not feel safe and secure to teach, the focus shifts from academic tasks to discipline and personal safety. These

are examples of the situation RSSTs in KZN have to deal with and which may impact on their job satisfaction (Makwabe, 2009).

However, the South Africa government has passed the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools, which were part of the SASA of 1996 (MiET, 2009:4). The regulation stipulates that the government will: provide infrastructure such as walls and fences around schools; strengthen relations between schools and the South African Police Services (SAPS); investigate the legislative process with regard to random searches for drugs and weapons at schools and explore the introduction of counselling services and safety officers at schools (MiET, 2009:7). Despite all these efforts made by the government to make schools a safe and secure working environment, a report by the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR) in 2008 revealed that South African schools were regarded as the most dangerous in the world and that learners and teachers live in fear (Magome, 2008).

2.5.1.1.3 Social belonging needs

Social belonging needs are the first level of higher level needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. These needs allude to the RSST's desire to be wanted, accepted and appreciated by other teachers within the school; the need to belong or associate with one's own kind, to feel identity with a group, to participate in social interaction, to be loved and to love and to be given affection (Cole in Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003:36). In the school situation, those needs often manifest themselves with the RSST's involvement in school clusters and in study groups or peer-tutoring. A cohesion work group may be very effective in achieving school goals (Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003). Research has identified several benefits of a collegial approach (Corder, Marshall, Lineweaver, & McIntyre, 2008:28). In the collegial approach teachers develop a sense of efficacy, become more effective and believe in a "cause beyond oneself" (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2006:50). The school becomes more pleasant for learners and teachers. Collegial school communities are more likely to achieve their goals (Glickman et al., 2006:50). This study will therefore explore the impact of relationship on RSSTs' job satisfaction in KZN.

2.5.1.1.4 Esteem needs

After the RSSTs feel that they belong to a particular group, the urge to attain a degree of importance emerges (Envision Software, 2007). The needs in this level are divided into two categories (Maslow in Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003). The first category includes the needs that

are related to one's self-esteem. These are the needs for self-confidence, respect, independence, achievement, competence and knowledge. The second category includes those needs that are related to one's reputation such as needs for status, prestige, recognition, appreciation and deserved respect of one's colleagues.

In the rural school context, these needs are not easily met at the job (Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003). Due to pressure that RSSTs have to work under, recognition and acknowledgement are seldom given (Maforah, 2010). This is caused by the fact that most of the time RSSTs fail to achieve what is expected from them such as a high matriculation pass rate in grades 10-12 NCS (Dala, 2009; Maforah, 2010). Therefore, RSSTs who feel that their esteem needs are not being met at the job can become discouraged because they want to be recognized for their achievements, for example, praise and recognition (Steyn in Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003:37).

2.5.1.1.5 Self-actualization needs

Self-actualization is the summit of Maslow's motivation theory (Envision Software, 2007). It is about the quest of reaching one's full potential as a person. These are the needs to grow and develop, to develop latent potential and talents, to work towards one's own goals rather than those set by others, to reach ultimate goals, to fulfil one's destiny, and to become what one wants to (Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003:37). However, Gorudzo-Kusereka (2003:37) argues that self-actualization is the highest need and is rarely satisfied at the job because of the high quality of the work expected from teachers in most schools. Similarly, Envision Software (2007) points out that unlike lower level needs, this need is never fully satisfied - for instance, as the RSST grows psychologically there are always new opportunities to continue to grow.

2.5.1.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

After the original formulation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, research has shown that the middle levels of Maslow's hierarchy overlap (Hansia, 2009:15). Alderfer addressed this issue by reducing the number of levels to three levels of needs. The three letters, ERG represent these three levels of needs, namely existence, relatedness and growth. Existence refers to our concern with basic material existence; relatedness refers to the motivation people (RSSTs) have for maintaining interpersonal relationships; and growth refers to an intrinsic desire for personal development (ERG Theory of Motivation, 2007).

Hitt el al. (2006:201) are of the opinion that the ERG theory developed by Aderfer is similar to the Maslow's needs hierarchy theory in that it also proposes needs categories. Additionally, Champoux (2006:155) believes that extrinsic needs are personal, physical and material wants; related needs are the same as belonging needs and growth needs are the desires for an employee to be creative and productive such as to use skills and to develop additional capabilities. In Figure 2.2 below, these three groups of needs form the hierarchy, which is different from that of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, namely: existence, relatedness and growth needs. According to Hansia (2009:15), all the people including RSSTs have these needs in varying degrees. The movement through the need hierarchy is both similar and different from Maslow's description. For instance, satisfaction of needs leads to upward movement in the hierarchy. On the other side, frustration of needs leads to downward movement in the hierarchy (Hansia, 2009). In other words, RSSTs who do not meet these needs are moving towards the deficiency cycle that causes dissatisfaction. On the other hand, RSSTs who meet these needs move towards the enrichment cycle that supports job satisfaction.

Figure 2.2 Existence, Relatedness and Growth Needs Hierarchy (ERG) of the RSSTs
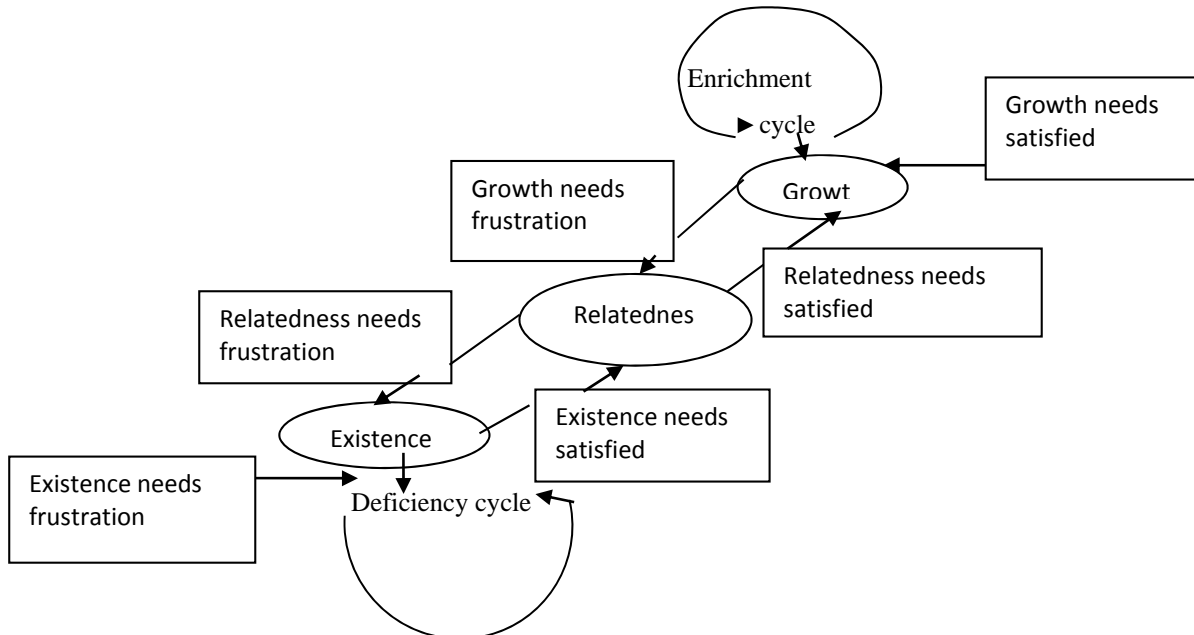
Source: Champoux (2006)

2.5.1.3 The Herzberg's Two Factor theory

Bagrain (in Werner, 2007:81) points out that Frederick Hertzberg was interested in the factors that made employees feel good about their jobs. Herzberg interviewed a group of over two

hundred engineers to find out what made them satisfied and dissatisfied about their jobs. He then analyzed the results of these descriptions. According to Hansia (2009:16), the results of Herzberg's analysis are now known as the two-factor theory of motivation also known as motivation-hygiene theory.

In addition, Smerek and Peterson (2006:229) conducted a survey of employees in the business operations at a large public research university. Their analysis tested Herzberg's well-known dual theory of motivators and hygiene factors and the impact on personal characteristics on perceptions of work environment and job satisfaction. The results offered inconclusive support of Herzberg's theory although the work itself was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction after controlling both personal and job characteristics (Smerek & Peterson, 2006:229).

Figure 2.3 Motivators and hygiene factors of the RSSTs
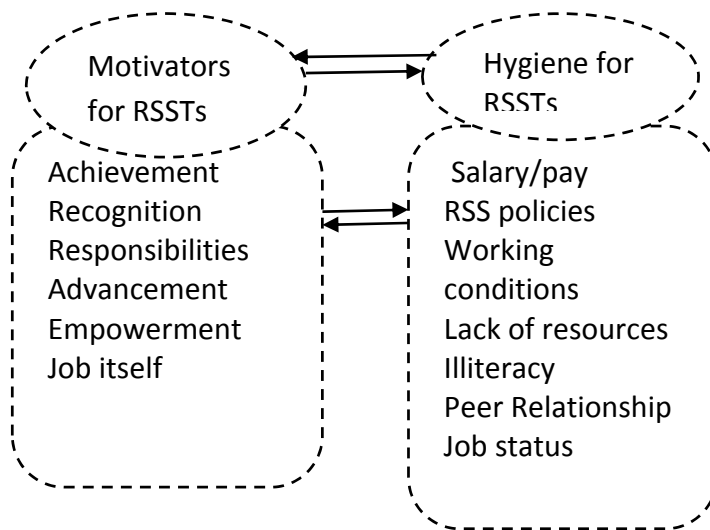
Source: Adapted from Akrani (2010)

The theory of Herzberg can be linked to the RSSTs' job satisfaction for the purpose of this study. This is because RSSTs' job satisfaction can be affected by motivators and or hygiene factors (Herzberg, 2003). Hygiene factors cause RSST dissatisfaction when they are not present but do not motivate. However, motivators when present, build satisfaction and motivation. This indicates that these two sets of factors are different from each other (Kroth, 2007:8). These factors are indicated in the above Figure 2.3. Herzberg was an advocate for job enrichment and encouraged people to build motivational factors into jobs (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005).

2.5.1.3.1 Motivators

Castillo, Conklin and Cano (1999:19) assert that job satisfaction (motivator) factors include achievement recognition, the work itself, responsibilities and advancement. Job satisfaction factors could allow RSSTs to reach their psychological potential and are usually associated with the work itself. Syptak, Marsland and Umer (2000:1) observe that motivators create satisfaction by fulfilling teachers' needs for meaning and personal growth. Once hygiene factors for RSSTs have been addressed the motivators will promote job satisfaction and encourage production (Hertzberg in Syptak et al., 2000:1). Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000:134) argue that motivators pertain to job content. Their absence does not prove highly dissatisfying. But when present, they build strong levels of RSST motivation that result in good job performance.

2.5.1.3.1.1 The work itself

The work itself is the extent to which the job provides the teachers with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth (Miller, 2003:77). The work itself will play a critical role in determining how satisfied a worker is with his or her job (Arnold & Feldman in Maniram, 2007:23). In addition, they point out that employees should be entrusted with some autonomy in how they carry out their tasks, which will lead to their job satisfaction. This will bring about individuality and the sovereignty in performing a job. RSSTs may view the job as tedious and less stimulating because they fail to meet the grades 10-12 NCS requirements (Dala, 2009). Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2004:552-553) indicate that teachers would rather prefer a job that is interesting, challenging and would create opportunities for self-actualization and recognition.

However, research by Bull (2005:99) in the Western Cape disadvantaged schools indicated that teachers were complaining about overcrowded classrooms, difficult learners (learners that are slow to learn) and no social workers or support services to assist learners, which contributed to their low levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, research by Masekoameng (2010) revealed that teachers' work is becoming more difficult and they would leave the profession if they would find other job. The causes for their dissatisfaction are high learners' absenteeism, laziness, substance abuse and the constant curriculum changes (grades 10-12 NCS which is the focus of this study) that confuses them and their learners.

2.5.1.3.1.2 Autonomy

According to Nguyen, Taylor and Bradley (2003), one of the variables that may be expected to influence job satisfaction is the degree of perceived autonomy that teachers enjoy in the way they do their work. The expected relationship is that more autonomy is associated with greater satisfaction (Cabrita & Perista, 2007:14). This is because teachers who report more autonomy in their job also report higher levels of satisfaction (Cabrita & Perista, 2007). Maforah (2004:35) points out that the teachers want to be able to do their own work unhindered, within a context that is compatible with their needs, expectations, values and ideologies. A recent study by Cabrita and Perista (2007:14) confirmed that the more teachers were involved in taking their working decisions such as classroom management, what to teach, when and how to assess learners the more satisfied they were with their job. Moreover, their study found that the less independent teachers appeared to be less satisfied with their job.

2.5.1.3.1.3 Responsibility

Teachers will be more motivated to do their work if they have ownership of their work (Syptak et al., 2000:2). This requires giving them enough freedom and power to manage their own work so that they can be accountable to any result. As individuals mature in their jobs, the principals must provide opportunities for added responsibility. Principals must be careful, however, that they do not simply add more. Instead, the principals must find ways to add challenging and meaningful work, perhaps, giving the RSSTs greater freedom and authority as well (Syptak et al., 2000:2).

2.5.1.3.2 Hygiene factors

Job satisfaction hygiene factors are usually comprised of extrinsic factors associated with the work environment and include salary, working conditions, supervision, school policy and interpersonal interrelations (George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:136). This is supported by Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011:76) that hygiene factors are extrinsic to the job such as interpersonal relationship, salary, supervision, and school policy. Hygiene issues, according to Hertzberg, cannot motivate RSSTs but can minimize dissatisfaction if handled properly (Syptak et al., 2000). In other words, they can only dissatisfy if they are absent or mishandled. "Hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction but they do not lead to job satisfaction" (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011:76). They further point out that they only avoid bad feelings at work. Herzberg uses the term *hygiene* as dissatisfiers in the sense that they are considered

56

maintenance factors that are necessary to avoid teacher job dissatisfaction (Ali, 2009:290). Ali argues that hygiene factors do not immediately affect the daily job but they are always in the background. When these factors deteriorate to a certain level they serve to foster a poor job attitude which in turn causes RSST job dissatisfaction (Ali, 2009:290).

2.5.1.3.2.1 Salary

Research shows that salaries are strongly related to job satisfaction (Omar & Ongenyi, 2006). Researchers have found a relationship between job satisfaction and salaries (Ingersoll in Giacometti, 2005; Siddika, 2012). Ingersoll (in Giacometti (2005:18) found that low salaries are the major factor in the high exit rate for new teachers. Additionally, Armstrong (2009:29) found that the salary structure of South African teaching force is therefore not conducive to attract the most highly qualified teachers. For example, teachers holding post graduate qualifications such as honours, master's and doctoral degrees do not get salary increments (Armstrong, 2009:21). This can dissatisfy highly qualified teachers since they earn the same salary as those holding bachelors' degrees. Despite that salary is one of the hygiene factors, but there is no doubt that monetary rewards may play a very influential role in determining job satisfaction. Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011:76) argue that research has shown that some of the factors declared by Herzberg as hygiene factors are actual motivators such as money/salary. Tang, Luna-Arocas, Sutarso and Tang (2004) found that salary satisfaction was part of satisfaction which could lead to higher teacher productivity. Employees are inspired to achieve more and to give full effort only if they are satisfied with their salaries (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011:79).

Teachers may be grieved by the fact that their experiences and qualifications are not consistent with their salaries (Maniram, 2007:23). In the similar vein, Nel et al. (2004:252-253) argue that staff members will compare with other employees to what they put in and get out from an organization. Research by Lee (2006:649) revealed that teachers' salaries in both investigated schools were found as a key remuneration factor affecting job satisfaction than physical facilities of the rural schools. Inadequate salary in relationship to other occupations in South Africa is one of the most important factors related to job satisfaction among teachers (Bull, 2005:99). Consistently, recent studies have found that salary is the most dissatisfying factor (Kabriael & Moteghedi, 2009; Siddika, 2012).

2.5.1.3.2.2 Working conditions

Working conditions are another aspect that have a major influence on the RSSTs' job satisfaction (Saba, 2011:3). As determined by Hertzberg (in Saba, 2011:3), working conditions are the key factors that affect teachers' job satisfaction. According to Maniram (2007:25), workers (RSSTs) would rather desire working conditions which would result in greater personal enjoyment and convenience. The absence of such working conditions in KZN rural secondary schools can impact poorly on a teacher's mental and physical well-being (Baron & Greenberg, 2003:159-160).

Moreover, Arnold and Feldman (in Maniram 2007:25) point out that factors such as temperature, lighting, ventilation, hygiene, noise, working hours, learner discipline, facilities and resources form part of working conditions. In RSSs, constant curriculum changes occur in the setting where overcrowded classrooms exhibit individual attention (Gumbi, 2009:11). KZN rural secondary school teachers feel that poor working conditions will only provoke negative performance, since their jobs are mentally and physically demanding (Maniram, 2007). On the other hand, Arnold and Feldman (in Maniram 2007:27) caution that if working conditions are too favourable or extreme, this could be taken for granted or ignored by most teachers. Arnold and Feldman (in Maniram, 2007:27) further argue that in some cases, teachers may use poor working conditions as an excuse to get back at management because they may feel that management does not appreciate or acknowledge their efforts or work done. Factors affecting working conditions are discussed below.

(i) *Constant curriculum changes*
The implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in South Africa represents a change in curriculum and in methods of teaching (Mbokodi, 2008:18). The focus has shifted from teacher-centred learning to more co-operative learning (Mbokodi, 2008:18). This has led teachers to work in extremely complex conditions, largely due to the pervasive legacies of apartheid, but as a result of new policies needed to bring about change in education (DoE, 2006:6). Teaching in a learner-centred classroom requires constant planning and well developed skills in maintaining order (Gage & Berliner in Makhwathana, 2007:16). However, Kossor (in Mbingo 2006:18) points out that with the constant curriculum changes teachers have to meet weekly and discuss problems and activities of their implementation, but they lack adequate skills to plan or assess learners' work properly. Another problem is that school periods (45 minutes per period) are simply too short for learner-centred activities and charts to make drawings are very expensive (Madden in Mbingo, 2006:17-18).

Van Sheers and Wiid (2011:4072) point out that for effective implementation of the constant curriculum changes the DoE has to improve the working conditions of teachers, because teachers have been complaining about the heavy workloads, poorly resourced schools, lack of safety in schools, overcrowded classrooms and poor discipline among learners. In the learner-centred approach learners are required to do more work such as assignments, homework and projects in their own time (Mbokodi, 2008:18). For learners to do their work properly, they may need more resources from their parents (Mbokodi, 2008; Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE), 2011). However, rural Black parents' capacity to help learners in their school work is doubtful.

(*ii) Poverty and illiteracy*

Involvement of parents in education is perceived to be instrumental in improving learners' access, attendance and retention in schools (CREATE, 2011:1). Moreover, Mbokodi (2008: 3) asserts that studies show parental involvement to be positively related to secondary school learners' achievement, time spent on homework and favourable attitudes towards school work. Parental involvement also has the potential to parents' sense of empowerment and support achievement of valued educational outcomes (CREATE, 2011:1). In addition, the importance of partnership between parents and the school is stressed by Vatterott (2009:55) who states that the powerful relationship between school and parents must be realigned to embrace parents as equal partners in their children education. However, research by Mbokodi and Singh (2011:44) in the EC revealed that teachers work in isolation and make all decisions of behalf of the Black parents. This is because there is no partnership between teachers and parents (Mbokodi & Singh, 2011:46). Additionally, Hystek (in Mbokodi, 2008:18) argues that, although the approach of parent involvement in education is good in theory, the problem is that learners from lower-economic areas such as rural areas in South Africa may not have sufficient resources to take advantage of the constant curriculum changes (the grades 10-12 NCS). This is supported by Alexander (2011:10) that in the former homelands or Bantustans such as KZN, the constant curriculum changes are irrelevant to rural life and the language of teaching and learning (English) is a barrier to most of rural school parents to assist their children in their school work since they are illiterate. This is consistent with Ntshingila's (2006) findings that one in three South Africans over the age of twenty has no schooling at all or has not completed primary school.

59

Furthermore, McKay, Gelderblom, Mosaka-Write and Mokotong (2006:1) state that many communities in South African rural areas are still illiterate and suffering abject poverty and this hampers progress in teaching and learning. This is because rural children are hailing from poverty-stricken families. In such conditions, teachers find it burdensome and difficult to work with illiterate parents, especially in rural communities because they cannot make a contribution to the schools' development (Nesane, 2008:54). In addition, recent research indicated that rural school parents in South Africa were reluctant to participate in school activities because they were illiterate and semi-illiterate (Duma, 2010; Mbokodi & Singh, 2011). Moreover, research by Duma (2010:125) in KZN rural schools found that parents have very little knowledge of the curriculum framework. His study revealed that 80% of parents indicated that their knowledge of the school curriculum was poor. This can have a negative impact on RSST job satisfaction because learners cannot be assisted in doing their homework, projects and assignments.

(iii) Lack of resources

Teaching and learning in KZN rural schools is hampered by lack of equipment such as science kit, computers with internet, maps, textbooks, references and televisions with satellite dishes (James, 2008:6). Matomela (2005:1) concurs that circumstances such as limited classrooms and unspent budget allocation for school infrastructure spill over into schools and affect performance. Because of lack of infrastructure and equipment in RSSs there are still learners that are taught under the trees (Daily Dispatch in Gumbi 2009). There are limited textbooks, no support learning materials, no libraries and laboratories that can promote independent thinking skills in most South African RSSs (Gumbi, 2009:11). These facilities are needed to address the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in KZN. Furthermore, studies in the South African rural schools have revealed that the main challenges faced by teachers were lack of facilities such as libraries and laboratories, teacher training and infrastructure for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS (Mazibuko, 2007; Risimati, 2007; Dala, 2009). Some South African schools do not even have electricity, telecommunication infrastructure and tarred roads (Uhegbu in Mojapelo, 2008). These are some of the major factors which make it extremely difficult to access libraries in rural environment (Mojapelo, 2008:2). For example, audio-visual materials and electronic media need electricity to operate. Schools without electricity cannot plan adequately (Mojapelo, 2008:2).

Audio-visual, auditory and electronic media are essential in schools particularly for learners who do not find books appealing (Mojapelo, 2008:2). Learners are given opportunities to develop media and digital skills to acquire lifelong information retrieval skills to cope with changes brought by information and communication technology (ICT) (Mutula, 2004:44). Where school libraries do not exist, neither learners nor teachers have access to library and information resources to develop basic skills, attitudes, values and information skills (Magara & Nyumba, 2004:313). Due to lack of library and information resources in RSSs, communities including learners are characterized by high levels of illiteracy, poor academic performance and lack of reading habits (Van Orden in Mojapelo, 2008).

A recent study by Mazibuko (2007:43) revealed that schools in KwaMashu (KZN) have insufficient resources, such as teaching and learning support materials to promote teaching and learning in the classroom. His study further revealed that district officials pointed out that lack of teaching and learning support materials to promote teaching and learning is a common problem experienced by most RSSs in KZN. Similarly, Ndou (2008:44) points out that one of the problems with the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in South Africa is resource constraints, which includes financial, material and human resources. Furthermore, a recent study by Singh (2011:283) supports that teachers in the EC were in total agreement that implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS without adequate resources caused them stress and anxiety.

The outdated notion of school libraries needs to be seriously addressed in order to transform them into education media centres (EMCs) so that constant curriculum changes can be accommodated in secondary schools (Singh 2010; Singh 2011). However, it may be impossible to happen in RSSs where school libraries do not exist. As Cronje (2008) indicated, 77% of schools in KZN have no libraries. These EMCs are established at school level, circuit level and district level throughout the KZN province as hubs that offer comprehensive support to education delivery (Lubisi, 2005:5). The problem with the EMCs is that in 2006, there were only sixty EMCs across the KZN province, which could not provide all schools with required resources and skills (Gendall, 2008:242). These EMCs are targeted to deal with challenges faced by schools in rural areas such as isolation in terms of access and communication, lack of resources, limited capacity on the part of KZNDoE and its districts to manage and support education delivery to rural schools effectively and lack of access to ICT and required skills such as computer literacy (MiET, 2005:5). In order to fulfil these

objectives, the key focus areas of the project include skills training for RSSTs and members of the community in various subject areas and improving the community, RSSTs and learners' access to ICT (Gush, 2006:37).

Furthermore, Lubisi (2005:5) argues that EMCs support the curriculum that is outcomes-based and learner-centred which is reliant on resources. The latter is in line with Singh's (2011:383) research findings in the EC where all teachers concurred that resources are essential to implement OBE successfully. Teachers pointed out that it is absolutely necessary to have a well-resourced EMC in the school since they did not even have a proper library to cater for the research needs of their learners (Singh, 2011:383). However, these EMCs face challenges in KZN with regard to sustainability and profitability and many of them do not provide internet access (Gendall, 2008:239). Additionally, due to the early stage of the EMCs project in KZN, Gendall (2008:242) found that there was no EMC that offered all the envisioned programmes and resources.

(vi) High teacher-learner ratio

Nesane (2008:53) states that high teacher-learner ratio is affecting education in South Africa. Another factor influencing the learner-teacher ratio is the recent lack of provincial DoEs in appointing temporary teachers to fill in thousands of vacant posts (De Lannoy & Hall, 2010). For instance the former Model C schools are able to employ more teachers using school fees that they raise. However, no-fee schools such as RSSs in KZN are likely to have high learner-teacher ratios (De Lannoy & Hall, 2010). Despite the formally prescribed teacher-learner ratio, which is 40:1 for primary schools and 35:1 for both rural and urban public schools, some schools are facing up to ninety learners in one classroom (Lumadi, 2008; De Lannoy & Hall, 2010). Research by Lumadi (2008:32) in the EC (South Africa) rural schools revealed the abnormal ratios of 1:94 and even 1:120. Teachers pointed out that they do not control learners' work regularly because they find it difficult to handle such big groups and that they were unable to pay attention to individual learners (Lumadi, 2008). Teachers were frustrated since they believed that the DoE was dragging its feet about addressing this challenge (Lumadi, 2008:32).

The more crowded the classrooms, the less RSSTs are able to give learners attention to give them help in the learning process (De Lannoy & Hall, 2010:2). Learners in overcrowded classrooms may find it difficult to follow the lesson and to ask questions when they do not

understand the material taught (De Lannoy & Hall, 2010:2). They further argue that the larger the class, the harder it is for teachers to know the circumstances of each learner.

2.5.1.3.2.3 Interpersonal relationship

Empirical evidence indicates that co-worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004, Singh & Manser, 2011). Research by Mowday and Sutton (in Bull 2005: 104) revealed that job satisfaction is related to employees' opportunities for interaction with their colleague. The teachers' level of job satisfaction might be a function of their personal characteristics and the characteristics of the group to which they belong (Bull, 2005, Singh & Manser, 2011).

Cockburn (2000:223) argues that the main reason why teachers enjoy education is that they are working with children, nurturing children's learning and having sound relationships with colleagues. Effective communication and the motivation of staff by the principal can promote job satisfaction and influence the creation and maintenance of positive interpersonal relationships (Kruger in Maforah, 2004:28). He further points out that there should exist a congenial relationship between the principal and the staff members. Good personal relationships are of great importance in a people-oriented enterprise such as an RSS. Interpersonal relationships form an important facet that brings about job satisfaction for RSSTs (Maforah, 2004:28).

2.5.1.4 McClelland's theory of motivation

David McClelland's theory is also referred as the "three needs' theory" or the achievement motivation (Roos, 2005:27). McClelland, who was a student of Murray, studied the basic needs and divided them into three groups (Pinder, 2008:78). McClelland's achievement motivation attempts to explain and predict behaviour and performance based on a person's needs for achievement, power, and affiliation (Lussier & Achua, 2007:42). The achievement motivation theory is also referred as Acquired Needs Theory or Learned Needs Theory (Moore, Grabsch & Rotter, 2010:25). Daft (2008:233) defines the acquired need theory as McClelland's theory that proposes that certain types of needs such as achievement, affiliation and power are acquired during life time. In addition to Maslow, Alderfer and Herzberg's theories, McClelland's theory postulates that people are also motivated by their need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation that these needs are acquired, or learned during an employee's life time (Lussier & Achua, 2007; Daft, 2008). Pinder (2008:78)

supports the latter that what is of great significance is that McClelland pointed out that need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation are not innate, but are learned from experience in the environment. This means that RSSTs become aware of these needs only during the course of their teaching career.

McClelland did not place the needs in any particular order or hierarchy, but acted from the premise that any person, such as the RSST has each of these needs to some degree (Schaefer in Maforah, 2010:31). Needs satisfaction theories have had a positive impact on organizations when used to address the needs of RSSTs and involve them in the development, assessment, and evaluation of their own work (Roos, 2005:240). For the purpose of this study only the need for empowerment and the need for affiliation/mentorship will be presented and discussed.

2.5.1.4.1 Need for RSSTs' empowerment

The need for power is defined as a concern with the control of the means of influencing other people (Maforah, 2010; McClelland in Moore et al., 2010). Moreover, Lussier and Achua (2007:42) define the need for power as "unconscious concern for influencing others and seeking positions of power". Similarly, Daft (2008:233) defines the need for power as "the desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others, and have authority over others". People who exhibit the need for power have a desire to be influential and want to make input (Moore et al., 2010:26). They tend to be driven to work and are concerned with discipline and self- respect (Lifvendahl, 2005:7). In studying the motivational profiles of North American managers, McClelland (in Stuart-Kotze, 2011) noticed that many of those who reached the top positions and are rated as highly effective in their positions demonstrated a concern for influencing people; although power motivation refers not to autocratic, tyrannical behaviour but to have some impact, to be influential and effective in achieving the schools goals (Stuart-Kotze, 2011). Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Klopper, Louw and Ooshuizen (2006:286-287) note that leadership involves influencing others to act towards the attainment of a goal and this is based on interpersonal relationship, not administrative activities and directives. Hellriegel et al. (2006) state that teachers throughout the school can and should exercise leadership and the best schools have effective leaders at all levels.

Empowerment of teachers in schools depends on the devolution of power by the SMTs (Singh, 2010:33). Empowered teachers can demonstrate a greater commitment to complete

tasks based on their increased sense of self-confidence, self-determination and personal effectiveness (Singh, 2005). This is supported by Ngubane's (2005:68) research in KZN that found RSSTs were involved in decision-making and they appeared to be happy with the process of decision-making particularly in the curriculum planning process (development of learning programmes and learning schedules). This is because RSSTs have opportunity to make input in their school. Singh (2010:50) concurs that a collegial environment needs to be created within the school for teachers to be able to engage in self-criticism, self-planning, and self-problem solving. He pointed out that teachers must be empowered to question traditional approaches, and have the capacity to emancipate themselves from conventional restrictive practices. This would enable RSSTs to be free to actually take part in the decision-making as dictated by their ability and to accept ownership of the goals of the school through joint decision-making (Singh, 2010:50). This study will therefore investigate the nature of teacher empowerment in RSSs.

2.5.1.4.2 Need for affiliation/mentorship

McClelland (in Moore et al., 2010:26) defines the need for affiliation as establishing, maintaining, or storing a positive affective relationship with the other person. This relationship is adequately described by the word "friendship" (Moore et al., 2010:26). This is supported by Maforah (2010:31) who defines the need for affiliation as the need for warm and friendly relationships with others. Therefore, the need for affiliation is the unconscious concern for developing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationship (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Additionally, Daft (2008:233) defines the need for affiliation as "the desire to form close relationship, avoid conflict, and establish warm friendship." Therefore, RSSTs who exhibit the need for affiliation are seeking interaction with other teachers (Moore et al., 2010:26). That could be the reason why teachers in this category tend to remain in the lower levels (post level 1) of management because of fear of rejection by peers, and they spend more time maintaining relationship (Lifvendahl, 2005:6). This is supported by McClelland's (in Stuart-Kotze 2011) findings that the people whose needs for affiliation are high do not make good managers. This is because RSSTs with high need for affiliation seek friendly exchange with others and are sensitive to signs of rejection (McClelland in Hofer & Busch, 2011:1148).

Friendship in the workplace can provide RSSTs with increased trust, respect, cooperation growth, development, energy and security and in turn influence work-related attitudes and

behaviour (Foot in Morrison, 2005:6). There is empirical evidence that suggests that co-worker relationship is an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2005:6). This is supported by Hackman and Lawler (in Morrison, 2005) who originally developed the job characteristic termed friendship opportunities and found a positive relationship between friendship opportunities and job satisfaction. Similarly, research by Morrison (2005:6) demonstrates that having more friends at work will make one's work more pleasant. In addition, a recent study by Hofer and Busch (2011:1147) found that the affiliation motive moderated the association between relatedness and relationship satisfaction. This study will therefore explore the extent of RSSTs' relationship.

2.5.2 Integrated RSST job satisfaction framework

Figure 2.4 has been developed from the four job satisfaction theories, namely, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, McClelland's theory of motivation, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory and Alderfer's ERG theory. The first column in Figure 2.4 shows the needs expected from the teaching job. The second column depicts needs expected from within the school environment. The third column provides the RSSTs' support expected from the community. These needs in the third column can also determine the level of RSSTs' job satisfaction since the school's wider community may affect teachers' levels of job satisfaction. For example, Masitsa (2011: 164) points out that learners and gangs or individuals from the community are perpetrators of violence in South African schools. Research has also shown that when examining the cause of crime and disruptions in schools it is therefore important to take into account the demographic factors such as levels of poverty and neighbourhood crime associated with increased violence in schools (Masitsa, 2011:164). Mercy and Rosberg (in Nickerson and Martens 2008:230) argue that poverty in the community is associated with increased school crime. This is confirmed by Netshitahame and Vollenhoven's (in Masitsa, 2011:165) study that found that South African rural schools are situated in high poverty areas and the poverty of the communities has led to countless incidents of vandalism and theft in schools. Moreover, the quality of accommodation, roads, the availability of EMCs and transportation, access to healthcare, shopping centres, financial institutions (banks and loan providers and insurance companies) and leisure activities such as sport and cinemas in the rural community may determine the levels of RSSTs' job satisfaction (Urwick, Mapuru & Nkhoboti, 2005; Newman, 2006; Akyeampong & Stephens in Mulkeen, Chapman, DeJaeghere & Leu, 2007; Gendall, 2008; Mulkeen & Crowe-Taft, 2010; Vavi 2011).

Figure 2.4 Integrated RSST job satisfaction framework

Needs from their job	Needs from school	Needs from the community
Constant curriculum changes Possibility for growth Empowerment Learner-centred curriculum Independence Autonomy Status of teaching profession Work experience Recognition Influence on others Esteem needs Job advancement Job itself Achievement Need for power	Pay/ salary Resources Safety and security Work-groups Relationships with colleagues Schools policies Electricity Water Learner discipline Overcrowded classes Work overload Paperwork Information and communication technology School libraries School laboratories	Education media centres Illiterate parents Impact of poverty Accommodation Roads Level of armed robbery Level of crime Level of substance/drug abuse Parental involvement Distance to school Tertiary institutions Healthcare centres Shopping centres Transportation Leisure activities Financial institutions

The literature study in this study has contributed to the development of the conceptual framework. This has guided the research study to be conducted on the RSSTs.

2.6 CHALLENGES AFFECTING TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION IN RSSs

Recent studies on RSSs have identified both challenges and advantages (Horst & Martin, 2007; Lawless, 2009). Historically, rural schools and the educational opportunities that they offer have been viewed as inferior to that of their urban counterparts (Lawless, 2009:2). In RSSs, resources such as newspapers, magazines, electricity and telephones are normally not available (Ngcongo, 2009:7). Schools situated in rural provinces such as EC, Limpopo and KZN in South Africa are the mostly affected and they lag behind in the following areas: running water and electricity; buildings; teaching equipment; and textbooks, stationery and furniture (Conway-Smith, 2011, Globelaar & Masuku, 2011). This is supported by the DoE (2009b:8) that many rural schools do not function properly due to a lack of adequate facilities such as water, proper functioning toilets and dilapidated buildings.

There are learners in South Africa who still go to class in mud and straw structures (Conway-Smith, 2011). In the EC for instance, there are still three hundred and ninety-five mud schools

from nine hundred and thirty-nine schools in 2004 (Conway-Smith, 2011; Vavi, 2011). Vavi (2011) complains that these mud schools are in danger of collapsing during heavy rains. Teachers and learners complain that mud schools are freezing cold in winter, overheated in summer and uncomfortable when it rains (Conway-Smith, 2011). In addition, research by Dala (2009:78) in KZN rural secondary schools found that poverty was the main contributory factor in learners' poor performance. Mpontshane (2011) points out that we should no longer tolerate a situation where learners go to schools in buildings of mud and without water and electricity. However, the President of South Africa (in Nkosi, 2011) promised that one hundred mud schools would get proper infrastructure during 2011, while another two hundred and forty-six poor schools were earmarked for a supply of appropriate facilities within the year.

2.6.1 Retention of rural school teachers

Rural schools find it difficult to attract and retain qualified teachers (Dala, 2009; Lawless, 2009; Lees, 2010). Lawless (2009:31) argues that the main reason is the advancement for teachers. Moreover, Hammer et al. (2005: iii) maintain that rural specific literature identifies four challenges related to retaining and recruiting teachers in rural schools, namely: lower salary; geographical and social isolation; difficult working conditions, such as having to teach classes in multiple subject areas; and the requirements for highly qualified teachers; for instance, many rural teachers will need certification in multiple subject areas, and PD opportunities can sometimes be scarce in rural communities. Collectively, these challenges can place rural schools and districts at a competitive disadvantage in attracting and retaining well qualified teachers. In addition, Newman (2006) cites the lack of basic infrastructure such as electricity, decent roads, telecommunication systems, health facilities, police stations and financial institutions in rural areas of South Africa as some of the factors that hamper the process of attracting and retaining well qualified teachers. Some teachers in South Africa often choose to leave the country if they fail to find a job in urban schools (Dala, 2009:2).

On the other hand, rural areas have benefits (Mollenkopf, 2009:x). Furthermore, Anderson (2008:1) contends that rural education also offers many advantages that most urban and suburban schools are unable to utilize: their agricultural education programme. In addition, research by Barley (2009:10) revealed that rural districts except small schools have lower turnover rates, but finding qualified teachers to fill vacancies remains a problem. Teachers

who have grown up in rural communities and appreciate the sense of community that comes from a rural lifestyle are likely to stay, usually teaching near or in the town where they grew up (Harris, 2001). They often have family close by, enjoying the challenge of the work environment, and are involved in and connected to the community (Davis, 2002). They also have the advantage of understanding rural practice and culture, a characteristic hard to find in teachers that have little rural experience (Howley & Howley, 2004).

In the similar vein, a study by Huysman (2008:35) discovered that homegrown teachers (teachers who grew up in rural areas) conveyed their view of the imbalance of power as a district–wide occurrence and many noted that it was personally distressing. This viewpoint stemmed from the homegrown perception that teachers returning to a district have inherently earned consideration for supplementary responsibilities, advancement opportunities and higher level of esteem. This higher consideration was expected due to their familiarity with the school, community and learners, and family (Huysman, 2008:35). Similarly, Mollenkopf (2009) states that RSSTs may enjoy the challenge of the work environment such as work overload, overcrowded classes and geographical isolation. The latter is confirmed by the DoE (2005:63) research that found RSSTs in South Africa have higher levels of job satisfaction than those in urban areas. Similarly, a study by Horst and Martin (2007:39) found that despite the isolation of the location and the high incidence of poverty, the rural school investigated showed continuous improvement academically.

In a study by Huysman (2008:35) it was found that transplanted rural teachers (teachers who were not born in rural areas) noted their impression of an imbalance of power from the view that power or influence was granted by virtue of relationships rather than because of education, experience or quality of work. Transplanted teachers contended this situation was a dynamic that influenced their dissatisfaction from the stand point that regardless of their abilities, intentions, or quality work, their contribution to the school muted and confined to their classroom (Huysman, 2008). Because of these imbalances, rural schools are more likely to lose transplanted teachers. It is easier for rural transplanted teacher to voluntarily leave the rural schools than for the homegrown teachers regardless of their qualifications, the quality of performance or level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Huysman, 2008:35).

2.7 JOB SATISFACTION IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

2.7.1 The nature of RSSTs' job satisfaction in Africa

Research by Ncube (2004:v) in Zimbabwe RSSs revealed that the reasons for under performance included among other things lack of resources and low teacher morale. Similarly, a report by DoE (2005) in the South Africa context indicated that RSSTs were less satisfied in their schools. Additionally, research by Baruth (2009:35) at Inanda (KZN) rural schools found that teachers agreed that motivation was needed in their schools as they were working under very stressful and frustrating situations, such as large classes, combined classes, lack of classroom space and lack of resources. Baruth's study further found that there were no charts on the walls; learners did not have textbooks and there was no writing material for learners. In some classes teachers did not have chalk to write with and did not have sufficient equipment and chemical materials to perform experiments (Baruth, 2009:38). This situation can negatively affect RSSTs' interest in terms of the grades 10-12 NCS implementation in these schools.

A study by Urwick, Mapuru and Nkhoboti (2005:vi) on teacher motivation and incentives in Lesotho revealed that of the ninety-two teachers who responded, forty-two rated their own job satisfaction as "just OK", while twenty-seven teachers rated it as poor or very poor. Within rural clusters of schools, the mean ratings for job satisfaction were consistently higher for unqualified teachers than for qualified teachers. However, no clear evidence is provided why qualified teachers were less satisfied except that they were less committed to remaining in the profession (Urwick et al., 2005:vi). Moreover, research by Ubom (2002) in Nigeria found that prompt payment of teacher salaries induced greater commitment to teaching. However, Adelabu (2005:5) points out that the major source of teacher dissatisfaction in Nigeria arises from disparities between the teaching profession and other professions such as nursing, with respect to time and mode of payment of salaries, fringe benefits and promotion prospects.

The promotion of teachers without basing it on an evaluative mechanism linked to job performance has also been found to demotivate many teachers in South Africa (Dehaloo, 2008; Zengele, 2009). In such situations, KZN rural secondary school teachers who deserve to be promoted based on their hard work, dedication and excellent performance in the grades 10-12 NCS implementation might be demoralized and frustrated (Dehaloo, 2008:4).

Similarly, Zengele (2009:4) points out that in such situation deserving teachers may feel discriminated against and ultimately leave the teaching profession. The negative mindsets of teachers could inevitably result in a decline in teacher performance and service delivery (Dehaloo, 2008:4). The reason is that there are no clear criteria to promote teacher candidates (Dehaloo, 2008).

In South Africa, it is generally believed that the school governing body (SGB) chairperson wields the greatest influence in the SGB by virtue of his office (Adams & Waghid, 2005:31). This view is supported by 53.7% of RSSTs who believed that "the SGB chairperson influences the other SGB members when it comes to choosing candidates for promotion posts" (Dehaloo, 2008:81). However, reasons are not provided why the SGB chairpersons have that influence. This study will therefore investigate the reasons why SGB chairpersons have that influence when appointing teachers. Additionally, Zengele (2009:ii) found that "during the filling of promotional posts, teacher unions tend to use undue influence to have their members promoted to the detriment of deserving and better qualified teachers." Teachers who are active in unions work outside the classroom seem to be receiving more recognition and support from their unions when promotions are made (Zengele, 2009). The latter also needs clarity why teacher unions recognize teachers who have shown lesser interest in teaching the learners.

2.7.2 Redeployment of teachers to rural schools in Africa

In many African countries, including South Africa, urban areas have qualified teachers who are unemployed, while rural areas have vacant posts (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008:2). This pattern of simultaneous surplus and shortage is the strong evidence that the problem of finding teachers for rural schools will not be solved simply by producing more teachers. There are quite a few constraints on the teacher deployment to rural schools. The rural-urban disparity in living conditions is the major constraint on attracting teachers to rural areas. Countries such as Mozambique, Tanzania and Uganda reported that teachers express a strong preference for urban posting because living conditions in general are so much better in urban than in rural areas (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008:2). In Ghana, for instance, over 80% of teachers preferred to teach in urban schools (Akeampong & Lewin, 2002:346). One of the concerns about working in rural areas is that the quality of life may not be as good as expected by the RSSTs (Mulkeen, 2005). For instance, rural areas in South Africa have bad roads, the quality

of accommodation is poor and there are no libraries to do their studies and develop themselves (Conway-Smith, 2011).

In the South African context, teachers in rural areas have a negative attitude towards their job (Wentzel & Tlabela, 2006). Rural school teachers are of the opinion that they have lesser opportunities than their urban counterparts (Cross, Seager, Wentzel, Mafukidze, Hoosen & Van Zyl, 2009). RSSTs are academically not as well qualified as teachers in urban areas (Mulkeen, 2005, DoE, 2006). For quick fix solution, the DoE is providing under-qualified and unqualified teachers including RSSTs the opportunity to study the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) and Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) for those who are qualified (Mkhize, 2009:14). To find out the impact of NPDE, research by Msila (2008:199) found that the contents of the study material of NPDE helped the teachers in refining their skills in their classrooms. Similarly, a study by Zuma (2009:67) in KZN found that the introduction of NPDE has helped rural unqualified and under-qualified teachers in their teaching. Another benefit is that NPDE is equivalent to REQV 13 which is a minimum requirement for promotional posts. Therefore, NPDE graduates are qualified for promotional posts (Zuma, 2009:65). The study found that some of the NPDE graduates in rural schools are holding HOD and deputy principal's positions (Zuma, 2009:65). However, these teachers need constant guidance because NPDE programmes could be misunderstood, as teachers tend to memorize the contents in order to pass examinations (Msila, 2008:199). Similarly, Zuma (2009:65) points out that NPDE programmes for rural school teachers need more school visits by their university tutors to provide guidance in their study materials.

A study by Adelabu (2005:24) in Nigeria revealed that there are rural schools that have no teachers. In Ondo State for instance, the teachers are concentrated in the cities as opposed to rural areas. The study further revealed that about half of the government-recognized secondary schools in Osun State are located in rural areas. However, the major problem they face in posting teachers to rural schools is the refusal of teachers, especially female teachers, to accept the posting. Similarly, a study by Mulkeen and Chen (2008:3) indicated that female teachers in African countries may be less willing to accept rural posting than their male counterparts, resulting in rural areas having fewer female teachers than in urban areas. According to Adelabu (2005:24), most of these teachers cite spouse employment as the main reason for refusal to accept rural postings. Even those who accept postings to rural areas start applying for transfer after a year or two years. This is confirmed by a recent study by Ariko

72

and Simatwa (2011) in Kenya who found that the major source for RSST transfer requests is poor accessibility of their schools, lack of housing facilities, lack of electricity, lack of opportunities for further studies, lack of teacher housing and lack of collegial treatment.

Moreover, Adelabu (2005:24) found that more than half of Nigerian teachers posted to rural schools reside in large cities and towns. This is the result of lack of basic infrastructure such as electricity, potable water, good roads, and communication facilities (telephone and internet services). This is similar to KZN situation whereby teachers of Kethimfundo, an RSS were coming to school from areas of Durban and Tongaat (Gumede, 2003:7). This was caused by poor infrastructure in KZN rural areas such as lack of tarred roads, electricity and fresh running water. Therefore, these RSSTs have to travel every day from Durban and Tongaat and back (Durban: 120 km and Tongaat: 60 km) (Gumede, 2003:7). These RSSTs travel long distances to their school and this will affect their levels of job satisfaction negatively since they have to pay more transport fares every school day (Vavi, 2011).

2.7.3 Strategies to redress teacher redeployment to RSSs

2.7.3.1 Incentives

Countries such as Botswana, Uganda and Mozambique have attempted to make working conditions in rural schools more attractive by offering incentives (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008: 21). These incentives may be financial incentives in the form of hardship allowances, travel allowance or subsidized housing. The incentives may be non-monetary, including special study leave, or better training opportunities (Craig, Kaft & Du Plessis in Mulkeen & Chen, 2008:21). In Mozambique, for example, financial bonuses are awarded to teachers who are located in rural areas. In South Africa, no rural allowances are offered currently. Although bonuses appear attractive in Mozambique, they are weakened by two factors. First, the payment depends on both location and teacher qualification and for teachers with low qualifications, there are no bonuses. Secondly, a major educational incentive for teachers to locate in rural school is the provision of the teacher housing. Where rural school teachers cannot live near their school, they are likely to spend a lot of time travelling, often to the detriment of their work. Housing is particularly important to female teachers. Mulkeen and Chen (2008:22) point out that in Malawi, official education data reveals that there is a strong association between the availability of housing in an area and the presence of female teachers in the school. Similarly, In Uganda, a recent study on teacher attrition considers the provision

of housing to be the key factor in ensuring teacher retention, especially in rural areas (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008). Fortunately, housing allowance of eight hundred rand per month is offered to all South African public school teachers to buy or to rent a house or a cottage (South African Democratic Teachers' Union, 2011:4) (SADTU). These allowances help KZN rural secondary school teachers to rent their accommodation. However, the housing allowance is not enough because public service unions demanded one thousand rand per month in 2010 but the government managed to offer them only eight thousand rand per month after the public service strike (SADTU, 2010).

2.7.3.2 Targeted recruitment strategy of RSSTs

The targeted recruitment strategy of RSSTs is an alternative strategy made to recruit student teachers from within the region in the hope that personal history and family connections would entice them to teach in their home area after they had attained their teacher qualification (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008:25). The presumption is that those individuals will have familiar roots in the area and be willing to return and remain in rural settings (Crag et al. in Mulkeen & Chen, 2008). In support, a recent study by Huysman (2008:36) found that commitment by investment was the position homegrown RSSTs used to explain that rural lifestyle, being close to family, growing up and knowing people in the community, owning property, being vested in the retirement system, and their investment of years of service in the rural district created a situation that made leaving RSSs an unacceptable option. However, research by Mulkeen and Chen (2008:25) indicated that in some countries such as Malawi, teachers do not want to work in their own village, because their family may place too many demands on them. Mulkeen and Chen's (2008) study further revealed that teachers from rural areas would prefer to be in their home district, but not in their home village.

In order to address the teacher shortage in the South African context, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and higher education and Training's (HET) (2011:5) have planned to produce more teachers by ensuring that "existing teacher delivery sites are fully utilized at existing teacher education institutions." In the process, new delivery sites will be identified and resourced, especially in rural schools (DBE & HET, 2011:5). However, if the above measures fail to meet teacher supply needs of South Africa, new dedicated teacher education institutions will be established. Furthermore, the provincial DoE, teacher unions and universities will work together to attract and encourage high achieving matriculation learners to become teachers. These learners will be provided the Funza Lushaka bursary to study

teaching (DBE & HET, 2011:5). Although Funza Lushaka was introduced in 2007 in higher education institutions (HEIs), young school leavers are not entering teaching profession in the number required (DoE, 2007). The poor public image of the teaching profession and the status among young people can be the barrier to attract them to teaching profession (DoE, 2010). Therefore, the study will explore how teachers feel about the status of teaching profession.

2.8. FACTORS THAT AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION OF RSSTs

2.8.1 Teacher job satisfaction and gender equality

Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between gender equality and job satisfaction, with results being inconsistent (Clayton, Lynch & Kerry, 2011:423). As far as teachers are concerned, research had also revealed contradictory evidence on the relationship between gender and job satisfaction (Abd-El-Fattah, 2010:12). Research by Sargent and Hannum (2003) in Chinese rural schools revealed that there was no significant relationship between gender and teacher job satisfaction. This is supported by Geenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (in Clayton et al., 2011:423) who found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction even though males tend to have higher professional level positions and are better salaried while women were concentrated in lower level jobs.

On the other hand, studies have found that female teachers were less satisfied with their jobs than male teachers (Abd-El Fattah, 2010:19). Furthermore, research by Abdullah, Uli and Parasulaman (2009:14) found that males had a relatively higher level of overall job satisfaction than women teachers. Similarly, a study by Alam, Falha, Sivanand and Ahsan (2005:91) found that males are more satisfied than females with facet interpersonal relationship with colleagues. On the other hand, female employees were found to be significantly more satisfied with promotion and working conditions than their male counterparts. Women enjoy their working environment and they have no expectation for higher post (Alam et al., 2005:91). A study by Bull (2005:106) in the Western Cape (South Africa) disadvantaged schools revealed that female teachers were significantly less satisfied with their circumstances and, in particular, their income to male teachers. This study will therefore investigate the relationship between KZN rural secondary school teachers' gender and job satisfaction.

2.8.2 Teacher job satisfaction and the level of education

A recent research by Turner (2007:94) revealed that there was no significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and teachers' academic level. However, research by Sargent and Hannum (2003) in Chinese rural schools revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between teachers' academic attainments and teacher job satisfaction. The results of their study have indicated that better qualified RSSTs in China tended to be less satisfied than less qualified teachers, and thus, they are more likely to leave teaching. Another study by Ali and Zaki (2009:59) in India found similar results that non-PhD teachers showed significant greater degree of job satisfaction in comparison with teachers having PhD degrees. In addition, research by Abd-El-Fattah (2010:19) concurs that teachers with low academic attainments were more satisfied with their teaching profession than teachers with high academic attainments. The reason is that teachers with better academic qualifications perceive more alternative career opportunities (Abd-El-Fattah, 2010:19). This is because those holding higher qualifications have many job opportunities which they can choose from.

However, research by Bull (2005:116) found that there was a statistically significant relationship between education and job satisfaction among the teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. Similarly, Rao (in Ali and Zaki 2009:59) found a positive correlation between education qualification and job satisfaction. In addition, a study by Abdullah et al. (2009:14) revealed that graduate teachers were more satisfied with their overall teaching job than non-graduates. This probably because graduate teachers receive a higher monthly income than the non-graduate teachers and they usually occupy higher positions such as HODs, deputy principals and principals in schools (Abdullah et al., 2009). This study will therefore explore the relationship between KZN rural secondary school teachers' education and job satisfaction.

2.8.3 Teacher job satisfaction and teaching experience

Abd-El-Fattah (2010:12) argues that there is contradictory evidence regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and the length of service. However, research by Bull (2005:108) in the Western Cape disadvantaged schools revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the length of service and job satisfaction among teachers. Similarly, Crossman and Harris (2006) reported a relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and length of service. They found that teachers with longer service were more

satisfied that the new teachers. Furthermore, Abdullah's et al. (2009:14) research revealed that experienced teachers were more satisfied than others. Usually, teachers who remain in their job for a long time are normally satisfied with their job (Abdullah et al., 2009:14). Their study concluded that the senior teachers were more satisfied than young ones.

Research by Chen (2010:1) who investigated Chinese middle school teacher job satisfaction, revealed that younger, less experienced, junior teachers were more satisfied than senior teachers. However, a study by Gorudzo-Kusereka (2003:151) found that teaching experience of RSSTs did not influence motivation. In contrast, research by Michaelowa (2002) showed no relationship between the length of service and teacher job satisfaction. A recent study by Abd-El-Fattah (2010:19) confirmed that length of service has no impact on teachers' job satisfaction. This study will therefore explore the relationship between KZN rural secondary school teachers' experience and job satisfaction.

2.8.4 Teacher job satisfaction and age of RSSTs

The results of numerous studies suggest that there is a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction of teachers (Clayton et al., 2011:421). On the other hand, Maforah (2010: 52) argues that there is no clear-cut relationship between age and job satisfaction. However, Rhodes (in Clayton et al. 2011:421) insists that as workers get older, they become more satisfied with their job. This view does not favour the situation of KZN rural secondary schools since many RSSTs are young and inexperienced (Hammer et al., 2005; Dala, 2009). However, research by Clayton et al. (2011:425) found no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction of the various age groups, even though overall, the job satisfaction of respondents was high, with ranges from a value of 51 to the value of 126 (out of possible total of 126). This study will therefore investigate the relationship between KZN rural secondary school teachers' age and job satisfaction.

2.8.5 Job satisfaction and the curriculum change

The attitudes of teachers are the central to the curriculum change (Barr in Kasapoglu, 2010: 1). Teachers may resist change and implementation of the changeable concepts of the curricula in terms of goals, content, the teaching-learning process, evaluation and resources, since change or reform appears threatening and therefore brings resistance (Kasapoglu, 2010). Changes in schools that require new content and new repertoires are likely to be met

with passive resistance from experienced teachers (Eisner in Singh, 2011:383). These teachers seek a comfort zone of familiar teaching responses which they employ efficiently and in so doing, thwart effort for the grades 10-12 NCS if the latter creates insecurity for them (Singh, 2011:383). In support, research by Dladla (2005:140) in South Africa discovered that teachers are demotivated and angry at being blamed for the failure of curriculum changes that are imposed by politicians and that are not easy to implement. In addition, George, Louw and Badenhost (2008) point out that several teachers verbally reported that they experienced these changes as stressful, owing to the rapidity of the changes and the fact that they had not been adequately prepared for these changes which in turn affect their ability to cope with the new demands. This is supported by a recent study by Singh (2011:282) in the EC that teachers were in total agreement that implementation of the OBE without adequate professional support caused them stress and anxiety.

On the other hand, recent research by Kasapoglu (2010:96) in Turkey revealed that teachers had positive attitudes towards change as a result of the fact that they might be aware of its effectiveness on their personal growth since more than 80% of them agreed that changes tend to stimulate them; they usually benefit from change. This is consistent with Aydogan's (2007) study in Turkey concluding that school teachers were ready for the change. Ha, Lee, Chan and Sum (2004) state that teachers in China generally had positive attitudes towards curriculum change and showed further support for the change after attending practical, and effective in-service training programmes provided to support on collaboration among teachers, educational scholars and policy-makers.

2.8.6 Teacher job satisfaction and emotional intelligence

2.8.6.1 What is emotional intelligence?

Bar-on (2002:14) defines emotional intelligence (EI) as an array of non-cognition capabilities, competences, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. As stated by Singh (2010:36), "broadly defined, EI addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence". He proceeds that EI and emotional skills develop over time, change throughout life, and relate to one's potential for performance, are process-oriented, and can be improved through training. Mayer and Salovey (1997:10) define EI as follows:

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotional knowledge and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (in Dali, 2011:18) define EI as an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and reasoning and problem-solving on the basis of them. Therefore, there is a need for RSSTs to be emotionally intelligent in order to address their rural schools' challenges. Teacher low morale can be improved if principals offer emotional support by showing teachers trust and respect, instrumental support when they ask for help, information support by removing ambiguities and by offering them more praise (Manser, 2005:15-16).

2.8.6.2 The impact of EI on RSSTs to cope with rural schools' challenges

There are huge disparities in infrastructure and the lack of resources in RSSs (Manser, 2005; Mazibuko, 2007; Lumadi, 2008). There is no running water; there are no telephones, no toilets and no postal services in RSSs (Risimati, 2007; Mojapelo, 2008; Dala, 2009). Their communities are examples of extreme poverty and children are often underfed, poorly clothed and they rely on the school feeding scheme for some form of daily nourishment (Manser, 2005, Dala, 2009). In support, research by Risimati (2007:252) in Limpopo (South Africa) on RSSs revealed that many schools did not have infrastructure. Only one out of four RSSs visited had sufficient classrooms made of bricks. One of the four schools had shacks and structures built by the community. The poor structures impacted on academic achievement of learners. Schools of such structures are forced to abandon classes on windy and rainy days (Risimati, 2007:252). Another study by Lumadi (2008:32) in the EC rural schools revealed that the majority of schools were made of grass and thatched grass, with no piped water, no electricity, no modern technical equipment, no affordable transport for teachers and learners. He argues that in such conditions, teaching and learning will not take place (Lumadi, 2008:32). This is an indication that teachers work long hours under stress, which affects their job satisfaction levels and their performance as a result (Ghoniem, ElKhouly, Mohse & Ibrahim, 2011:22). Curriculum-related problems (the grades 10-12 NCS) in South Africa are specifically identified as a major source of Tobephobia (Singh, 2010; Singh, 2011). These include lack of resources such as inadequate teaching materials, not enough desks and no enough textbooks. Linking to the grades 10-12 NCS, the amount of

paperwork teachers are required to deal with is a major source of stress to South African teachers (Petty, 2007; Schulze & Steyn, 2007; Burger, 2009).

However, EI may contribute to work satisfaction by enabling RSSTs to nurture positive relationship at work, work effectively in teams and build social capital (Ghoniem et al., 2011: 23). Research has shown the impact of EI in coping with stress in the workplace which consequently improves employees' job satisfaction (Shahzad & Begum, 2011:60). It is therefore the responsibility of the SMTs to provide support since the ability to manage emotions can help RSSTs avoid being overwhelmed by negative effects and cope with stress (Mayer & Salovey in Ghoniem et al., 2011:23). In addition, Schulze and Steyn, (2007:705) recommend that individual teachers have to accept the responsibility to acquire stress coping skills to handle demands of the profession effectively. Moreover, Schulze and Steyn (2007: 705) point out that the relevant programmes need to be developed to support teachers in developing stress coping skills. This means that KZN rural secondary school SMTs have to provide emotional motivation and motivational support, and prepare RSSTs for any obstacle that might occur (Renn, 2003:561). However, research by Hlongwane (2008:18) in KZN secondary schools found that no support programmes were available for stressed teachers in both rural and urban secondary schools. This study will therefore investigate whether RSSTs are able to cope with stress and pressure in their job.

2.9 SUMMARY

Poverty is the main challenge in RSSs, and teachers have negative attitudes towards learners from low-class families. As a result, teachers are reluctant to work in RSSs. Constant curriculum changes, particularly in the grades 10-12 NCS, fail to address rural learners' needs. Motivation plays a vital role to enhance job satisfaction. According to Maslow's hierarchy of basic needs theory, people are motivated when their basis needs are met. According to him, there are two hierarchy basic needs, namely: lower hierarchy basic needs and higher hierarchy basic needs. Moreover, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory of motivation identifies two types of motivation factors, namely: motivators and hygiene. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory reveals that motivators affect job satisfaction. On the other hand, hygiene factors promote job dissatisfaction if they are absent, but, if they are present, they do not promote job satisfaction.

CHAPTER THREE

STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1994, the South African DoE has designed a range of strategies to address PD issues which include the upgrading of teachers who are unqualified and under-qualified (DoE, 2006:47). Furthermore, in 2002, KZN had the high number (one third) of unqualified and under-qualified teachers in South Africa (Nkosi, 2008:2). To address the latter, various interventions were made to reduce the number of unqualified and under-qualified teachers such as the NPDE (DoE, 2006; KZNDoE, 2007; Nkosi, 2008). For instance, between 2004 and 2007 the total number of two thousand nine hundred and sixty-three teachers had enrolled at institutions to upgrade their qualifications (KZNDoE, 2007). However, there were still teachers who are failing to complete their qualifications because of the workload posed by the new curriculum and personal commitments (Rathogwa, 2006:6). This is confirmed by Lees (2010) that there are still nine thousand and three unqualified and under-qualified teachers teaching in KZN. Of these unqualified and under-qualified teachers in KZN twenty had not even attained a grade twelve certificate and another eight thousand three hundred and seventeen teachers had a grade twelve qualification and no other qualification (Dala, 2009; Lees, 2010). This could be one of the contributory factors why RSS learners in KZN are still lagging behind in terms of grade twelve pass rate.

Despite the limitation knowledge deficiency, district officials play an essential role in ensuring the implementation of educational policies, more particularly the grades 10-12 NCS (Jansen in Bantwini & Diko, 2011:228). However, the follow-up workshops are inadequate particularly in RSSs. In most cases, there is no follow-up taking place (Malesa, 2007:4). RSSTs have to work alone without assistance from subject advisers and SMTs who are responsible to follow-up after district workshops (Malesa, 2007: 4). Moreover, in 2007, the DoE and the South African Council of Education (SACE) established a joint task team to design a PD points system to encourage and support the PD of teachers (DoE-SACE, 2008: 37). During 2008, the conceptual design was to be finalized and the pilot study was to be carried out to test the design. The pilot-schedule for September 2008 was to lead to the finalization of the plan for the management and coordination of PD and the system was to be phased in from 2009 (DoE-SACE, 2008:37). Unfortunately, the pilot study of this type of PDP is yet to be conducted in the KZN schools. The latter can be one of the teacher PD drawbacks in KZN.

Furthermore, De Oliveira (2005:23) states that in-service training (INSET) workshops tend to be uncoordinated in that they disrupt teaching more than developing it and this impedes the effectiveness of implementing the new curriculum. She further points out that the work integrated learning (WIL) should take place at the workplace and not in venues outside schools, which are unrelated to classroom environment. However, Garuba (2004) contends that the participation of teachers in refresher courses may motivate them to improve their performance. In such courses teachers can reflect on their everyday problems, seeking solutions to problems and report the findings at staff meetings (Steyn, 2010a:540). Although external PDPs are essential, however, some researchers insist that school-based PDPs must receive the first priority since teachers are taught in their schools how to teach their subjects in their own teaching environment (Gaible & Burns, 2010; Dali, 2011).

3.2 EXPECTED ROLE OF THE CURRICULUM WORKER

Curriculum worker (CW) is a term that describes a variety of educators from teachers to superintendent (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008:434). This implies that any person involved in some form of curriculum implementation and evaluation is a CW (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008:434-435). The CW has many different titles such as subject advisers, ward managers, principals, deputy principals, HODs, and the post level one teachers (PL1 teachers). Therefore, the RSST is also a member of the curriculum team as a CW. Early identification of teachers to serve in the capacity of CWs is essential for the growth of teachers and the vitality of a school (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008).

Although Doll (in Ornstein and Hunkins 2009:24) views the curriculum expert as a subject chair or principal, he is concerned with the teacher's role in planning and implementing the curriculum at classroom, school and district levels. In his opinion, the teacher should be involved in every phase of curriculum making, including the planning of specific goals, materials content and method. He further states that teachers should have a curriculum coordinating body to unify their work and develop relationships with supervisors or other teachers involved in the curriculum. Moreover, Oliva (in Ornstein and Hunkins, 2009: 24-25) has a broad view of teacher's role. For him, teachers are the primary group in curriculum development. They constitute the majority or the totality of the membership of the curriculum committee at a school level. Their role is to develop, implement and evaluate the curriculum. Doll and Oliva's views suggest a bottom-up approach to curriculum, in which teachers play a

major role. Unfortunately, a top down approach is used in South Africa where the grades 10-12 NCS curriculum statements are only developed by the national DoE (Du Plessis, 2005).

In the South African context, every teacher, including RSSTs, is mandated to develop the three-year phase plan, which is referred to as the learning programme, the one-year plan for each of the grades in the phase termed as work schedule; and the short-term plan for weeks, months or term within the year, referred to as the lesson plan (Du Plessis, 2005:128). Additionally, some of the teachers' roles relevant to curriculum have been prescribed for both South African urban school teachers and RSSTs, such as to be the learning mediators; interpreters and designers of learning programmes and materials; scholars, researchers and lifelong learners; assessors and subject specialists (Hendricks, 2008:13). However, it can be argued whether RSSTs are adequately developed to perform these roles. In contrast, research by Hendricks (2008:72) found that teachers in the EC were inadequately trained in these roles to address the demands and challenges of the new curriculum.

The new curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS) requires all South African learners to make a shift from a content-based to one based on outcomes (Vermuelen in Dala, 2009:32). The grades 10-12 NCS seems to focus less on content knowledge but emphasizes the holistic development of the learner (Frick, 2008: v). This is to prepare learners to have the ability to work in groups, access a variety of media sources and take part in interactive discussions (Frick, 2008: v). To assist learners to achieve the latter, teachers are responsible for planning and preparing lesson plans, teaching according to the grades 10-12 NCS requirements, learners' needs and setting and marking of learners' work, assessing, recording and reporting on the development, progress and attainment of learners (Income Data Services, 2006; Evans, 2011). Furthermore, Evans (2011) points out that the duties of teachers are to develop lesson plans, carry out lesson plans, assign homework that reinforces lessons and carry out examinations to ensure that learners are making progress. Additionally, teachers in South Africa are also involved in curriculum committees, for example at grade level and according to subject they teach (Du Plessis, 2005).

However, the DoE (2006:17) has found that South African teachers need to strengthen their subject knowledge base, pedagogical content knowledge and teaching skills, classroom management and discipline skills in order to perform their duties accordingly. This emanates from the reports indicating that at many schools, particularly RSSs in South Africa, there is a

shortage of well qualified and competent teachers to perform these duties and PDPs are also limited (Dala, 2009; Schouwstra, 2009). With the introduction of the grades 10-12 NCS, teachers simply found themselves in a new curriculum world (Harley & Wedekind, 2004: 199). For them, this means a change in more than just a curriculum, but a change in ideology of their conception of education (Govender, 2008:10). Teachers' prior knowledge and experience can limit their vision to incorporate new and innovative ways of teaching and learning in the grades 10-12 NCS (Frick, 2008:iii). Additionally, research by Govender (2008:125) in South Africa found that the grades 10-12 NCS has caused a lot of uncertainty among teachers. Teachers were uncertain about the content and assessment of the grades 10-12 NCS. For instance, they felt that the grades 10-12 NCS documents were not explicit enough about the content that they should teach to prepare learners adequately for assessment (Govender, 2008:125). This is supported by Dala (2009:79) in KZN who found that RSSTs were not sufficiently trained and they were not clear about what was expected from them. This indicates that teachers should be provided with WIL by the SMTs, peers, curriculum advisers and HEIs.

3.2.1 Implementation of grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs

The advent of curriculum change to the grades 10-12 NCS and its subsequent implementation in secondary schools demanded a compatible method of delivery in the classroom (Phorabatho, 2010:27). However, Mampuru (in Ndou, 2008:34) perceives implementation as the most difficult phase of a change process as most shortcomings of the change may appear at this stage, particularly in RSSs with deficits in their resources. Therefore, curriculum implementation literature emphasizes the central role that teachers play in how a curriculum is realized in practice (Motshekga, 2009:24). Central to this are RSSTs' understanding levels of the curriculum. These views suggest that the most grades 10-12 NCS challenges are noticeable during its implementation phase. It can be argued that the implementation of curriculum change in RSSs is often filled with challenges, which if not managed effectively might see a good policy jettisoned (Phorabatho, 2010:49). This view ties in with Ramroop's (2004:5) standpoint that the implementation of a change impacts significantly on people and institutions. If not administered correctly and sensitively, with a lot of skill and support, it can be easily seen that good ideas become unachievable.

In addition, the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS created many challenges for teachers in rural, poorly resourced and rural Black schools (Mutereko, 2009:1). These challenges include the capacity of the conditions of implementation, the capacity of RSSTs to translate them into reality and budgetary concerns (Mutereko, 2009:1). This emphasizes that effective RSST professional development is crucial to the successful implementation of grades 10-12 NCS (Motshekga, 2009:55). However, Serrao (2008:1) points out that poor teacher PD is one of the significant challenges that hamper implementation of grades 10-12 NCS in secondary schools. He further asserts that there are teachers who are currently in the system who received their baseline professional training under the auspices of the old apartheid curriculum. Therefore, these teachers are most likely to experience challenges to implement the grades 10-12 NCS effectively, particularly in RSSs (Pharobatho, 2010). This has been supported by Motshekga (2009:24) that there has been a high level of confusion among teachers around what they are expected to do.

Research by Mutereko (2009:62) indicated that most teachers explained that LOs cannot be achieved in the time frame given to the particular grade. Teachers complained about the workload such as continuous assessment (CASS) and paperwork; and the resources available such as libraries, textbooks, laboratories and audio-visual materials (Mutereko, 2009:68). Teachers further indicated that their job is too heavy because they teach a number of subjects which have different LOs and ASs. The administrative and clerical work is one issue that was mentioned by teachers adversely contributing to their workload (Mutereko, 2009:70).

3.2.2 Rural secondary school teachers' experiences in the new curriculum

A recent study by Zacharia, Daud and Meerah (2009:85) found that teachers desired to improve their knowledge, professionalism, thinking skills, creativity and communication skills. This has been supported by Risimati (2007:193) that teachers who have attended workshops know what to do in class and they produce good results." This raises the need for adequate and effective RSSTs' PDPs. However, PD seems to be weak in RSSs since teachers' PDPs are mainly conducted in the form of workshops (Risimati,2007); instead of continuous and work integrated professional development programmes (WIPDP) (Steyn, 2009; Dali, 2011). Moreover, research by Zacharia et al. (2009:85) found that RSST needs were greater than those of their urban counterparts. This may be caused by their lack of exposure and experiences and may also indicate that these RSSTs are not acquiring relevant

information and knowledge in their current PDPs. Another challenge is that the time set aside for PDPs and classroom support was insufficient and inadequate (Malesa, 2007:3). There was no follow-up after the training to complement the training received from the district and that resulted in teachers failing to implement the grades 10-12 NCS (Malesa, 2007:69). This has resulted in teachers still struggling as far as planning process, teaching and learning and assessment are concerned (Malesa, 2007:69).

Furthermore, the implementation of grades 10-12 NCS in KZN rural secondary schools was met with a number of shortcomings such as poor resources and poorly trained facilitators (Dala, 2009:32). The reason in that the KZNDoE simply took RSSTs from schools to be facilitators without training them properly in the specific subject content. This has resulted in them imparting scanty information to other teachers (Dala 2009:32). In addition, a report by Motshekga (2009:10) revealed that teacher PD policies (national, provincially, district-based and school-based programmes) to support the grades 10-12 NCS implementation did not provide the needed PD support. This is supported by Peat (2009:17) that teachers are still struggling to come to terms with the grades 10-12 NCS demands. For instance, in teacher hearings, teachers made it clear that addressing the need to upgrade teachers' skills would not be appropriate with "one size fits all" approach (Motshekga, 2009:10). In all provinces teachers stated that any future PDP needs to be subject specific (Motshekga, 2009:10).

On the positive side, Vasscher (in Mwiria 2006:49) reported that the teacher preparedness in the sense of knowledge of the subject content and in the pedagogical knowledge has shown empirically to matter as far as achievement was concerned. A study by Hlongwane (2008) in KZN shares similar sentiment that to develop teachers who found it difficult to implement the grades 10-12 NCS, experts in particular subjects were invited to school A (an RSS). School-based workshops were also conducted to assist teachers in their subjects; for instance, one formal school–based workshop per term was conducted. Peer PD support programmes were also available since senior teachers were appointed to develop their colleagues. This RSS was a member of clusters where RSSTs got opportunities to find out how teachers in other schools implement the grades 10-12 NCS (Hlongwane, 2008:17). Consistently, the same RSS has been awarded with nine computers for its 100% grade twelve pass rate in 2010, and also as the most improved secondary school in Ilembe district (KZN) despite having no access to resources such as libraries, laboratories and computers (Stanger Weekly, 2011:7). Although

these findings cannot be generalized, however, offering a variety of PDPs to meet RSSTs'
needs has the potential for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in KZN.

3.3 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS

According to Rasa (2010:26), PD is often described in the literature using terms such as
INSET, staff development, career development, human resource development continuing
education and lifelong learning. Budd and Earley (2010:1) point out that PD consists of
reflective activity designed to improve an individual's attributes of knowledge, understanding
and skills. In addition, PD supports an individual's needs and improves professional practice.
Furthermore, Tan (2009:1) contends that PD is an ongoing training and education throughout
a career to improve skills and knowledge used to perform a job. In a fast changing curriculum
such as in South Africa in which skills are likely to obsolesce quickly, PD must be
continuous and directed towards maintaining the professional knowledge, skills and
competence necessary for the diligent and competent practice of the grades 10-12 NCS
implementation (Tan, 2009:1). Recent research findings show that teachers consider training
and development of great importance (Budd & Earley, 2010:4). In eight out of ten teachers,
PD is an important factor when considering both their future in their current school and in
teaching profession (National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), 2008).

According to Budd and Earley (2007:4), PD is an ongoing process encompassing all formal
and informal learning experiences that enable teachers to think about what they are doing,
enhance their knowledge and skills and improve ways of working so that learner learning and
well-being are enhanced as a result. PD should achieve a balance among teachers, groups of
schools and national needs; encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth;
and increase resilience, self-confidence, job satisfaction and enthusiasm for working with
children and colleagues. Therefore, PDPs should meet the individual needs of teachers (Lee,
2005). Furthermore, teachers prefer more practical programmes that meet their specific needs
(Robinson & Carrington, 2002). Desimone et al. (2006:205) suggest scaffolding PD
opportunities by offering programmes targeted at teachers at varying levels of content
knowledge and skills. These suggested PD models will be dealt with in this chapter. In the
context of this study, PD is defined as the continuous process to develop RSSTs'
competencies in order to be able to implement the new South African curriculum for grades
10-12 in KZN rural secondary schools.

3.3.1 Teacher PD theories

3.3.1.1 Constructivism theory of learning for RSSTs

Constructive learning theory suggests that learning is a constructive process in which the learner builds an internal interpretation of experience, a sense making process where the individual RSST builds new knowledge and understanding from the base of existing knowledge and perceptions (Chalmers & Keown, 2006:148). According to Gensburg and Herman (2008), constructivism lends itself to a learner-centered learning environment where learners which are RSSTs in this case are actively engaged in learning. In-service RSSTs can be these learners as they try to implement the grades 10-12 NCS in the classroom using constructive teaching. Ng and Nguyen (2006:41) define constructivism as the belief that the learner is active in shaping how new knowledge is taken and shaped; furthermore, that new understandings emerge progressively as learners (RSSTs) develop hypotheses, test hypotheses and re-shape their understanding on the basis of experience. From these learning theories teaching methods such as group work and peer-tutoring methods are developed to tap into the learning process (Gensburg & Herman, 2008).

Figure 3.1 Challenged-based learning and other learning methods for RSSTs
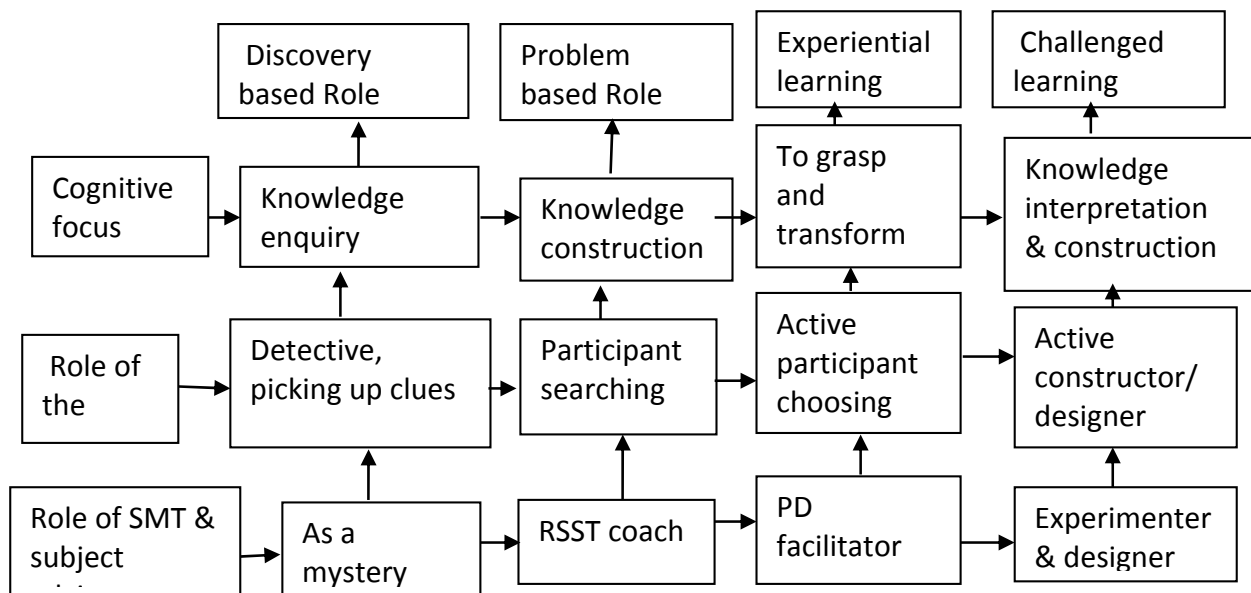
Adapted from: Baloian, Hoppe, Milrand and Hoeksema (2006, p. 10)

There is a logical development from the theory to method which brings us learning environments. Constructivism lends itself to certain learning environments. The new curriculum-enhanced constructivist learning environments offer many opportunities to

engage RSSTs authentic, complex, and guided learning interactions (Sharma, Xie, Hsieh, Hsieh & Yoo, 2008:88). These environments are learner-centred, interesting, real life, social, active, time, feedback and supportive (Sherman & Kurshan, 2005). In a learner-centred environment the PD facilitator (SMT member or subject adviser) bases instruction on RSSTs' prior knowledge and experiences (Gensburg & Herman, 2008). The constructive learning incorporates teacher communities as the context of learning (Sherman & Kurshan, 2005:12). Therefore, social learning is an important part of constructivism because it allows the RSST to relate the new knowledge with what they determine important. The RSST as a learner uses reading, writing, research, discussion and other activities in order to construct knowledge (Gensburg & Herman, 2008).

3.3.1.2 RSSTs' professional learning communities

The literature has drawn attention to the social nature of learning and central role that communities of practice (CoP) can play in enhancing RSSTs' professional development knowledge and improving their practice (Little, 2002). The literature indicates that PD experiences are particular effective when situated in a collegial learning environment, where RSSTs work collaboratively to enquire and reflect on their teaching. As a result, university-based and school-based PDPs have a central featured opportunity for RSSTs to participate collaboratively in professional communities (Whitcomb, Borko & Liston, 2009:210). Whitcomb et al. (2009:210) argue that functional professional learning communities help maintain a balance between respecting teachers (RSSTs) as individuals and critically analyzing issues in their teaching.

Sargent and Hannum's (2009:258) study of professional learning communities in rural China used survey data collected from rural school teachers to investigate the cultural and institutional features in China's approach to organizing teacher learning, even when resources were constrained. Their study identified several practices Chinese teachers engaged in when participating in professional learning communities such as collective lesson planning, peer observation, evaluation, and critique; observation of demonstration of mode lessons; and production and consumption of research. They found these activities penetrating in some China's poor schools in meaningful ways (Sargent & Hannum, 2009). This indicates that even though KZN rural secondary schools are very poor, grades 10-12 NCS can be a success as long as teachers are willing to develop each other more particularly in clusters where there are opportunities for RSSTs to meet for development purposes (Hlongwane, 2008).

3.3.1.3 RSSTs' situated PD in the work of teaching

As Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009:3) point out, the content of PD is most useful when it focuses on concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection. Therefore, researchers such as Whitcomb et al. (2009:207) are currently working to identify the concrete tasks that are central to teaching and learning. Research by Kazemi, Lampert and Ghousseini (2007) focused on instructional routines, recurring instructional activities that are easily recognized by a set of teaching moves they entail and the role they play in classroom practice. Grossman and McDonald (2008) focus on "high leverage practice" that occurs with the frequency in teaching and are enacted across different curricula instructional approaches, preserve the integrity and complexity of teaching, are research-based, and have the potential to improve learner achievement. Although there are nuanced differences in the focus of their work, these researchers share a belief in the value of placing the core practices at the centre of RSST learning experiences.

Focusing on teacher preparation such as the grades 10-12 NCS orientation workshops, Grossman and McDonald (2008:188) argue that teachers' PDPs should move away from what teachers need to know, to a curriculum focused on WIL, in which the development of pedagogical skill in interactive aspects of teaching is addressed by university-based teacher educators, as well as field experiences. Whitcomb et al. (2009:207) suggest that these instructional practices are worthwhile candidates for PD efforts to enhance teacher quality.

3.3.1.4 Literate and illiterate learning theories for the RSSTs

Adult development theories provide a framework for understanding of how adult learners are different from younger learners, while also providing insight into devising better PDPs to meet the needs of teachers (Trotter, 2006:8). Research in the area of adult development included that of Oja (in Trotter 2006) who studied adult learning as it applied to teacher in-service education by identifying four key ingredients for successful learning, such as the use of concrete experiences; continuous availability of supervision and advising; encouragement of adults to take on new complex roles, and the use of support and feedback when implementing new techniques. Teachers wanted learning experiences that they could immediately practise (WIL) in their classrooms. They liked to discuss practices with others and problem-solve classroom situations. Through these interactive situations, teachers were able to reflect, grow and adapt throughout their teaching careers (Trotter, 2006:12).

Adults bring numerous life and work experiences, needs, personalities and learning styles to their learning, which also shape their perspectives on learning, education and PD (Grado-Severson, 2007). Theories of adult learning and development illuminate how adults can be supported when engage in PDPs (Steyn, 2010a:541). Knowles's theory of androgogy emphasizes that adults are self-directed and expect to take responsibility for decisions. Androgogy makes the following assumptions: Adult learners, particularly RSSTs, want to understand why they need to learn something; experiential learning is recommended for adults; adult learning is facilitated by challenging and relevant problem solving; and adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value (Steyn, 2010a:541). Therefore, Lee (2005) points out that the beliefs and assumptions about adult learning need to form the foundation of teachers' PDPs. Since adult learners, particularly RSSTs, learn by experimenting, WIPDPs can be effective to develop KZN rural secondary school teachers (Dali, 2011).

3.3.1.5 Integration of the four selected teacher PD theories

According to Moursund (2007), a focus on situated learning is on learning by doing and on addressing real problems. Here, knowledge is seen as a practical capability for doing and making. Meaning is seen as a construction of social unit that shares a stake in a common situation. Interaction is a critical component of situated learning and learners (teachers) become involved in CoP which embodies certain beliefs and behaviours to be acquired (Love & Wenger in Moursund, 2007).

The constructive learning of adult learning strategies are self-learning, independent learning, co-operative learning and problem-oriented learning (Free Papers Download Center, 2010). A good example of these WIPD strategies is a study by Ruey (2010:706) who found the majority of adult learners (teachers) were engaged in two facets of learning. The instructional activities requiring collaboration and interaction helped the teachers support one another's learning, from which most claimed to have benefited. The constructivist-based course assisted many adult learners to develop a sense of becoming more responsible, self-directed learners. Overall, the social constructivist style of instructional strategy seems promising to facilitate adult learning, which not only helps change RSSTs' perceptions, but also assists them to learn more collaboratively, authentic and responsible way.

Figure 3.2 The RSSTs' integrated PD theories
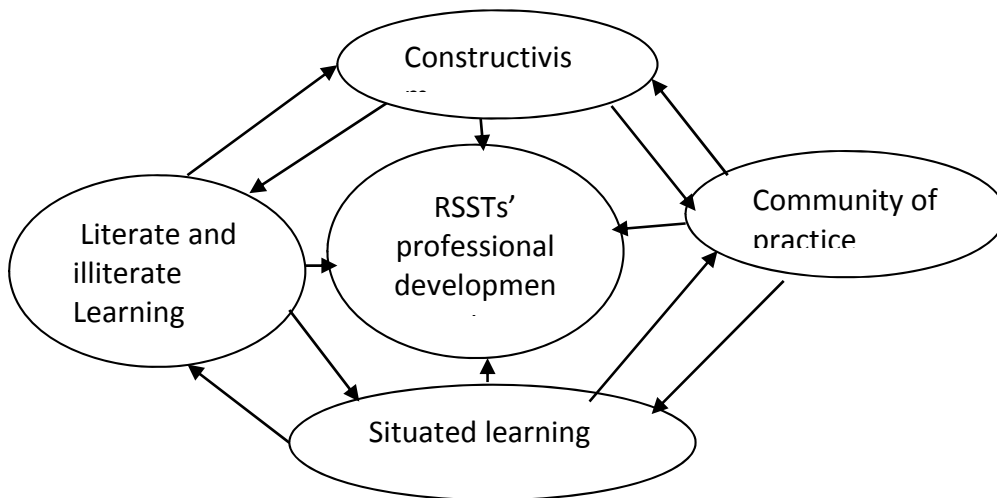
These four integrated PD theories in Figure 3.2 are interwoven or closely related because they complement each other. RSSTs learn by doing and are more interested in problem-based learning. These learners (RSSTs) need one another to teach each other since knowledge is situated. This is because teaching in RSSs is different from teaching in urban schools (Lawless, 2009). Therefore, RSSTs need other teachers who are more knowledgeable (peer, HOD, principal, and subject adviser) about the rural context to develop them as part of the WIPD.

3.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PD EFFECTIVENESS

3.4.1 Focus on teacher learning

Although RSSTs in KZN are responsible to take charge of their self development by identifying the areas in which they need to grow professionally (RSA, 2007:3), it does not explicitly explain the important role of schools in rural areas in identifying such needs (Steyn, 2009:266). In such conditions, Desimone et al. (2006:205) suggest that education leaders such as SMTs and subject advisers should find strategies to motivate teachers with poor content knowledge and skills to take up content-focused PDPs. They further suggest scaffolding PD opportunities by offering programmes targeted at RSSTs with varying levels of content knowledge and skills. Furthermore, it is therefore accepted that intensive, sustained job-embedded PD focused on the subject that RSSTs teach is more likely to produce teacher knowledge, classroom instruction and learner achievement (Wayne, Suk-Yoon, Zhu, Cronen, & Garet, 2008:470). Additionally, active learning, coherence and collective participation have been suggested to be promising best practices (Garet, Porter,

Desimone, Birman & Suk-Yoon, 2001). Another example of great specificity to guide practice is the consensus that PD should be developed into WIPDs (Gaible & Burns, 2010; Dali, 2011).

3.4.2 Commitment of teachers to PD

Teacher commitment refers to the psychological state in which they desire to learn and experiment (Van Eekelen et al., 2006:410). Their commitment and positive attitudes towards PD are crucial for the success of their professional growth (Blackmore, 2000:3). Desimone et al. (2006) maintain that teachers with more expert knowledge have more confidence and motivation to continue developing their knowledge and skills than teachers with less content knowledge. There is a tendency to underestimate the long-term commitment of PD that is required for effective change to happen (Robinson & Carrington, 2002). In this process, RSSTs develop a greater sense of collaboration, share common problems and assume greater responsibility for their own PD (Bernauer, 2002).

PDPs will be futile without teachers' whole-hearted commitment even if such programmes are well designed (Blackmore, 2000:3). Although teachers generally support effective teaching and learning, they are often unwilling to change their teaching practice on the basis of quality teaching (Desimone et al., 2006:179). Research by Desimone et al. (2006) on mathematics teachers revealed that teachers with more expert knowledge of their subject have more confidence and are motivated to further develop their knowledge and skills, while teachers with less content knowledge and skills often have no interest in PD, or may feel comfortable with their skills and knowledge of their subject. However, the responsibility of each staff member is to continually experiment, deliberately reflect on what has happened as a result of the individual or team effort, and reflect with others on the way the system operates in order to learn how to improve (Dymoke & Harrison, 2006:78). This study will also investigate whether RSSTs in KZN commit themselves to their own development.

3.5 STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP TEACHERS

3.5.1 The purpose of teachers' PDPs

The quality of education has been a major global concern for decades (Steyn, 2009:257). To address this concern many reform initiatives have focused on the quality of classroom teaching and more specifically on the teacher as a key to improving learner performance

(Knight & Wiseman, 2005:387). The effectiveness of reform initiatives depends on the quality of RSSTs and as a result the WIPD of teachers has become a major focal point of such initiatives (Desimone et al., 2006:181). Therefore, it is believed that RSSTs have the most direct, sustained contact with learners, as well as considerable control over what is taught and the climate of learning; it is reasonably assumed that teachers' knowledge, skills and dispositions are one of the most critical steps to improving learner achievement (King & Newman, 2001:86). This explains the degree of pressure exerted on teachers to be competent in the classroom, and indicates a dire need for the WIPD of teachers to meet these expectations (Steyn, 2009:257).

In addition, Munonde (2007:34) states that the purpose of PDP is to promote a learning process which will enhance the performance of individuals and the organization as a whole. This implies that personal development, career development, as well as organization development, are regarded as the purposes of RSST professional development (Munonde, 2007:34). Moreover, Smith and Desimone (2003:119) assert that PD is considered as an essential mechanism for developing teachers' content knowledge and developing their teaching practice. In addition, Fisherman, Marx and Revital (2003:645) suggest that a chief objective of PDP should be to foster changes in teacher's knowledge, belief and attitudes because these components of teacher cognition show a strong correlation to classroom practices. However, for PDPs to be successful, they must prepare RSSTs to be able to address the challenges of the grades 10-12 NCS.

3.5.2 Teacher professional development plan

A recent research by Munonde (2007:109) in Limpopo (South Africa) found that facilitators of teacher PDPs have no teacher development plan. Facilitators indicated that it is difficult to develop a teacher PD plan on their own since they work according to instructions from the province, which are usually of short notice. On the other hand, Munonde (200:110) points out that, conducting needs assessment of teachers serves as an important step in planning a PD strategy that accurately addresses the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in a particular district. However, PDPs in KZN are provided according to the DoE's needs rather than RSSTs' needs (Nkosi, 2010). This makes PDPs more irrelevant to RSSTs' expectations.

Welton (2000:133) maintains that a plan for implementation of PDP should begin with a policy document which reflects a SMT's desire to value and support staff. Munonde's (2007:

112) study indicated that principals do not have specific plan to follow when they to engage in teacher PDPs in their schools. In effective schools, the choice about teacher PDPs is allocated in the overall policy of the schools (Munonde, 2007:112).

Van der Kadenburg (in Prinsloo 2003:134-134) points out that the teacher PDP should form an integral part of the school programme, and integrated into the educational and teaching aims of the school; all stakeholders such as teachers, SMT, SGB and learners, should be actively involved in the planning and organizing of the PDP. Various methods such as peer-mentoring and coaching, subject embedded, schools and phase meetings, clusters and video-based learning should be used over a wide spectrum to meet as many needs as possible. An integrated development approach should be followed so that demands and needs of both individual and school are met; developmental activities such as further studies, workshops should take the academic and intellectual needs of the RSST into consideration; and as far as possible, aspects such as motivation and job involvement should be addressed (Van der Kadenburg in Prinsloo, 2003).

3.5.2.1 Identification of training and development needs of RSSTs

According to Quan-Balfour (2007), a teacher who is competent and knowledgeable in his or her subject can teach well and is more likely to establish a good rapport with learners, create a demographic classroom climate, maintain an orderly and learning focused environment, motivate learners and provide co-operative interaction that maximizes learning. He further points out that to be competent and knowledgeable RSSTs must receive comprehensive training and continue to learn through WIPDPs. That is the reason why one of the purposes of the IQMS is to identify both the strengths and areas of development for teachers to draw up a professional growth plan (Nkambule, 2010:5). According to Barnett (2006:2), the purpose of teacher appraisal is to provide an opportunity for teachers to receive feedback and to be recognized for their skills, as well as to assess areas for additional growth. The IQMS policy further assumes that most teachers recognize the need for, and responsibility to improve themselves professionally (DoE, 2009b:17). However, the IQMS is failing in developing teachers (Lubisi, 2006; Nkambule, 2010).

According to Lee (2005:40), PDPs should be differentiated to meet teachers' individual needs, since their professional growth occurs when PDPs acknowledge their needs. Mewborn and Huberty (2004) identify teachers' needs that need to be addressed in PDPs: firstly, PDP

should be designed for teachers who teach particular grades (grades 10-12); secondly, PDPs have to be sustained, contextualized and relevant to teachers' classroom practice; and thirdly, PDPs should be site-based so that teachers understand their learners, curriculum, and their school structure (Mewborn & Huberty, 2004:2). Needs-based PDPs are supported in the belief that SMTs could monitor and evaluate RSSTs and decide what kind of PDPs they need and then guide them in aligning programmes that fit teachers needs (Desimone et al., 2006). Additionally, a needs assessment study by Baid and Rowsey (in Zacharia et al. 2009:83) found that teachers were most interested in learners' motivation, obtaining instructional materials, learning to use computers, and in updating their own personal knowledge in subjects they teach. However, performing clerical tasks, writing lesson plans, communicating with parents, and administering tests were the least pressing needs for teachers (Zacharia et al., 2009: 83).

According to Quan-Balfour (2007), teachers' PDPs in South Africa are too general. In many cases, PDPs do not take into consideration the local contexts and the needs of individual schools particularly, RSSs. For instance, the needs of RSSTs are not being met like those of their urban counterparts (Lyons, 2008). Lee (2004) believes that the lack of motivation in teacher development might be due to the fact that PDPs are designed to cater for the masses in the district rather than appealing to specific needs of RSSTs. The latter can be one of the reasons why RSSs' performance in KZN is poor.

However, a study by Hlongwane (2008:14) in KZN revealed that to identify the teachers' grades 10-12 NCS implementation problems both schools used formal meetings, informal meetings, learners' results and learners' complaints. In meetings, teachers' needs were reported by teachers and discussed by the SMTs and teachers. Class visits were not conducted in both schools to identify development needs. The HOD of the investigated RSS stated that as the SMT members, they did not believe in class visits since class visits are not the only way to identify RSSTs' development needs (Hlongwane, 2008). Another study by Mestry, Hendricks and Bisschoff (2009:482) in South Africa found that observation of lessons were not conducted. This correlates with DoE (2009b) argument that classroom observation or supervision is not undertaken in many schools in South Africa. SADTU has disagreed with individual classroom observation on the grounds that teachers of poor struggling schools particularly RSSs, with difficult working conditions and demanding school policies such as grades 10-12 NCS, CASS and paperwork, are not backed with

sufficient support from the DoE (Mestry et al., 2009). In such a situation, RSSTs' needs are not assessed and this could be the reason why PDPs are facilitator-based rather than teacher-based. This is supported by Munonde (2007:107) who found that PD facilitators did not engage teachers in a needs analysis to find out what teachers within the district require.

3.5.2.2 Implementation of the training and development needs of RSSTs

Implementation of the training and development needs deals with an action plan, particularly after the RSST has identified his or her strengths and weaknesses in terms of preferred learning PDPs. This is because teacher PDPs are successful when teachers are interested to learn new instructional practices and volunteer to participate as opposed to being required to participate (Duke in Laughridge, 2011:36). These effective teacher PDPs are aimed at the improvement of learner performance, involving RSSTs determining the focus of their learning and providing them with learning opportunities that are school-based, continuous and supported, together with information which is facilitating theoretical understanding and collaborated problem-solving (Todorova & Osburg, 2010:1). Effective PDPs involve RSSTs in authentic problems related to teaching and learning, deepen RSSTs' pedagogical skills and include opportunities for practice, research and reflection (Todorova & Osburg, 2010). Furthermore, Guskey (in Steyn 2009:119) suggests that PDPs must be contextualized for the school and must extend teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge and skills related to a particular topic. This is to ensure that RSSTs know and are able to teach their subjects using teaching and learning methods such as learner-centred and group work methods.

The duration of PD workshops requires time for collaborative goal setting, instruction sessions, and time for practice and planning (Guskey, 2006). Research indicates that activities of longer duration have more subject area content-focus, more opportunities for active learning and more coherence with teachers' existing beliefs and practices than shorter activities (Lefever-Davis, Wilson & Moore, 2003). Lee (2005) contends that the duration influences depth of teacher change. However, the challenge in South Africa is that the main PD model for teachers is still one-shot programmes which often do not emphasise subject content or pedagogical skills (Mewborn & Huberty 2004; Desimone et al., 2006).

3.5.2.3 Monitoring of RSSTs' PDPs

Supervision of PDPs by the subject advisers and SMTs consists of checking what has been planned has happened and this can be carried out in a wide range of ways, by reminding

RSSTs and asking for progress reports. In the ongoing approach to teacher PD, the importance of feedback to teachers on their development and the impact of learners' performance is widely supported (King & Newman, 2001; Lam & Peng, 2003). This includes creating opportunities and professional understanding which will have far greater and more beneficial effects (Budd & Early, 2004). The RSSTs need to know whether they are making progress (Steyn, 2010b:162). However, the challenge in South Africa is that most PDPs are brief workshops and conferences that do not allow follow-up sessions (Malesa, 2007; Richardson in Steyn, 2010b). However, WIPDPs can be a solution for effective development of teachers (Dali, 2011).

3.6 TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODELS

3.6.1 Community of practice model of teacher PDP

The teacher CoP is a term that describes a group of people in a professional environment come together to share experiences and expertise (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). Moreover, George Pol (in Schlager, Fusco & Schunk, 2002:2) describes CoP as more than community learners, but a community of practice and also a community that learns. In it, colleagues especially RSSTs are committed to jointly develop better practices. More importantly, Barak (2006) considers learning as a social process. In the process, RSST learning takes place in interaction with others such as colleagues, learners, SMTs, parents and district officials. The CoP in KZN rural secondary schools are clusters where RSSTs meet to discuss issues related to the specific subjects such as the content, teaching methods and assessments including CASS, tests and examinations (Hendricks, 2008; Hlongwane, 2008).

However, within these communities, there is no clear boundary between developing skills and developing new identities as leaders in a field (Vavasseur & MacGregor, 2008:519). Both can occur as the community interacts (Barab & Duffy, 2000). In other words, RSSTs in the clusters learn together by focusing on problems that are directly related to their work (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). Through CoP which are clusters in KZN, rural secondary school teachers can become less isolated and more inclined to discuss new ideas, can solve problems that arise concerning the new curriculum and can form support systems to foster ideas (Vavasseur & MacGregor, 2008:519). In this sense, interrelationship among RSSTs is developed to enhance the development of job satisfaction. However, one might argue whether this model is succeeding in KZN rural secondary schools because of their geographical

isolation. This study will therefore find out whether school clusters in KZN are succeeding or not.

3.6.2 The cascade teacher PD model

The cascade model for "multiplier" is popular for reaching many participants in a short time (Leu 2004). The cascade model transmits the knowledge or information from the top to the lower stratified groups of teachers. This consequently entails training the trainer to ensure that message "flows down" from expert and specialists eventually to the teachers (Ono & Ferreira, 2010:61-62). Similarly, in the cascade model, one RSST or two RSSTs from the school receive standardized teacher PD via training-based model and return to their schools to replicate the training that they have received, serving a champion teachers or vanguard team (Gaible & Burns, 2010:6). Although the cascade teacher PDP is potentially tremendous, weaknesses in the approach may limit its effectiveness. According to Gaible and Burns (2010), factors that impede change in teachers' instructional practices include workshops that typically focus on helping champion teachers learn new techniques as users, without helping them build the skills they need as PD providers, and strong challenges for champion teachers due to lack of both PDPs for SMTs, and programmes that motivate teachers to participate in PD activities.

Champion teachers (selected teachers who have attended the workshop with an intention to disseminate information in their schools after that workshop) may lack the leadership, facilitation skills and mastery of the new techniques that they may need to guide their colleagues effectively (Gaible & Burns, 2010:6). The cascade approach can be an effective strategy to transmit messages about aspects of educational reform (Leu, 2004:2). However, the intended message does not cascade down to lower levels without the appropriate mechanisms and support to ensure multiplication when transmitted to the next level; chances are high that the crucial information may be watered down or misinterpreted (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). In support, Ono and Ferreira (2010:61) criticize the cascade model of teachers' development that it was designed and operated under the same paradigm of teacher PDPs criticized in developed countries in which teachers were passive receivers of knowledge.

Leu (2004:2) points out that the cascade model for teacher PD is particularly ineffective under the circumstances of present reform programmes. Shezi's (2008:73) study in KZN

confirms that the cascade workshops downplayed teachers' experiences as their role was to listen 'attentively' to what is being 'delivered' to them. These terms signal that power was exercised in a linear, one-dimensional manner within the cascade where trainees perceived their trainers as 'experts' and them as 'passive' recipients. There was no dialogue between teachers and trainers (Shezi, 2008). It shows that PD through the use of cascade model is not an effective PD model because it does not necessarily meet the RSSTs' needs. It fails to deal with individually-guided development of teachers to prepare them individually, to deal with diversities and teachers' contexts (Shezi, 2008). Surprisingly, subject advisers in KZN always use cascade model when developing teachers.

3.6.3 The site-based teacher PD model

Many countries, including South Africa, have developed or are developing school-based or cluster-based in-service programmes as an important means to updating RSSTs' skills and providing professional support (Hlongwane, 2008; Gaible & Burns, 2010). It is hoped that site-based approaches will be more cost-effective, make better use of local resources, respond to RSSTs' immediate needs and provide opportunities for on-site practice and reflection (MacNeil, 2004:3). Moreover, this approach has been used to good effect in many developing countries, and in developed countries as well in many poor countries. Gaible and Burns (2010:7) maintain that the site-based PDPs often take place in schools, clusters, or teacher training colleges. In the process, RSSTs work with local facilitators or master teachers to engage in more gradual processes of learning, and building mastery of pedagogy, content and technology skills. Site-based PD often focuses on specific, situational problems that individual teachers encounter as they try to implement the new techniques such as teaching and learning methods and assessment methods.

One of the site-based PD models is the video-based self-regulated learning (VBSRL) model that has been proven to be one of the more effective learning models (Jadin, Gruber & Batinic, 2009; Singh, 2010). Unfortunately, Masingila and Doerr (2002) point out that research literature dealing with teacher learning from video case studies is limited. Brophy (2004) notes that relatively little systematic research has been conducted on the feasibility and effectiveness of the various uses of video for teacher PD purposes. However, Davis and Krajcik (2005) support the use of video-based learning in teacher PDPs. Similarly, Jaworski (in Towers and Rapke, 2011) supports the use of videotapes for teachers' PDPs.

According to Colestock and Sherin (2009), videos could serve as a good model of inquiry that allows teachers to review rich contents that include various aspects of teaching, such as pedagogy, climate, management, classroom characteristics, and learner characteristics. In the process, teachers can apply different strategies in interpreting videos and subsequently develop their professional view of teaching through their interpretation and discussion (Colestock, & Sherin, 2009). Videos allow teacher-learner interaction through modelling and developing problem-solving skills through observing the case in the video playback (Kpanja in Tang, Tang & Wettasinghe, 2011:449). Video recording and playback is a useful technology to improve reflection in teaching (Albrecht and Carnes, 2006). Video-enabled-and-video-oriented discussion followed by critical reflection, can help RSSTs to identify areas for improvement in their professional growth (Fernandez, 2010). As a result, RSSTs could develop an increased awareness of their instructional strengths and weaknesses by observing the video (Tang et al., 2011:449). The use of videos can allow RSSTs to have evidence-informed discussion and this could foster reflective practices among them (Fernandez, 2010). This study will therefore also investigate whether VBSRL is part of teachers WIPDPs in KZN rural secondary schools.

Fortunately, the South African DoE has introduced the teacher laptop initiative with the aim to ensure that every teacher is able to use a laptop for teaching and learning purposes (Khumalo, 2010). Teacher trade unions supported this initiative that is helping to ensure that teachers improve their teaching methods by using computer video-based learning (VBL) in their classrooms. These teachers will be provided with a monthly allowance to cover the costs of laptop purchase and internet connectivity. Mthunzi Mbewana (in Khumalo 2010) a KZN secondary school teacher, commented that teachers will be able to share ideas by watching videos from laptops, and learn from each other on the methods that other teachers use in their schools to improve standards of learning, especially for underperforming RSSs. However, five hundred million rand that was budgeted for the teacher laptop project by the DoE for 2009/2010 financial year was spent on teachers' salaries (Bauer, 2011). Therefore, the teacher laptop initiative is yet to be implemented.

3.6.4 Self-regulated learning PD model

Self-regulated learning (SRL) is necessary to be undertaken by RSSTs. Researchers have indicated that a highly effective approach to learning associated with success in and beyond school is SRL (Bail, Zhang & Tachiyama, 2008; Singh, 2010). However, findings on the effect of SRL are not always conclusive (Moseki & Schulze, 2010:357). This is because some researchers have found no significant improvement in various SRL processes after experimental groups were trained in SRL (Hu, 2007; Lemcool, 2007). However, in self-regulated professional development (SRPD) approaches, teachers are asked to determine their own PD goals and select activities that will help them attain their goals (Gaible & Burns, 2010:9). They further state that self-regulated PDPs (SRPDPs) can involve watching video examples of classroom, reading books of field of study, keeping journals, performing case studies, taking online courses and observing classes taught by colleagues. Furthermore, many teachers participate in informal SRPD by seeking out experienced colleagues for advice, for example searching for lesson plan on the internet (Gaible & Burn, 2010:9).

Cardelle-Alawar, Irwin and Sanz de Acedo Lizarraga (2010:294) point out that teachers' adaptation in the curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS) requires self-regulated commitment to act according to the new policy's educational mandates. Within this context, RSST identity can be defined from a cognitive-motivational perspective as psychological attachment to the teaching profession. SRL is the inner-self (Cardelle-Alawar et al., 2010:294). This core of 'self' is mediated by certain characteristics and expectations from a set of standards such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-regulated that influence RSST behaviour (Cardelle-Alawar, Irwin & Sanz de Acedo Lizarrago, 2007). Additionally, Duckworth, Ackerman, McGregor, Salter and Vorhaus (2009:iii) point out that SRPD for teachers includes both affective capacities: moods, feelings and emotions; and cognitive capacities: beliefs perceptions and knowledge. Learning and attainment are best understood when we acknowledge the interaction between affective and cognitive processes. SRL also includes metacognitive skills (Flawell in Duchworth et al., 2009:iii), that is, understanding one's own cognitive skills, including memory, attention and problem solving. In order for metacognitive to be effective, RSSTs need to show a willingness to learn and practice. Setting realistic goals and monitoring progress towards these goals involves self-efficacy, that is, believing in one's ability to organize and carry out the actions required to achieve one's goal (Bandura in Duckworth et al., 2009:iii).

Lei, Wang and Tang (2002) believe that high achievers' self-regulation ability is higher than those of a low achiever. In the process of SRL, teachers need to set their goals, make their learning plans, choose their learning strategies, monitor their learning processes, evaluate their learning outcomes and suppress interference (Cheng, 2011:2). This is because SRL is a complex construct embedded in social cognitive theory, which highlights the importance of social influence on teacher's behaviour (Mourad, 2009). The conceptualization of SRL is formulated within this model which explains how the teacher's competence develops initially from social sources of academic skills and subsequently shifts to self sources in a series of levels: internal standards, self-reinforcement and self-efficacy (Cardelle-Alawar et al., 2010:294). This theory is rooted within the notion that RSSTs are agents proactively engaged in their own development. RSSTs are viewed as both products and producers of their own environment and of their social systems (LeBlank & Gallavan, 2009). This focuses on how teachers acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies and beliefs by observing others. The literature has recognized that those RSSTs' self-regulatory processes are critical for effective teaching (De la Fuente, 2008). In order to address SRL for teachers, the DoE is offering bursaries to under-qualified teachers and unqualified teachers to study NPDE, BEd and ACE for those teachers who wish to specialize in their subject field through HEIs (Mukeredzi, 2009). Teachers study these qualifications on a part-time basis. This is to promote teachers' SRL. This research will therefore investigate whether teachers are engaged in SRPDPs in KZN rural secondary schools.

3.6.5 Peer-mentoring, coaching and tutoring model

Coaching is defined as the practice of proving deliberative support to another person, particularly the teacher to help him/her to clarify and to achieve goals (Silver, Lochmiller, Copland & Tripps, 2009). Moreover, coaching is an enabling personal and professional growth leading to service improvement (Brittain & Potter, 2009:285). Therefore, peer-coaching is a systemic process of collaboration in which one RSST gives feedback to another teacher (Brown in Bagheridoust & Jajarmi, 2009:4). According to Brown, Baker, Fouts and Stroh (2005), peer-coaching is developmental in nature and involves specific processes such as observations, conferences, personal dialogues and collaboration. Additionally, Bagheridoust & Jajarmi, 2009:4) point out that peer-coaching, thus, is a process during which

teachers observe each other and later meet to discuss what they observed and provide constructive feedback on what they have seen. This is supported by Joyce and Showers (in Prince, Snowden and Mathews 2010:1) who showed that teachers who were involved in coaching sessions, whether experts or participants, were more likely to implement ideas into classroom practice than those who did not participate in peer-coaching. This is because coaching relationship is about sharing classroom practice such as planning together and sharing experiences. Foltos (in Prince et al., 2010) points out that research shows that a peer-coaching PD model meets teachers' needs and is effective at shaping classroom practice.

Brittain and Potter (2009:285) describe coaching as "typically more task oriented and focused on work situation than mentoring, which can be a more personal relationship involving support and general career development." This emanates from the idea that peer-tutoring may be viewed as a helping relationship in which two individuals of similar age and or experience come together in the pursuit of fulfilling some combination of functions that are career related such as information sharing and career strategizing; and psychological such as confirmation, emotional support, personal feedback and friendship (Terrion & Leonard, 2007:150). However, Vavasseur and MacGregor (2008:519) argue that peer-mentoring or coaching is one of the most traditional ways to gain PD for teachers. Peer-mentoring is a collaboration approach PD with teacher leaders such as SMT members and senior teachers if possible who are assuming the role of mentor. They add that peer-tutoring requires teachers' time to collaborate within a school day.

In addition, Rasa (2010:51) contends that peer-tutoring invests a one-to-one approach between colleagues to facilitate the development of either one or both teachers involved in the process. Learning from peers is often linked to collaborative and cooperative learning as it shares features in common with these strategies, such as active learning, reciprocal and helping behaviours among groups (McLoughlin, Brady, Lee & Russell, 2007:3). This PD model will be effective where there are RSSTs and SMT members with relevant grades 10-12 NCS expertise. However, in RSSs where there is shortage of expertise among the staff members in KZN, and therefore this model is doubtful of success (Dala, 2009). This study will therefore investigate the role played by peer-coaching and mentoring in RSSTs' professional development in KZN.

3.6.6 Content-based model

The problem of school improvement is expertise that can only be improved through serious systematic and sustained in investment in increasing the knowledge base of teachers (Darling-Hammond in Vavasseur & MacGregor, 2008:518). It is a matter of common sense that RSSTs need to know the subjects they teach since there are many (nine thousand and three) unqualified and under-qualified teachers in KZN (Dala, 2009; Mukeredzi, 2009; Lees, 2010). To be effective in teaching their subjects such as science, mathematics and English, RSSTs must understand the content that their learners are learning (Gold-Schmidt & Phelps, 2007:4). An ACE qualification can be a solution to improve RSSTs' content knowledge. ACE is a professional qualification which enables teachers to develop their competencies (DoE in Aluko, 2009). This qualification is offered by HEIs in South Africa. This qualification prepares teachers to improve knowledge and skills in their specific subjects (Aluko, 2009). As RSST quality is a key determinant of learner achievement, a strong content knowledge is crucial to effective teaching (Chester, 2010:2). Successful teaching of all learners to reach, for example, high mathematics and science learning requires a depth of content knowledge, conceptual understanding, and facility with core skills that exceed the level of many middle school teachers. Therefore, teachers' WIPD is a key strategy for upgrading the skills of the existing work force, particularly for RSSTs in KZN who are not highly qualified (Dala, 2009; Chester, 2010).

Teacher educators and policy-makers who are concerned with teacher quality and preparation have long recognized the importance of teachers having basic mastery of content (Gold-Schmidt & Phelps, 2007:5). Unfortunately, teachers' WIPD, typically offered as a detached workshop activity that is not connected to teacher's pedagogy or to learner achievement, which is mostly used in South Africa, has not produced desired outcomes (Glazer & Hannafin, 2006). Therefore, a long-term commitment is required to support the development of teachers' content knowledge and improvement of their technical skills (NCTAF in Vavasseur & MacGregor, 2008:517). It is therefore the duty of the WIPDP facilitators or mentors to ensure that KZN rural secondary school teachers are developing in the subjects they teach. This can be done by monitoring the RSSTs' progress in a particular subject for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS. However, a study by Hlongwane (2008) in KZN found that SMT members were not monitoring teachers' progress in both rural and urban secondary schools investigated. The SMTs believed that teachers knew their teaching

responsibility, and therefore, they needed no close supervision. This study will therefore explore which models among those that are provided in this chapter are mostly used in PDPs and which PD models that RSSTs prefer and why.

3.6.7 Integration of PD models

Figure 3.3 Rural secondary school teachers' WIPD models
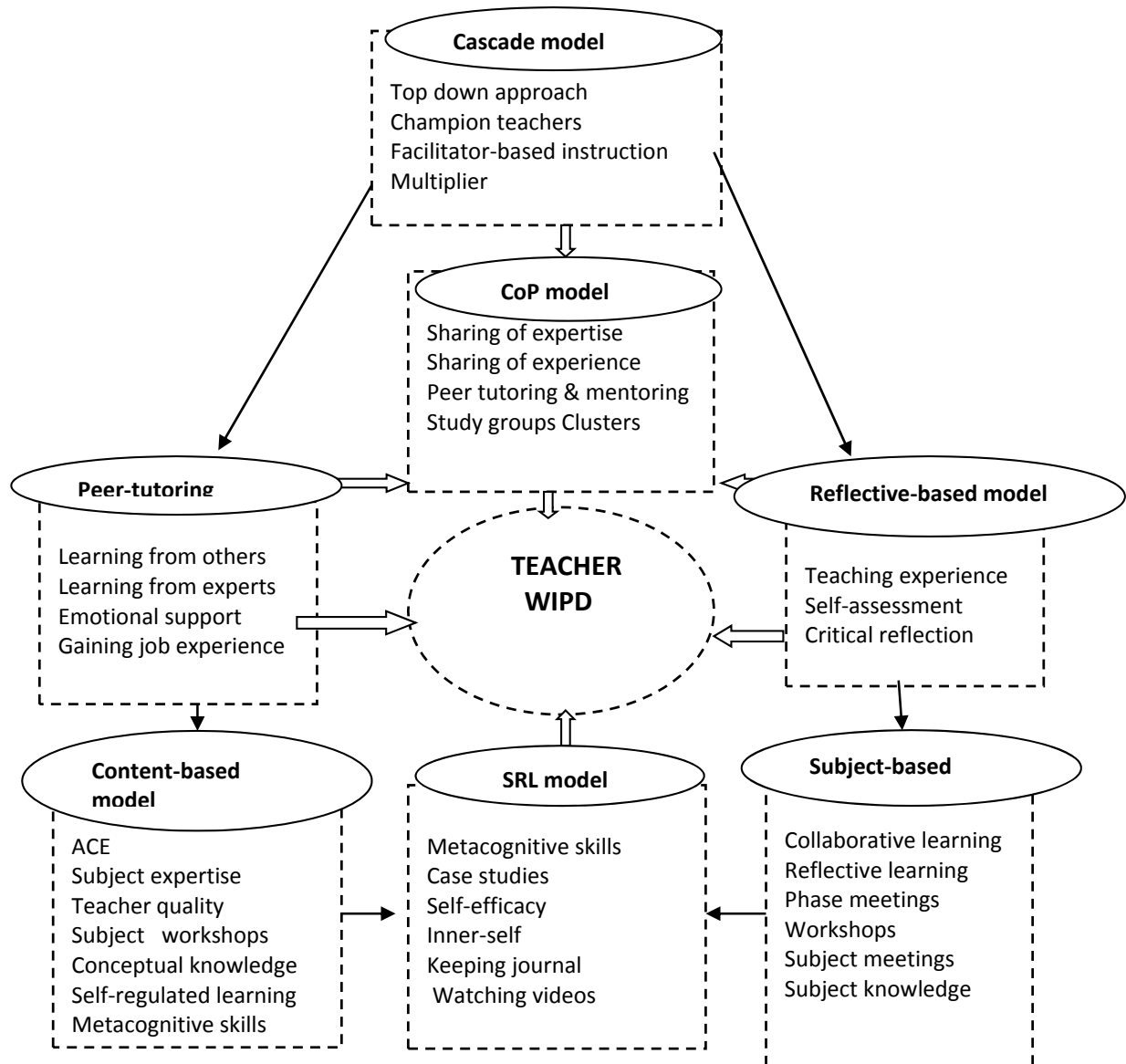
The teachers' WIPD models in this study, place the cascade model at the top of the Figure 3.3 since any curriculum change is planned and developed by experts who have to cascade information to district level then to school level. Thereafter, other WIPD models can be conducted depending on RSSTs' needs to develop their competencies. All WIPD models operate at the same level except the cascade model to make a contribution to RSST professional development. Community of practice in this integrated model stays on the

opposite side to the SRL model as if they have no relationship. However, the aim is to show that for effective RSST development, RSSTs themselves need to be motivated to embark on WIPDPs without being pushed to do so. This study will therefore investigate which PD models can be used to develop RSSTs' professional competencies.

3.7 SCHOOL-BASED STRUCTURES AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

3.7.1 School management team

The SMTs are expected to play a pivotal role in facilitating capacity building among their staff so that they are able to implement the grades 10-12 NCS (Mkhwanazi, 2007:2). For this capacity building to occur and flourish, the SMTs need to be conversant with all dimensions and intricacies of the new curriculum. Mkhwanazi (2007:2) further stresses that the SMT is expected to be at the core of conducting developmental meetings. As Ndou (2008:38) points out, the key role of the SMT is to encourage members of the staff to reflect upon, debate and agree on collective interpretations of how the grades 10-12 NCS should be taught and the range of experiences which learners should be offered. The SMTs should offer PD support for individual members of the teaching team and should have the ability to lead staff development (Ndou, 2008). Similarly, Mkhwanazi (2007:4) argues that teachers are expected to implement the new curriculum and the SMTs are expected to provide clarity, support and also monitor the process of curriculum implementation. Thus, the RSSTs are the ones to be professionally developed in order to cope with changes in the education system, and the SMTs will only succeed if the RSSTs are competent (Mkhwanazi, 2007). Malesa (2007:49) adds that support may be given in terms of restructuring the curriculum team to strengthen it, bringing in an expert to act as a consultant, reassigning roles and responsibilities within the existing system, and providing time for INSET.

Unfortunately, the SMTs are challenged to show through practice and support how they are able to extend broader management actions to support classroom management (Malesa, 2007; Hlongwane, 2008; Nkambule, 2010). Mkhwanazi's (2007:42) study in KZN also revealed similar findings that the only role the SMTs played was limited to encouraging RSSTs to attend workshops that are organized by the DoE. This indicates that the SMTs did not prepare teachers themselves for the implementation of grades 10-12 NCS. What has aggravated the challenge of the capacity building of the teachers by the SMTs was that there were no SMTs' PDPs organized by the DoE (Mkhwanazi, 2007:42). In support, a study by Hlongwane (2008:

12) in KZN found that the only training the SMTs received at Ilembe District (KZN) was during the grades 10-12 NCS orientation workshop for teachers. Malesa (2007) found that SMTs did not offer support and guidance to teachers because they themselves were unsure of the new curriculum and they lacked necessary skills to help teachers.

3.7.1.1 Head of department

The DoE (in Hlongwane 2008:4) provides the core duty of the HOD as to provide and coordinate guidance on the latest ideas on approaches to the subject, teaching and assessment techniques and to evaluate teaching and learning aids. Similarly, the DoE-SACE (2008:10) points out that HODs are required to guide their staff members on the latest ideas and approaches to their own teaching and to contribute to all PDPs of their colleagues. However, the problem is that HODs are not developed in these areas (Hlongwane, 2008:12). Motaboli's (2008:251) study in Free State confirms that 80% of HODs indicated that the only training they had been offered was generic. The emphasis in the training was to explain new curriculum logic, the White Paper regarding constant curriculum changes, and not what the learners need in the class. This is supported by Hlongwane's (2008) research in KZN that there were no SMTs' (HODs are members of SMTs) PDPs conducted. The only workshop the SMTs attended was during the grades 10-12 NCS orientation workshop specifically for teachers. In such situations, HODs may lack pedagogical and subject knowledge which can negatively affect teachers' WIPD.

Makhoba (2003) points out that the HODs have to ensure that teachers plan their schemes of work (learning schedules) at the beginning of each year. This is essential for classroom management. Secondly, HODs have to receive proper guidance for formative and summative assessment practices so that they can in turn train their subordinates. Thirdly, HODs have to ensure that quality of teaching and learning improves by coaching RSSTs to use current methods and procedures in their respective classrooms. The HODs have to ensure that the grades 10-12 NCS is implemented appropriately. This could be achieved through mentoring and guiding RSSTs in their day to day planning, teaching and assessing learners (Nxumalo, 2009:4). However, it becomes more difficult for HODs to conduct teacher development activities effectively in RSSs since there are few learners; consequently the number of teachers is few (Monk, 2007). This in turn, can result in HODs having a full teaching workload which can overload them. This can lead to HODs' failing to perform their duty of developing RSSTs in their subject departments.

A recent study by Nxumalo (2009:43-44) in Pietermaritzburg (KZN) that investigated HODs' roles in implementing the NCS at grade 10-12 level found that the HODs' role is to ensure that teachers cover the LOs and ASs according to the policy document. HODs monitor teachers' work by checking the lesson plan preparation and unpacking LOs and ASs, facilitating, moderating and utilizing the expertise among teachers, thereby promoting teacher leadership. Another study by Gulston (2010;69) found that HODs conducted subject meetings between once per week and four times per term. These meetings facilitated discussions and issues such as lesson planning, preparation, different ways of assisting teachers with learning difficulties, educational excursions, assessment attendance of workshops and reading of DoE circulars. These studies show that HODs know their duties and responsibilities in terms of teachers' PD. Such HODs can be effective in KZN rural secondary schools as long as they are provided with sufficient expertise and opportunities to develop RSSTs in their subject departments.

3.7.1.2 School principal

Effective leadership means that principals are engaged in PD and collect evidence that PDPs of RSSTs have taken place (Dymoke & Harrison, 2006:80). Effective leadership involves a commitment to identifying the needs of teachers and provides appropriate PDPs to meet these needs (Lee, 2005:46). The DoE (in Hlongwane 2008:4) provides one of the core-duties of principals as to give guidance, supervise and offer professional advice on the work and performances of all teachers in the school. Furthermore, the DoE-SACE (2008:10) points out that principals are required to take responsibility for the development of staff training programmes such as school-based, school-focused and externally-directed PDPs. Similarly, Gulston (2010:31) argues that principals as the leaders of their teachers should initiate the creation of a positive climate for PDPs. This is to ensure that effective teaching and learning is taking place in their schools.

According to Steyn (2008:26), principals need to play a key role in teacher PD by identifying teachers' needs, motivating and supporting their development and working towards a collaborated culture with shared values and norms. PDPs in schools are generally successful when principals play a key role in their effective implementation, as well as in sustaining RSSTs' learning and growth (Steyn, 2008). However, research by Munonde, (2007:33) found that principals have inadequate knowledge about WIPD of teachers. They did not realize that

it was important to set procedures to follow in order to provide PD of a high standard to teachers. The latter can be one of the reasons why PDPs do not succeed in our schools.

The purpose of the principal's instructional leadership is to bring about effective teaching and learning in schools (Kobola, 2007:33). Mazibuko (2003:18) concurs that the principal as an instructional leader should assist teachers to alter, rearrange and reinterpret the curriculum. However, the study by Malada (2004) found that teachers were not satisfied with the PD support they received from their schools. According to these teachers, principals should be workshopped for sustainability and regular teacher PD support and monitoring in schools and in the classrooms. Kobola (2007:33) recommends that the principal should organize an effective instructional programme and create a positive climate. The principal is expected to provide curriculum guidance for the teachers; inspire and energize them, motivate and mediate educational policies to teachers, mentor and support them and monitor progress (Mason, 2004:21).

3.8 DISTRICT AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

District officials have to ensure that all teachers are clear about policies (the grades 10-12 NCS) and are also in possession of the policy documents as their teaching references (Bantwini & Diko, 2011:230). However, some schools and teachers could not possess these documents since some of the curriculum advisers cannot provide them (Schreuder, 2008). That is the reason why many RSSTs say that subject advisers cannot help them to teach better and that all subject advisers are able to do is check how many teaching tasks have been done. Schreuder (2008) further argues that not many of the subject advisers have actually taught in the grades 10-12 NCS. Schreuder's contention is that curriculum advisers should spend a year or six months back in schools actually teaching (Schreuder, 2008). This is because curriculum advisers need more classroom experience for effective RSST development in the grade 10-12 NCS.

In an attempt to defend curriculum advisers, Motshekga (2009:8) points out that curriculum advisers are few in number and that is the reason why they fail to effectively and adequately develop teachers as effective CWs. If that is a fact, the blame has to be shifted to the national DoE and KZNDoE for failing to hire sufficient curriculum advisers. However, research by Mestry et al. (2009:482) found that support given to struggling teachers by district officials is rarely implemented as expected because of the teachers' negative attitudes and commitment

to improve. Investigated teachers in turn, blamed the district and the poor quality of district subject advisers who failed to provide PD to meet their needs (Mestry et al., 2009). One of the reasons why curriculum advisers provide poor PDPs is that trade unions recommend their ineffective candidates to be promoted to advisers' positions despite their poor behaviour, performance and commitment (Zengele, 2009:ii). The latter is supported by (Motshekga's (2009:8) report that there are subject advisers who have received less training on the curriculum than teachers themselves, and have not had experience of actually teaching the grades 10-12 NCS. Similarly, research by Steyn (2010b:171) found that PDPs offered by subject advisers are a waste of time and money. Such PDPs are often a repetition of what teachers already do and know. Teachers criticized subject advisers who lacked the necessary skills and subject expertise (Steyn, 2010b:171). It is therefore disappointing that people without experience and required expertise are expected to develop teachers. The question is why such people were hired as there are well-experienced teachers with adequate relevant expertise in their subjects and in the grades 10-12 NCS. The latter is supported by Steyn's (2010b:171) findings in South Africa that teachers preferred knowledgeable and competent PD facilitators, who are top achievers, experts, and subject specialists to provide district PDPs.

The role of subject advisers is very crucial and tough since they are expected to act as intermediaries between the grades 10-12 NCS and its implementation (Motshekga, 2009:8). However, teachers do not perceive subject advisers as effective PD facilitators and they only see their role primarily as technicist who always demands unnecessary administrative tasks and 'box ticking' (Motshekga, 2009:8). Another research by Somo (2007:80) found that after the district facilitators have conducted teacher PDPs, they do not follow-up to complement the PD provided. All teachers in the study felt that facilitators should make regular follow-ups after any teacher PDP provided to them to find out whether they implement the grades 10-12 NCS accordingly. In addition, Du Plessis (2005:89) points out that prior to the training of teachers in the new curriculum, the district officials first have to manage the change that takes place in the minds of teachers when a new curriculum is being introduced. This is to ensure that RSSTs teach accordingly and problems are identified and immediately resolved. This study will therefore also explore whether PD strategies offered by subject advisers address RSSTs' specific needs in the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS.

3.9 IQMS

The final agreement of a new teacher appraisal system, namely the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS), was reached in 2003 (Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC), 2003). The tenets of IQMS are underpinned by the purpose of a quality management system, which is to determine competence and assess strengths and areas for development (DoE, 2003:4). The IQMS provides PD support and opportunities for development to ensure teachers' continuous growth (DoE, 2003:4). During the IQMS, theoretical evaluation is achieved by identifying strengths and areas for development for teachers (Nkambule, 2010:19). In the IQMS, teachers are responsible to develop each other. This is based on the idea that teachers have subject expertise to develop one another (Biputh, 2008:67). However, Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern and Keeling, (2009:10) point out that, in practice, the teacher evaluation system devalues the instructional effectiveness by generating the performance information that reflects virtually no variation among teachers in any way. In support, Nkambule (2010:19) argues that teacher evaluation systems do not differentiate between performance and under performance; instead, they create an impression that teachers' performance is the same, which is not true. This has led Lubisi (2006:8) to complain about KZN teachers' scores in the IQMS that:

> *The results of both the self and peer evaluation told us that almost all our teachers are good teachers. Of course if one is a good teacher, one does not need development. You and I know that this picture is clearly wrong, and comes nowhere near the reality of education system.*

This is supported by Dhlamini (2009:14) that the administration of IQMS files is like window dressing in order to submit fabricated evidence to DoE. Biputh (2008:71) believes that this scenario is not a shortcoming of the IQMS model per se, but rather as a result of shortcomings in its implementation at school level. The reason for cheating scores can be caused by that teachers will be held responsible if they do not deliver according to the agreed and set standards (Heystek, Nieman, Van Rooyen, Masoge & Bipath, 2008:57). However, the main objective of IQMS is not for teachers to get higher scores but to ensure quality education for all and to improve the quality of teaching and learning in South African schools (Gulston, 2010:26).

Research by Kanyane (2008:106) on teachers' attitudes towards IQMS revealed that IQMS is an effective PD strategy that could improve and maintain high standards of teaching and learning. However, Coleman and Earley (2005:195) mentioned that considerable time and

more paperwork are required when a performance appraisal is implemented. This is supported by Kimball and Milanowski's (2009:48) findings that teachers experienced their evaluation as complex and time consuming. Furthermore, Bischoff and Mathye (2009:401) assert that the IQMS leads to a paper-driven system that does not appear practical to RSSs since they have few resources. This has led SADTU to disagree with individual teacher class visits for poor struggling teachers in RSSs with difficult working conditions (Mestry et al., 2009:482).

In response to the teachers' outcry about the challenges of the IQMS, the DoE itself has commissioned Class Act (2007) and the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU) (2009) to conduct the implementation review of the IQMS. These two reviews have discovered various challenges experienced by teachers, such as conflicting roles of school development teams (SDTs) and SMTs, lack of human capacity, subjective ratings of scores, and lack of training of individuals and structures (SMTs, SDTs and development support groups (DSGs)) responsible for IQMS implementation (Class Act, 2007; NEEDU, 2009). In the similar vein, Mathye (2006:85) argues that because of contextual factors that challenge teachers, the authenticity parties will be affected by many factors such as intimidation, friendship and hatred. For instance, if an appraiser and a DSG member are friends, they simple agree on scores in their interaction, despite a clear definition of a peer in the IQMS document, and no development aspects will be identified.

The Class Act (2007:74) revealed that the IQMS initial training provided by the DoE was too inadequate. Similarly, DoE (2008) reported that the advocacy training was insufficient to equip teachers with knowledge and skills necessary to training the rest of staff members in their schools. In addition, Mbonyane (in Mestry et al. (2009:476-477) argues that the problem is that most teachers underwent a once-off IQMS training. The cascade model of training, the lack of insight into the IQMS by facilitators, the untimely implementation of the IQMS, the top-down approach of the DoE, the poor leadership of principals and SMTs, insufficient resources in RSSs are some of the reasons for teachers not displaying initiative to implement IQMS effectively. This study will also investigate whether teachers' are adequately developed in the IQMS.

3.9.1 School development team

The DoE (2002:67) asserts that the role of the SDT is to initiate the appraisal process, mentor the effectiveness of the appraisal system and report appropriately. After the initial training, each school was instructed to democratically establish the SDT comprising elected members from SMTs and teachers with the principal as a mandatory member (Biputh, 2008:26). The DoE (2005:3) advises that both the SMT and SDT should work together and mutually support one another on matters related to IQMS. However, research by Somo (2007:92) found that there were no meetings of the SDTs in schools. The only thing teachers could remember about the SDT was when the principals called a meeting for the establishment of the SDT at their schools and since then there had been no meetings conducted by the SDTs (Somo, 2007).

Nkabinde (2006:25) argues that committees such as SDTs or staff development groups are crucial in organization. The development of these committees is to develop staff members in areas where development is needed. Unfortunately, very little or no development is taking place. SDTs' members are teachers who have their own classroom responsibilities, engulfed with massive administrative duties like any other teacher. Therefore, in most cases they fail to deal effectively with IQMS related issues since there is no time allocated for them in the school timetable. It also becomes more difficult for rural schools where after school hours could not be used for IQMS matters since teachers stay far away from their schools (Maphunmulo, 2003; Vavi, 2011).

3.9.2 Development support groups

The DSG is comprised of three individuals, namely; the appraisee, the immediate senior (principal or HOD) and the selected peer (ELRC in Nkambule, 2010:1). The main role of the DSG is to provide mentoring and support to teachers (DoE, 2005:5). Additionally, Nkabinde (2006:26) points out that the role and responsibilities of the DSG are to provide mentoring and support, and assist the teachers in the development and refinement of their Personal Growth Plan (PGP), while working with the SDT to incorporate plans for the development of the teacher. According to him, the DSG is responsible for the baseline evaluation of the teacher for development purposes, as well as making a summative evaluation at the end of the year performance measurement. DSGs must evaluate that information provided for performance is accurate (DoE, IQMS Educators' Manual, 2004:4).

However, because of lack of training, appraisers make judgment based on personal experiences and dislikes, as well as what they consider an effective teacher should be, more than on the basis of external standards whose credibility has been widely accepted by both appraisers and appraisees (Dhanpat, 2007:21). This is supported by Class Act's (2007) findings that most teachers and DSGs do not know how to conduct an effective analysis of teacher performance and prioritize their development needs and have not been sustained high quality training and opportunities to meet these new expectations. Similarly, a recent study by Nkambule (2010:71) found that very little training was provided to DSGs by the DoE for effective IQMS implementation. The lack of training in the IQMS is contrary since the literature states that DSGs training is a prerequisite and lays a foundation for successful implementation of the teacher appraisal system (Weisberg et al., 2009; Hedge & Cavanaugh in Nkambule, 2010).

Recent research has found that DSGs are subjective when evaluating teachers in the IQMS (NEEDU, 2009; Nkambule, 2010). Similarly, Kanyane (2008:51) found that the entire process of rating teachers is comprised of linking rewards with the performance of teachers which caused subjective ratings since no one wishes to forfeit one's benefits attached with good performance. Furthermore, the NEEDU (2009:59) found that the scoring process remains a very difficult issue because of the high amount of subjectivity in the implementation of scores. The scores were inflated to avoid rating which could jeopardize the chances of salary increase. Bischoff and Mathye (2009:401) concur that that teachers cheated on ratings and threatened their DSGs because they all wanted to receive money associated with good performance. Similarly, Kanyane (2008) found that teachers lose sight of the objectives of the evaluation process because everybody wants salary progression. This study will also therefore investigate the impact of IQMS on RSSTs' professional development in KZN.

3.10 CHAPTER THREE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure: 3.4 WIPD conceptual framework for RSSTs
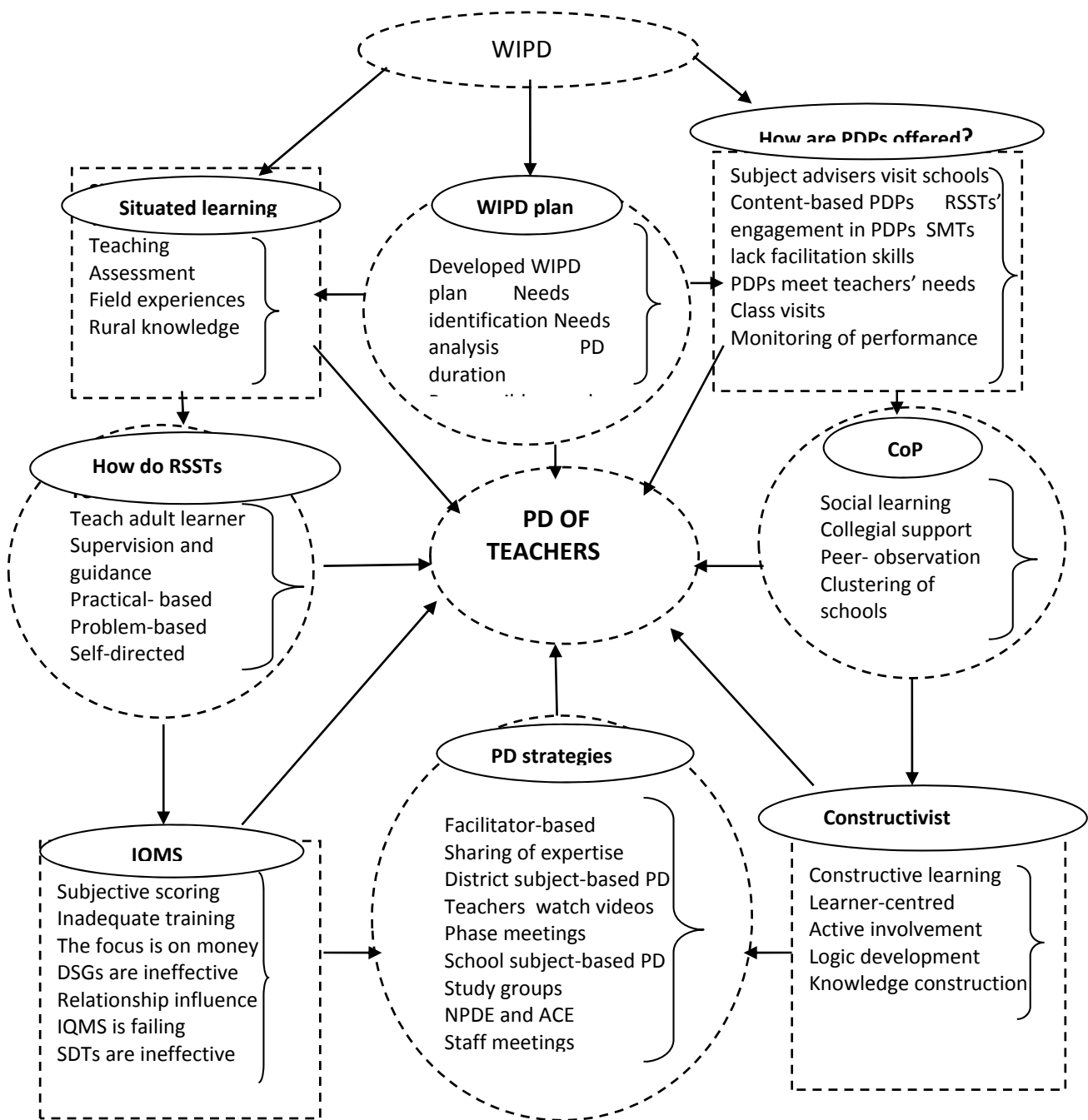
The WIPD framework of RSSTs has been developed from the RSST professional development theories, IQMS, WIPD plan, teachers' PD structures, and PD models presented in this chapter. Selected views and research findings presented and discussed in this chapter are presented in Figure 3.4 above. The views and components provided in Figure 3.4 will be used in developing data collection instruments for this study.

3.11 SUMMARY

The literature suggests that there is a link between teacher PD and quality teaching and learning, teacher commitment, PD models, PD theories, and interrelationship among teachers. It also suggests that RSSTs are more challenged than urban school teachers. Structures responsible to develop RSSTs such as SMTs and subject advisers are not effective since they lack relevant expertise themselves. The literature also reveals that adult learners (RSSTs) are more interested in problem solving activities which are learner-centred for their development. This implies that KZN rural secondary school teachers' active involvement in their WIPDPs is more crucial. Moreover, although the provincial DoE is committed to sponsor teacher studies, there are still many unqualified and under-qualified RSSTs in KZN. The literature also indicates that current WIPDPs are not producing good results because monitoring is missing. The current WIPDPs are failing to meet RSSTs' needs since needs analysis is not conducted before PDPs are conducted. In addition, these PDPs are very short, also failing to meet teachers' needs. The literature review also found that the IQMS is failing to develop teachers since the focus is on salary progression rather teachers' development.

A literature study has been conducted to explore strategies used to develop RSSTs as effective CWs. Therefore, before conducting empirical investigation, research methodology of this study was presented in the next chapter (Chapter Four).

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters (Chapter Two and Chapter Three) have presented and reviewed the literature of this study. These two previous chapters revealed the challenges faced by RSSs and their teachers in terms of job satisfaction and PD provided to them. Different aspects of job satisfaction and PD identified in the literature study process were used to design tools for structured, semi-structured and observation data collection instruments.

This chapter presents the research methodology and design used in this research to investigate the following sub-research questions in order to address the two main questions. Sub-research question 1: Why RSS learners still lag behind in grade twelve examinations compared to urban and former Model C learners. 2: What are the RSSTs' job satisfaction levels in the grades 10-12 NCS, working environment and the community served by their schools? Sub-research question 3: What is the difference between job satisfaction and biographical variables, namely RSSTs' gender, age, years of experience, type of employment, level of education and the post level? Sub-research question 4: Do the RSSTs enjoy teaching in poverty-stricken communities of rural areas? And sub-research question 5: What are the PD strategies in place and their impact on developing teachers' competencies as competent CWs? This chapter also provides the sampling strategy, the sample of schools and teachers, research instruments, ethical issues, data analysis techniques and how validity and reliability were addressed. The research methods of this study were chosen on the basis that they could be able to adequately answer the research questions.

The literature review in Chapter Two and Chapter Three has provided a background on which this study can be built. Therefore, to find first-hand information related to this study, empirical research had to be conducted. Gray (2004:200) asserts that empirical research involves the gathering of the first-hand information. De Vos, Strydom, Fourche and Delport (2005:167) and Leedy and Ormrod (2001:202-204) consider empirical research to be the most fruitful method of gathering knowledge in the field of education. The main purpose of empirical investigation in this study was to collect data relevant to the RSSTs' experiences of job satisfaction and the support provided to develop their professional competencies as CWs. RSSTs' work-integrated PDPs were also investigated. In this study, WIPDPs are PDPs that focus more on the work of teachers, which is teaching RSS learners. Research methodology

is very important in this study since that is where I outlined the types of methods, techniques and strategies employed in this research project. This research methodology will also show the reader on how the research problem of this study was investigated.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

It is important to have a well designed plan to conduct research. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:117) point out that the research design describes how the researcher will go about selecting subjects, research sites and data collection procedures to answer the research questions. Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2006:22) argue that research design refers to the plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer research questions. The design describes the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, research design indicates how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects and what methods of data collection are used (Kobola, 2007:68). Kobola (2007:68) further points out that the purpose of a research design is to provide the most valid and accurate answers possible to research questions. Moreover, Bogdan and Biklin (in Du Plessis 2005:145) concur that the design refers to the researcher's plan on how to proceed in the research.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:22) assert that the research design can be classified into quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research. This study therefore used both qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods). The approach of the two methods differs considerably. Each method has its own aims and research procedures (Makhoba, 2003:56). Quantitative research involves the assignment of numerical values to variables (Hittleman & Simon, 1997:32). In other words, it is characterized by statistical analysis. On the other hand, qualitative research allows the researcher to get in-depth information from the subjects being studied so as to understand the subjective experience of the phenomena (Patton in Baruth, 2009:19). In other words, researchers in qualitative research aim to obtain in-depth data from a particular situation or activity. Therefore, this study used both of these research designs in an attempt to address bias, and disadvantages in each research design approach. This emanates from the fact that both quantitative and qualitative methods have their own limitations. For example, in quantitative research methods, findings lack deeper analysis and elaborated understanding. In qualitative research methods, findings could not be generalized since the sample is too small. Therefore, combining both quantitative and qualitative methods helped to address their limitations in this study.

4.3 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both quantitative and qualitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions, particularly pragmatism, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in a study (Morgan, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Johnson and Christensen (2012) point out that pragmatism will dictate that the research be designed in a way that best helps answer the research question. These researchers also elucidated that mixing qualitative and quantitative into mixed methodology results in pragmatic knowledge. This is because pragmatic perspective values both objective and subjective knowledge (Morgan, 2007). Thus, it is more than simply collecting and analyzing both kinds of data; it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). Additionally, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006:15) define mixed methods research as a research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or programme of inquiry. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006:16) further point out that mixed methods design is a type of research design in which the qualitative and quantitative approaches are mixed across the stages of a study. A basic description of mixed methods methodology is simply that it is a methodology with methods that have comparisons between quantitative and qualitative data (Jones, 2004).

Quantitative data is data in numeric form, often derived from questionnaires or structured interviews (Moon & Moon, 2004:4). In this study, numeric data was collected by a structured questionnaire. On the other hand, qualitative data is descriptive data from observation and unstructured interviews (Taylor, Richardson, Yeo, Marsh, Trobe & Pilkington 1995:632). The latter instruments were used to collect qualitative data. Moon and Moon (2004:9) point out that there are many examples of mixed method approaches such as concurrent, sequential, multi-strands, embedded, explanatory and exploratory. This study was based on concurrent, convergent and parallel mixed methods approaches where both qualitative and quantitative data were collected during the same data collection stage.

Mixed methods research has emerged with quantitative and qualitative approaches as an important tool for researchers (Creswell & Garrett, 2008:1). This emanates from the fact that quantitative research has traditionally provided a measurement orientation in which data can be gathered from many individuals and trends assessed across large geographically regions

(Creswell, 2008). On the other hand, qualitative research yields detailed information reported in the voices of participants and textualized in the settings in which they provide experiences and meanings of their experiences (Creswell, 2008). Therefore, according to Creswell and Garrett (2008:2), when researchers bring together both quantitative and qualitative research, the strengths of both approaches are combined, leading, it can be assumed, to a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. A recent trend to emerge is to think about mixed methods as means of collecting, analyzing, and using both qualitative and quantitative data within established approach (or research design or methodology) (Creswell & Garrett, 2008:8). In this study data was collected using both research design methods (structured questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and observation guidelines).

4.3.1 Concurrent mixed methods

Concurrent mixed methods is the research method in which the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of research problem (Creswell, 2009:14). He further argues that in this design the investigator will collect both forms of data at the same time and then integrate the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Also in this design, the researcher may embed one smaller form of data within another larger data collection in order to analyze different types of questions (the qualitative addresses the process while the quantitative, the outcomes) (Creswell, 2009). In this study data was collected concurrently using already designed data collection instruments such as structured questionnaires, semi-structured interview questions and observation guidelines.

4.3.2 The triangulation-mixed methods design

The triangulation-mixed methods study is a study in which the researcher simultaneously gathers both quantitative and qualitative data, merges them using both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods and then interprets the results together to provide a better understanding of a phenomenon of interest (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:404). Approximately equal emphasis is given to each method, even though one can follow the other: qualitative+quantitative or quantitative+qualitative or both can be conducted at the same time (concurrent design): quantitative+qualitative. The latter was used in this study to collect data. McMillan and Schumacher, (2006:404) further argue that the interpretation of results is the key to this method, as it provides a convergence of evidence in which the results

of both methods either support or contradict each other. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:405), the purpose of the triangulation-mixed method design is to provide a more comprehensive and complete picture of data by converging data analysis methods and offsetting strengths and weakness of each method. When the results of different methods converge and support one another, it means that the researcher has triangulated the findings. In this study the use of different methods such as semi-structured interviews, observation and structured questionnaires resulted in very strong results. Often, the strengths of one method offset the weakness of the other, which allows for a much stronger overall design and thus more credible conclusions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:404). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:404) further point out that quantitative results enhance generalizability while qualitative results help to explain the context. Figure 4.1 below shows how this research was conducted using concurrent triangulation design.

Figure 4.1 Concurrent triangulation design
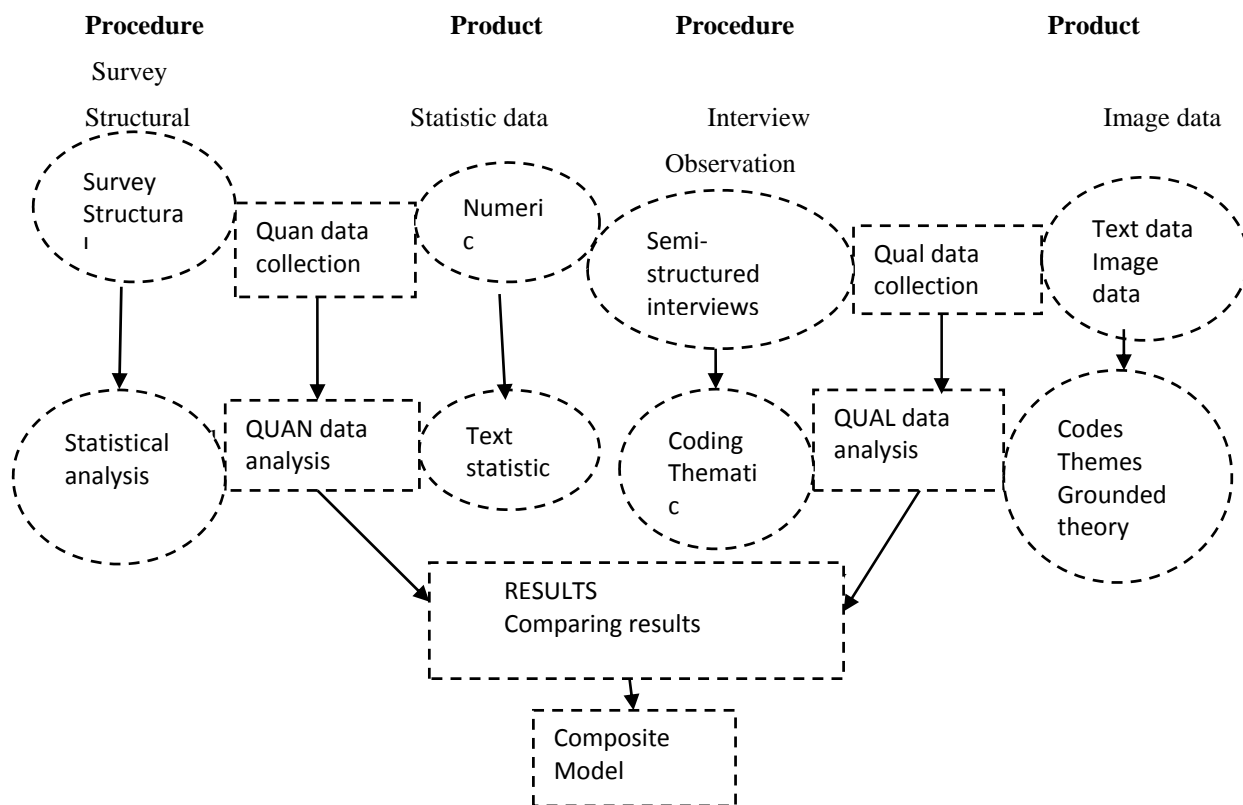
Source: Adapted from Creswell (2008:42)

4.3.3 Concurrent triangulation strategy

Concurrent triangulation refers to the simultaneous collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data (Rauscher & Greenfield, 2009:8). This research design is referred by

Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:70-71) as the convergent parallel design where the researcher uses concurrent timing to implement the qualitative and quantitative strands. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:299), concurrent triangulation is probably the most familiar of the major mixed methods. Creswell (2009:213) concurs that the concurrent triangulation approach is probably the most familiar of the major mixed method models. In this study, I collected both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and then compared the two databases to determine if there was convergence, differences or some combination.

Some researchers refer to these comparisons as confirmation, disconfirmation, cross-validation, or corroboration (Greene, Caracelli & Graham in Johnson et al., 2007:115-116). Similarly, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:299) point out that this method is selected as the design when a researcher uses two different methods in an attempt to confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within a single study. The reason to use separate quantitative and qualitative methods in this study was to offset weaknesses inherent within one method with the strengths of the other or conversely, the strength of one adds to the strength of the other (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2009). In this approach, the collected quantitative and qualitative data of this study was concurrent, happening during one stage of the research study (Creswell, & Plano-Clark, 2011:66).

The mixing of both methods (quantitative and qualitative) in this study is found in the interpretation or discussion sections (Chapter Five, Chapter Six and Chapter Seven). That is where the actually data was merged, (for instance, transforming one type of data to the other type of data so that they can easily be compared) integrated and compared the results of the two databases side by side. This side by side integration is often seen in published mixed methods studies in which a discussion section first provides quantitative statistical results followed by qualitative quotes that support or disconfirm the quantitative results (Creswell, 2009:213). Moreover, this mixed methods model is advantageous because it is familiar to most researchers and can result in well-validated and substantiated findings (Creswell, 2009). One of the reasons to choose the concurrent data collection in this study was that it results in a shorter data collection time period as compared to one of the sequential approaches because quantitative and qualitative data gathered at one time at the research site.

4.3.4 Rationale for mixed methods research

It is very important for a researcher to choose the research methods and provide reasons for the choice before conducting research to make it clear why such research methods were chosen. My purpose in choosing mixed methods research is now presented. Viadero (2005:2) argues that mixed methods research offers the potential for deeper understanding of some education research questions that policy-makers answered. Additionally, (Wesley, 2010:299) points out that in the mixed methods research, qualitative methods are used to expand or elaborate on the quantitative data.   The triangulation of multiple methods (structured questionnaires, semi-structured interview questions and observation guidelines) increased the validity, reliability and interpretation of data related to teachers' job satisfaction and WIPDPs in this research.

Rossman and Wilson (in Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007:115) identify three reasons for combining quantitative and qualitative research. Firstly, combinations are used to enable confirmation or corroboration of each other through triangulation. Secondly, combinations are used to develop analysis in order to provide richer data. Thirdly, combinations are used to initiate new models of thinking by attending to paradoxes that emerged from the two data sources. Furthermore, another key purpose of conducting mixed methods research was that it provides deeper understanding, a fuller picture of the phenomenon under study and enhances description and understanding (Johnson et al., 2007:122). They further argue that mixed methods research produces more comprehensive internally consistent and valid findings, produces more elaborated understanding and greater confidence in conclusions. Moreover, the mixed methods research produces richer and more meaningful and useful answers to the research questions (Johnson et al., 2007:122). According to Rena Subotnik (in Viadero 2005: 3) besides producing better research, mixed methods research heals professional rifts between qualitatively oriented researchers and quantitative survey proponents.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGY

Data cannot be collected without a plan. Therefore, there should be a strategy in place on how data was collected. This is now discussed.

4.4.1 Sampling strategy for mixed methods research

All research involves sampling (Miles & Huberman in Gumbi, 2009:137). According to Miles and Huberman (in Gumbi, 2009:136), no study, whether quantitative, qualitative or both, can include everything. The mixed methods sampling involves combining well established quantitative and qualitative techniques in creating ways to answer research questions posed by the mixed methods research designs (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:169). Sampling involves selecting units of analysis (such as people, groups, artifacts and settings) in a manner that maximizes the researcher's ability to answer questions set forth in the study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). They describe that the unity of analysis refers to the individual case or group of cases that the researcher wants to express something about when the study is completed and is, therefore, the focus of all data collection efforts. Bless and Hidson-Smith (1995:85) describe the sample as a technical accounting devise to rationalize the collection of information, to choose in an appropriate way the restricted set of objects, persons, events from which the actual information will be drawn. In the similar vein, McMillan and Schumacher (1997:169) describe sampling as a group or subject in a study. The sample in this study was fifty RSSs and four hundred RSSTs comprising post level 1 (PL1), HODs, deputy principals and principals in three KZN districts.

4.4.1.1 Purposeful sampling

Purposive sampling was used to select nine RSSs for observation. Eighteen RSSTs were selected for individual semi-structured interviews. The latter is supported by Conco (2004:65) that in random sampling every member of the research population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, whereas in purposive sampling, the researcher makes specific choices about which people to include in the sample. Joseph (2004:169) points out that in a research study, there is a need to identify a population of individuals that can provide information to answer the research question. Schools for semi-structured interviews were selected in terms of their highest level of poverty in their district. I was able to select poor RSSs (geographically isolated, poor households, high unemployment, child-headed families, grandparents-headed families, poor infrastructure) in Maphumulo circuit (Ilembe District) since it was where I worked (Lumadi 2008; Dala, 2009). It was also easier to select poor RSSs at Samungu ward for Eshowe circuit (Empangeni district) since the place is my home village. However, teachers and principals assisted me in selecting most poor RSSs in Umvoti Circuit (Umzinyathi district). In purposeful sampling the investigator selects units that are

representatives (RSSTs including PL1 teachers, HODs, deputy principals and principals) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:175). In purposeful sampling the researcher identifies information-rich participants for the reason that they are possibly knowledgeable about the phenomenon being investigated (McMillan & Schumacher in Bele, 2007:103). In this study I selected RSSTs who have experience in teaching the grades 10-12 NCS in KZN rural secondary schools so that rich information could be provided. SMT members also participated in this study since they managed the curriculum implementation process.

4.4.1.2 Convenient sampling

Convenient sampling is about choosing settings, groups, and/or individuals that are conveniently available and willing to participate in the study (Morse, 2010:359). Selecting whichever units of the population that are easily accessible is called convenient sampling (McMillan& Schumacher, 2006:125). McMillan and Schumacher (1997:174-175) argue that convenient sampling techniques are less costly, save time, ensure ease of administration and high participation while allowing generalization to similar subjects. To meet the convenient sampling strategy, I chose to investigate RSSs and RSSTs because it was where I worked, making it easier for me to access schools and teachers. Leedy (1997:210) asserts that the larger the sample the better. In an attempt to meet the latter requirements, four hundred RSSTs comprising of PL1, HODs, deputy principals and principals were included in the quantitative sample for the collection of numeric data.

In convenience sampling a group of subjects is selected on the basis of being accessible or expedient (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:125). While this type of sampling makes it easier to conduct the research, there is no precise way of generalizing from the sample to any type of population. This means that the generalizability of the findings will be limited to the characteristics of the subjects. However, this will not mean that the findings are not useful; it simply means that caution is needed in generalizing (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Despite the fact that no random sampling was conducted, the sample was selected to represent RSSs and RSSTs in three districts (Umzinyathi, Ilembe and Empangeni). RSSs of these districts were located in deep rural areas where poverty was too high (Dala, 2009; Zuma, 2009). People of these areas were dependent on child support grant and pension. Most parents were uneducated. There was no infrastructure in these areas. Level of unemployment was also too high.

4.4.2 Sources of data

The Image 4.2 below provides twelve KZN education districts. The selected districts, which were Ilembe, Umzinyathi and Empangeni are close to each other. This allowed me to access the participating RSSs of these districts easier.

Figure 4.2 KZN target population
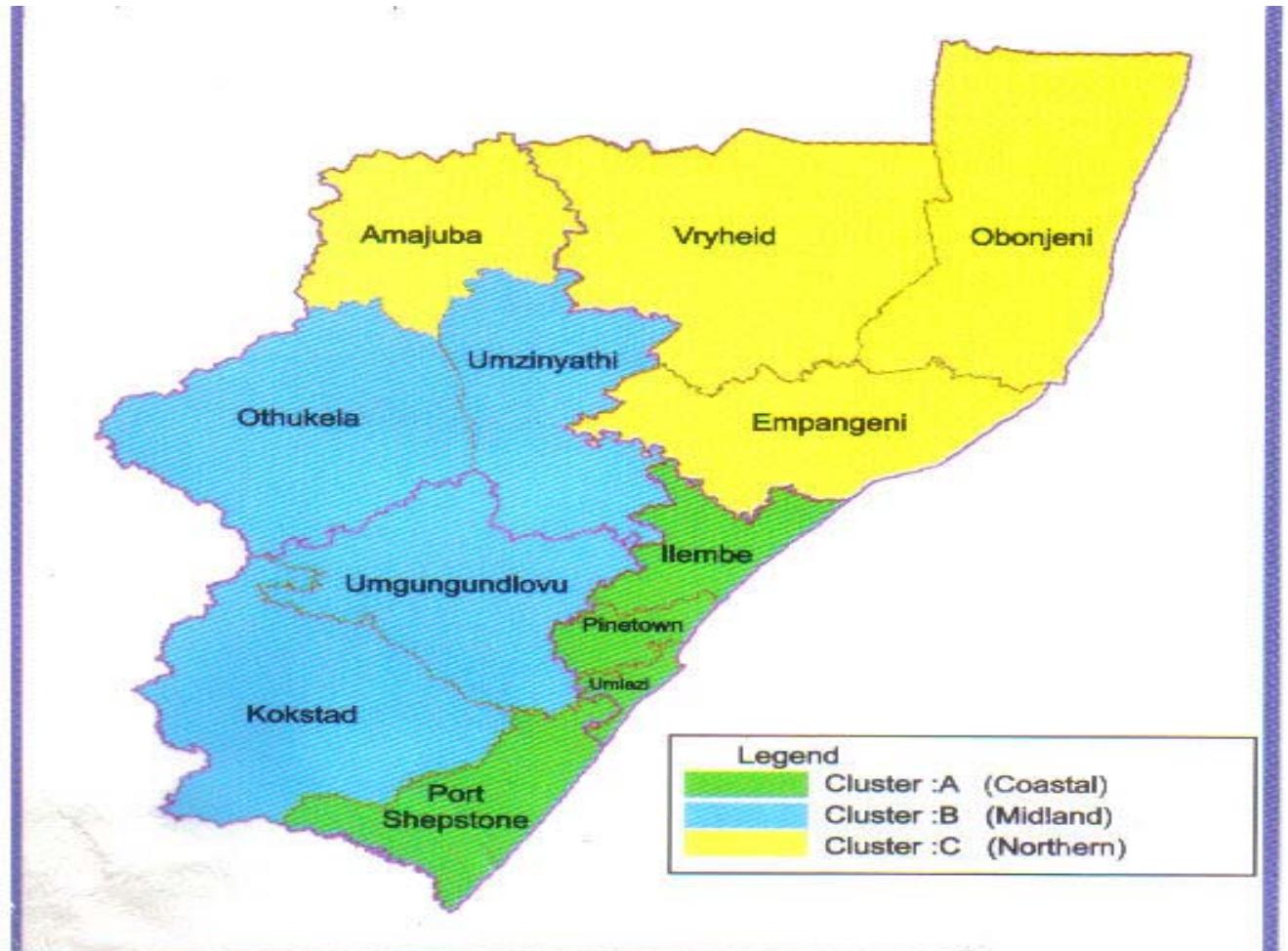
Sources of data in this study indicate where or from whom data was collected. This included participating RSSs and their teachers who have the grades 10-12 NCS teaching experience and SMT members. All the selected secondary schools were situated in rural districts including Ilembe, Umzinyathi and Empangeni in the Figure 4.2 shown above. These schools were situated in poverty stricken communities. These schools were some of the poorest of the poor schools in KZN.

4.4.2.1 Quantitative strategy

The study comprised of four hundred participating teachers. Umvoti, Umsinga, Maphumulo, Lower Tugela and Eshowe circuits' RSSs with grades 10-12, participated in the study. Four hundred participants completed questionnaires successfully. Table 4.1 shows how participants were grouped in this study.

Table 4.1 Sources of data

District	No. of schools	No. of teachers
Empangeni	10	67
Ilembe	30	206
Umzinyathi	10	127

To include different districts and circuits was an attempt to generalize findings, and to discover the real situation that existed. Ilembe had the highest number of participants since it was easier for me to distribute and collect questionnaires. The reason was that Ilembe district is my place of work making it more convenient for me to access more RSSs.

4.4.2.2 Qualitative strategy

RSSTs were not selected on the basis of subject specialization since the focus of the study was on different areas of specialization. Therefore, all teachers of selected schools have equal chances to participate in this study; however, teaching experience in the grades 10-12 NCS qualified them to take part in this research. Therefore, RSSTs were selected on the basis of their experience in the grades 10-12 NCS.

Nine RSSs with two RSSTs from each RSS were purposefully selected to participate in the open-ended interviews. This means that there were eighteen RSSTs participating in individual semi-structured interviews. Participants who completed quantitative questionnaires also took part in the semi-structured interviews. The latter is supported by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:181) that, if the intent is to compare data sets, the use of the same individuals is recommended. In order to select participants and schools, they have to meet certain criteria which the researcher has to set (Merriam, 1998:48). The criteria to participate in this study were that RSSTs must have taught grades 10-12 in the NCS irrespective of number of years. The RSSTs must hold PL1 level, HOD, deputy principal and principals' positions. RSSs were also selected based on their highest level of poverty in their circuits.

4.4.3 Data collection procedures

Permission to collect data for this study was received from the KZNDoE, Nelson Mandela University (NMMU), school principals and participants (copies are provided in the addendum). Three forms of data capturing such as quantitative structured questionnaire, qualitative semi-structured interviews and observation techniques were used to collect data. These three tools enabled me to gain a bigger picture and better understanding of what was taking place in RSSs regarding teachers' job satisfaction and WIPDPs in KZN.

4.4.3.1 Individual semi-structured interviews

There were eighteen RSSTs' individual interviews. Three RSSs participated in individual semi-structured interviews in each of the three targeted district therefore, and therefore, there were nine RSSs participating in individual interviews. The reason for selecting few schools and RSSTs was that the individual interviews need much time to be spent at each site. RSSTs were interviewed individually in their schools. Each interview was intended to last for one and a half hours. Furthermore, Bless and Hidson-Smith (2000:1) argue that this method of data collection is called "method of authority" because it regards the knowledge producers as authorities due to their ability to transmit the truth or knowledge about what they know or have experienced in their local environment. However, the interview guide was used in this study to guide me when interviewing participants. Semi-structured interviews were based on the four broad areas: *multicultural education*, including teachers' expectations of rural learners and bias and racism; *RSSTs' job satisfaction*, including experiences of RSSTs' job satisfaction, WIPD needs, working environment and needs expected from the community, and job satisfaction and the new curriculum; and *the RSSTs' work-integrated professional development programmes*, including PD plans, PD theories, current PD strategies, how WIPDPs are conducted and the impact of IQMS as the teacher development strategy.

4.4.3.2 On-site observation

School observation was conducted after semi-structured interviews. Creswell (2003:185) describes observation as the method in which the researcher takes field notes on the behaviour and activities of individuals at the research site. Since there are limitations as to how much can be learned from what participants say (Mbokodi, 2008:61), this study included qualitative observation of teachers to obtain rich description of teachers' work environment (Sammons, 2010:698). Observation was conducted to investigate the natural occurring

behaviour of RSSTs and events in the participating schools, for instance the nature of classrooms, buildings, availability of resources, interrelationship, PDP plans, teacher and learners' commitment, the climate and ethos of the school, the state of the school yard, isolation of schools from each other and the level of late coming (Mbokodi, 2008:61). Observation findings were jotted down as they were going to be useful in complementing closed-questionnaire and interview data and in interpretation of the various situations (Mbokodi, 2008:61). However, Best and Kahn (2003:300) caution that observation should be characterized with the following: it must be carefully planned, systematic and perspective. Observation instruments for this study were submitted to the NMMU statistician and my promoter for approval. This is because the researchers must know what they are looking for when they observe the research site and what is relevant to the study.

In this study, observation method was used to cross-check the data that has been obtained from the structured questionnaires and interviews with participants (Nsubuga, 2009:182). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:396) refer to the data obtained through observation as "live." Similar views about the observation method are expressed by Jones and Somekh (2006:138) who state that observation method entails being present in a situation and making a record of one's impression of what takes place. The advantage of the observation method was that I was able to record the activities and behaviour of the participants related to job satisfaction and PD, instead of relying only on interviews for qualitative data collection process (Nsubuga, 2009:183). Observation guidelines of this study are provided in the addendum.

4.4.3.3 Structured questionnaire

For many good reasons, the questionnaire is the most widely used technique for obtaining information from subjects (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:194). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:194) point out that the questionnaire is relatively economic, has the same questions for all participants, and can ensure anonymity. Questionnaires can use statements or questions, but in all cases, the subject is responding to something written for specific purposes (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:149). In this study, the questionnaire was developed from the literature study in Chapter Two and Chapter Three of this study, using my experience as a rural school teacher. The questionnaire was submitted to the NMMU statistician for assessment. The statistician provided ongoing guidance. My promoter offered ongoing advice and guidance of how to compile a suitable, structured research instruments. The ongoing

advice was provided by my promoter. Selected seventeen RSSTs were asked to complete the questionnaire in order to test its relevance to the research objectives.

This questionnaire was divided into four main sections, namely; demographic variables, multicultural education, RSSTs' job satisfaction and WIPDPs. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 232) point out that when questionnaires are used in the study, the researcher is employing a strategy in which participants use self-report to express their attitudes, beliefs and feelings towards a topic of interest. Questionnaires have traditionally involved paper and pencil method for data collection. A major advantage of questionnaires is that researchers can mail or email them to their respondents. Mail surveys are less expensive to conduct than in-person interviews or questionnaires. Because of the time constraint, questionnaires for this study were delivered and collected personally from June to September 2012.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:202-203) and Gray (2004:206-208) highlight the following advantages of questionnaires: the structured item response questionnaires fit the objective of the research and are suitable for a relatively large audience in a structured standardized question response. Questionnaires are ideal for an analytical approach exploring the relationship between variables' low cost in terms of both time and money and the inflow of data rapid and from many responses. Further advantages of the structured questionnaires are that the respondents can complete the questionnaire at any time and place that suit them; data analysis of structured closed questions is relatively simple, and questions can be coded quickly; respondents' anonymity can be assured; and respondents enjoy a high degree of freedom in completing the questionnaires (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001; Gray, 2004).

The four main sections namely: biographic information, multicultural education, job satisfaction and teachers' WIPD in this questionnaire have a link with other research instruments of this study, including the semi-structured interview questions and the observation guidelines. Quantitative data was collected from PL1 and SMT members in the three districts in KZN. There were four hundred participants. Items in the questionnaire were written in simple language to avoid misunderstanding among participants. The following factors were taken into consideration when selecting respondents: gender representation, post level, age, teaching experience, level of education and the type of employment. Section A of the questionnaire focused on the latter demographic information. For completing sections A, B, C and D respondents were asked to put a cross (X) in the box appropriate to them on the

five-point Likert scale such as **strongly disagree (1); disagree (2); neutral (3); agree (4); and, strongly agree (5).**

4.5 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

4.5.1 Reliability

In order to establish reliability of the research instruments, it is necessary to clarify various concepts and indicate how they relate to the research (Theron, 2004:58). According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996:122), reliability, broadly speaking, refers to consistency or stability; for instance, whether measurements can be repeated and confirmed by further component measurement. Reliability refers to the extent to which research findings can be replicated. If the study is repeated, will it yield the same result? However, reliability is problematic in the social sciences simply because human behaviour is never static (Merriam, 1998:205). This indicates that people's behaviour and experiences are changing from time to time. For example it is impossible to find the same teachers' experiences and behaviour regarding the grades 10-12 NCS implementation after five years.

To ensure reliability of this study, triangulation was used (Wellington, 2000:24). In this study, structured questionnaires, semi-structured interview questions and observation instruments were employed to promote reliability. The advantages of implementing a variety of research instruments that are based on both quantitative and qualitative research methods have been highlighted by Creswell (2003:221) that reliability will measure consistently and free of unpredictable kinds of error. Similarly, Henning, Van Rensburg and Smith (2004:194) point out that the procedures will produce similar results under constant conditions. Reliability in this study was enhanced by asking seventeen teachers to complete the questionnaires before the actual research to test the research instruments.

4.5.2 Validity

Validity is the degree to which what was observed or measured is the same as what purported to be observed or observed (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996:417). Neuman (1999:369) describes validity as confidence placed in the analysis of data, and the accuracy of data representing the setting. McMillan and Schumacher (1997:404) define validity as the degree to which explanations of phenomena match the realities. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:134) point out that that validity refers to the truthfulness of findings and conclusions.

Henning et al. (2004:147) point out that validity seeks to ask the question whether the instrument used in the research is measuring what it supposed to measure. Moreover, De Vos et al. (2005:160) maintain that the definition of validity has two parts, namely, that the instrument actually measures the concept in question and that the concept is measured accurately. In order to promote validity in this study, the content covered by the structured questionnaire, semi-structured interview questions and observation instruments was representative of the different aspects of job satisfaction and WIPD. Structured questionnaires were completed by seventeen RSSTs to test its validity prior to conducting actual research. The structured questionnaire, semi-structured and observation instruments were assessed by my promoter, NMMU qualified statistician, co-promoter and my colleagues. A large sample (four hundred RSSTs) of participants participated in the study so as to be representative of the total targeted population (RSSs and their teachers in KZN).

4.5.2.1 Content validity

As a researcher, I have to judge the degree to which the questions in the questionnaires adequately represent the domain interest (Christensen & Johnson, 2008:152). The items in the questionnaire were influenced by the literature study in Chapter Two and Chapter Three of this study using my experience as a rural school teacher. The factors captured in the literature review were adequately represented in sections B, C and D of the questionnaire. RSSs in KZN were represented by the RSSs of Ilembe, Umzinyathi and Empangeni districts. The RSSTs of these districts were represented by PL1 teachers, HODs, deputy principals and principals. The NMMU statistician, my promoter and co-promoter were continuously consulted to check the instruments for content validity of this study.

4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Schulze (2002:5) defines ethics as a set of moral principles adopted by an individual or a group. Including in such principles are rules and behavioural expectations that determine ideal conduct as perceived by the group for its members where experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students are concerned. To accommodate ethical consideration, participation in the study was voluntary. Names of participants and schools were not used in the study to ensure confidentiality. According to Bell (2004:41), the conditions for ethical research in practice are that all participants are offered the opportunity to remain anonymous, all information is treated with strict confidentiality, and interviewees have the opportunity to verify statements when the research

is in draft form and participants receive a copy of the final report. The information from the participants was regarded as confidential and anonymity was assured since participants were not allowed to provide their names in the questionnaires. Schools were provided special names such as Ilembe School A, School B and School C; Empangeni School A, School B and School C and, Umzinyathi School A, School B and School C to ensure schools' anonymity in order to meet the requirements of ethical issues in research.

Nesane (2008:59) states that ethics refers to discussions around what is considered accepted or justifiable behaviour in the practice of social research. It is concerned with what are fair ways for the researchers to proceed (Makhanya, 2006:28). Mauther, Birch, Jessop and Miller (2002:20) assert that ethics is the application of general rules and principles and the researcher's internalizing of moral values. In ethics, the focus is on the researcher's ethical intuitions, feelings and reflective skills, including his sensibilities in undertaking dialogue and negotiation with the various parties. Permission to conduct research was offered by the NMMU, KZNDoE, principals and teachers. Permission was granted for the pictures to be used.

4.7 LANGUAGE ISSUE

All participants were first isiZulu speakers. However, the quantitative questionnaire was in English since it is the language of teaching and learning in South Africa. This is also based on the assumption that RSSTs understand English since it is the language of learning and teaching in South Africa. The structured questionnaire was not translated into isiZulu since its questions were short and simple. Open-ended interview questions were in English but they were translated into isiZulu after approval. Therefore, open-ended individual interviews were conducted in both English and isiZulu depending on which language each interviewee was comfortable with. This was to ensure that participants spoke freely in order to provide adequate data related to their job satisfaction levels and WIPDPs.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

A qualified statistician at NMMU assisted in analyzing the quantitative data. Mouton (2001: 108) points out that analysis involves "breaking up" the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships. The aim of analysis is to understand the various constitutive elements of one's data through an inspection of relationships between concepts,

constructs or variables, and to see whether there are many patterns or trends that can be identified or isolated, or to establish themes in the data (Mouton, 2001:108). IsiZulu is my home language. Therefore, it was easier for me to translate interview data from English to isiZulu. Moreover to analyze data in the mixed methods you can use data in quantitative data analysis techniques and qualitative data analysis techniques; you might want to use the technique of quantitavising, for instance, converting qualitative data into quantitative data; you might want to use the technique of qualitativising, for example, converting quantitative data into qualitative data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Creswell, 2008). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, quantitative data and qualitative data were analyzed concurrently to give each method equal contribution in the study.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:266), parallel mixed analysis is probably the most widely used in mixed methods data analysis strategy in the human sciences, and it has been associated with other design concepts, such as triangulation and convergence discussed in this chapter. Parallel mixed data analysis involves two separate processes such as quantitative analysis of data, using descriptive/inferences statistics for the appropriate variables, and qualitative analysis of data, using thematic analysis related to the relevant narrative data. Although the two sets of analyses are independent each provides an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. These understandings are linked, combined, or integrated into meta-inferences (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:266). Figure 4.3 below shows how quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed in this study.

Figure 4.3 Concurrent data analysis strategy
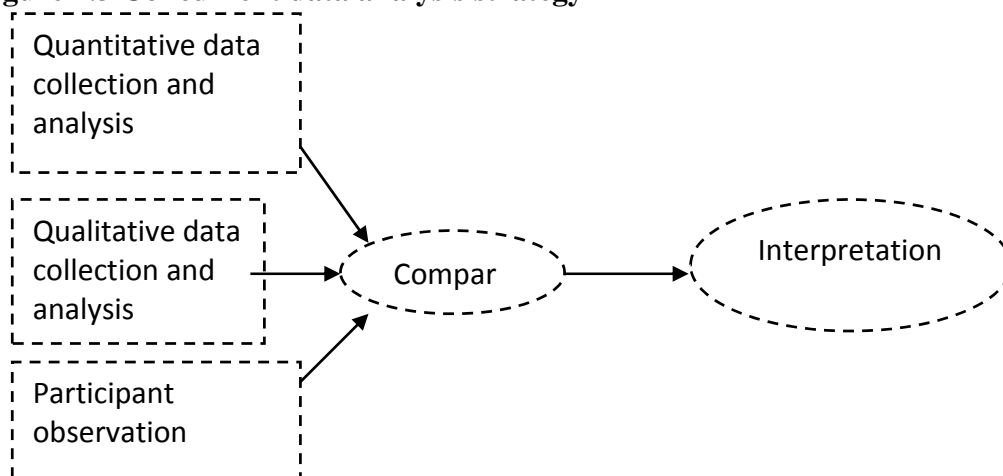
Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:69).

Figure 4.3 above indicates that data analysis in this design occurs when the researcher uses concurrent timing to implement the quantitative and qualitative strands during the same phase of the research process, prioritizes the methods equally and keeps the strengths independent during analysis and then mixes the results during the interpretation (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011:71). This is because the purpose to conduct mixed methods data analysis in this study was to compare findings from quantitative and qualitative results (triangulation) (Collins, Onwuegbuzie & Sutton, 2006). The latter has been supported by Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2010:411) that, if triangulation is the purpose, then it would be appropriate for the researcher to make analytical strands independently, such as conducting quantitative, qualitative and observation analyses concurrently. This is how the data was analyzed in this research.

4.9. BIOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND OF DATA ANALYSIS

Table 4.2 Gender

Type of gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	193	48
Male	207	52
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.3 Age

Years	Frequency	Percentage
20-29	126	31.5
30-39	150	37.5
40+ years	124	31
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.4 Qualification

Level of qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Grade 12 or lower	60	15
Under-qualified	44	11
Diploma	195	49
Degree	101	25
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.5 Post level

Level	Frequency	Percentage
SMT members	80	20
Teachers	320	80
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.6 Experience

Experience	Frequency	Percentage
0-2	76	19
3-4	71	17.75
5-9	91	22.75
10-19	124	31
20+ years	38	9.5
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.7 Type of Employment

Employment	Frequency	Percentage
Permanent	264	66
Temporary	136	34
Total	**400**	**100**

Table 4.2 shows that there were more male teachers (52%) than female teachers (48%) in RSSs. Table 4.3 indicates that the middle-aged (30-39 years old) teachers have the highest number (37.5%) compared to younger teachers (20-29 years old=31.5%) and elder teachers (40+ years old=31%). Table 4.4 shows that most RSSTs were holding diploma qualification (49%). Table 4.6 indicates that the 10-19 years experience teachers were in majority (31%). Teachers with 20+years of experience were the least group (9.5%). Table 4.7 shows that although permanent teachers were in majority (66%) but the number of temporary teachers was also high (34%). The latter might be one of the contributory factors for poor performance of RSSs in KZN.

4.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has described the research design of this study, which is mixed methods research. Data collection methods have been presented and discussed. Sampling strategies have also been presented and discussed. Data was collected in three districts involving four hundred RSSTs. Data collection process for both quantitative and qualitative data was conducted concurrently. Data collection instruments have been presented and therefore Chapters Five, Six and Seven analyze and discuss the findings of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
MULTICULURAL EDUCATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Multicultural education is vital in this study since RSS learners also need equal access to quality education irrespective of their geographical location. This chapter presents findings based on teachers' expectations of RSS learners and bias and racism in education. This chapter therefore analyses and discusses quantitative and qualitative data collected through survey closed questionnaires, interviews and observation schedules. Data is presented using graphs, tables, themes and the picture.

5.2 MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

5.2.1 Teachers' expectations of rural secondary school learners

Teachers' expectations of RSS learners may determine their academic performance. Table 5.1 presents quantitative data analysis regarding teachers' expectations of RSS learners.

Table 5.1 Teachers' expectations of RSS learners

	Percentage						
Item	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std.Dev.
1.1 Teachers understand learners' traditional cultures.	2	3.75	8	59	27.25	4.06	0.83
1.2 Teachers hold low expectations for rural learners.	10.5	37.5	21	25.75	5.25	2.78	1.10
1.3 Rural learners are able to attend extra classes.	3.25	11	15	50.5	20.25	3.74	1.01
1.4 Rural Black learners are easily taught.	9.5	32	28	23.75	6.75	2.86	1.09
1.5 Poverty contributes to learners' poor performance.	4.75	6.75	9.5	47	32	3.95	1.05
1.6 Rural learners are lazy to learn.	8	28.75	19	30.5	13.75	3.13	1.20
1.7 Rural learners fail to think critically.	13.25	27.5	17.75	11.25	30.25	3.18	1.26

The mean scores of four items in Table 5.1 were above 2.50 and below 3.50 indicating that teachers' responses were at average level. This means that teachers rarely or sometimes expected learners to perform at the highest possible level regarding the latter items. Teachers' responses were only positive in item 1.1 (mean=4.06), item 1.3 (mean=3.74) and item 1.5 (mean=3.95). Graph 5.1 below also provides data analysis on teachers' expectations of RSS learners.

Graph 5.1 Teachers' expectations of RSS learners
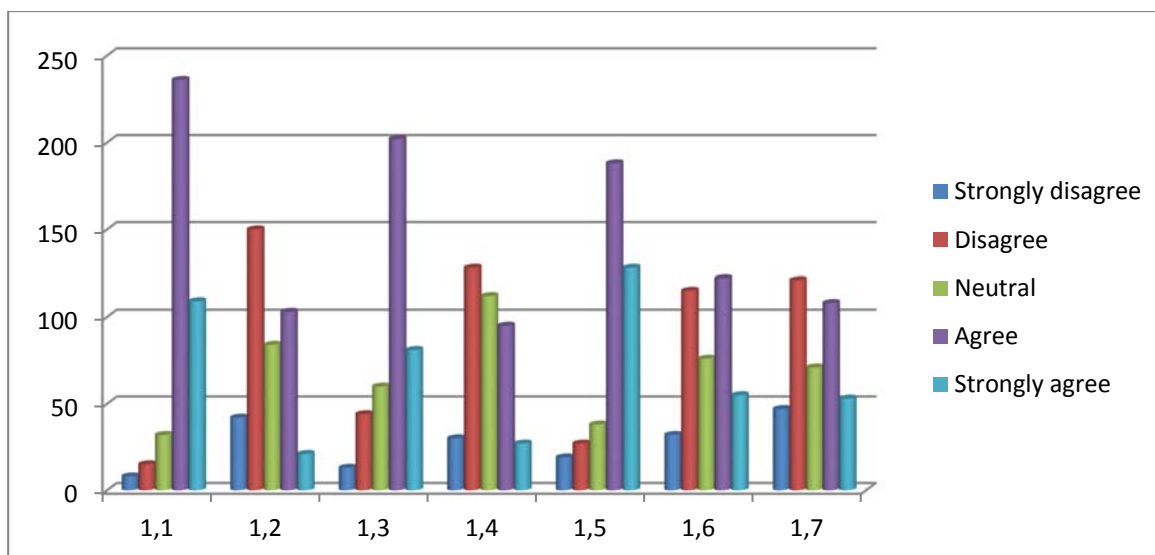
Graph 5.1 indicates that the agree response was the highest in 1.1, 1.3, 1.5 and 1.6. The latter shows that teachers understood learners' traditional cultures; they conducted extra classes and poverty contributed to learners' poor performance.

5.2.1.1 Traditional cultures of learners

Teachers' responses in Table 5.1 show that 86.25% of the teachers understood learners' traditional cultures, which may make it easier to understand learners' learning needs. Only 5.75% of the teachers viewed that they did not understand learners' traditional culture. The mean score of 4.06 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teachers understood learners' traditional cultures. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.64801 (gender), 0.75583 (type of employment), 0.09467 (post level), 0.62244 (experience), 0.72853 (age) and 0.70096 (qualification) show no statistical significant difference between age and traditional culture since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

According to Mpisi (2010:215), if teachers are not aware of the culture and traditional backgrounds of their learners the situation might result in a dislocation between home and school education. Research findings of the qualitative study indicate that teachers understood learners' traditional cultures since they grew from the same environment. Teachers and learners were all Black and therefore teachers have no problems with learners' traditional cultures. Ilembe district School B Teacher One commented:

> *Yes, we understand since all learners are Black. There are no Indians, Coloureds and Whites. We grew in the same environment with these learners and that makes it easier for us to understand their traditional cultures.*

Ilembe district School B Teacher Two supported the above view that teachers understood learners' cultures since they also grew under the very same traditional cultures. However, in terms of teachers from urban areas it was found that they undermined rural learners since rural learners did not understand their way of life and vice-versa. This is supported by Empangeni School A Teacher Two:

> *Yes, we understand their cultures, but teachers from urban areas have bad remarks towards rural school learners which de-motivate these learners.*

During my observation, I discovered that during morning assemblies only Christianity was used. Despite that all KZN rural secondary school learners visited come from Zulu traditional culture, it was not considered during morning assemblies since the valid knowledge in our system of education is still seen as being western-based (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011:10). Although other teachers stated that all religions were equal, only Christianity was dominating in the schools' morning assemblies. The latter was witnessed during my observation in all nine observed schools since morning prayers were conducted in a Christian style ignoring the Zulu religion. I think the cause is that Black people are not fully proud to practise their cultures, traditions and habits in public due to the apartheid legacy when African religions were oppressed in the previous system of education. The same legacy is still in existence in KZN rural secondary schools.

5.2.1.2 Teachers' expectations of rural learners

Teachers' responses indicate that 48% of the teachers expected rural learners to perform at the higher level although conditions were not conducive. There were 31% teachers who held low expectations for RSS learners. The mean score of 2.78 is greater than 2.50 but less than 3.49, indicating that teachers rarely or sometimes held low expectations for RSS learners. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.39859 (gender), 0.98971 (age), 0.75483 (type of employment), 0.70272 (post level), 0.33494 (experience) and 0.88925 (qualification) show no significant difference between teachers' expectations for RSS learners and biographical variables since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Additionally, teachers' expectations of RSS learners were positive since 70.75% of them conducted extra classes in their schools to give their learners more learning opportunities. Only 14.25% of the teachers indicated that they did not conduct extra classes. The mean score of 3.74 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teachers conducted extra classes to provide

more learning opportunities. The latter shows that teachers were committed and dedicated to their job. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03494 in Table 5.2 which was less than 0.05 (5%) indicated a statistical significant difference between the male teachers and female teachers. Table 5.2 shows the difference between male teachers and female teachers.

Table 5.2 Gender and extra classes

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	9.75%	15.64%	74.61%
Female	18.75%	14.36%	66.89%

Chi-square   6.70796   df=2   p=.03494

Only 9.75% male teachers compared to 18.55% female teachers viewed that that they did not conduct extra classes while 74.61% male teachers compared to 66.89% female teachers viewed that they conducted extra classes to teach RSS learners. Male teachers were more positive than female teachers. The possible reason may be that rural female teachers in KZN have more family responsibilities such as cleaning, cooking, washing and looking after children than male teachers, making males to be more available for extra classes than females. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.98971 (age) 0.92699 (experience), 0.53584 (post level), 0.16430 (type of employment) and 0.88925 (qualification) show no difference between the latter biographical variables and extra classes since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Teachers' responses indicate that 44.25% of the teachers thought that rural learners were lazy to learn while 36.75% of them believed that rural learners were not lazy to learn. The mean score of 3.13 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that RSS learners were rarely or sometimes lazy to learn. Table 5.3 presents employment type differences.

Table 5.3 Type of employment and RSS learners' laziness

Type	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	45.30%	13.75%	40.95%
Temporary	28.20%	24.25%	47.55%

Chi-square   9.053427   df=2   p=.01082

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.01082 shows significant difference since the p-value was less than 0.05 (5%). There were 45.30% permanent teachers compared to 28.20% temporary teachers who thought that RSS learners were not lazy to learn. On the other hand,

there were 47.55% temporary teachers compared to 40.95% permanent teachers who viewed that RSS learners were lazy to learn. The reason why there were more permanent teachers who responded that RSS learners were not lazy to learn might be that there were some RSS learners who excelled in their matriculation examinations in previous years.

Teachers' responses show that 40.75% of the teachers felt that RSS learners were able to think critically while 41.5% thought that critical thinking was missing in RSS learners. The mean score of 3.18 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that critical thinking was rarely or sometimes missing from RSS learners. Table 5.4 presents employment type differences.

Table 5.4 Type of employment and critical thinking

Type	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	45.52%	18.74%	35.74%
Temporary	35.98%	16.76%	47.26%

Chi-square   6.68464   df=2   p=.03535

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03535 shows significant difference since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (45.52%) than temporary teachers (35.98%) viewed that RSS learners were able to think critically. On the other hand, more temporary teachers (47.26%) than permanent teachers (35.74%) felt that rural learners failed to think critically. The possible reason might be that their knowledge level of RSS learners was different. Permanent teachers were mostly experienced teachers who understood RSS learners better than temporary teachers who were mostly novice teachers. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.90360 (experience), 0.75720 (post level) 0.71392 (gender), 0.06850 (age), and 0.30797 (qualification) show no significant difference between the latter biographical variables and learners' critical thinking since the latter p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Teachers stated that learners were difficult to teach since they were demotivated to learn. This is because they lacked role models in their communities and they stayed in communities which were demotivated. The cause of the latter was that most of RSSTs in schools where interviews and observation were conducted were not homegrown teachers. Teachers stated that their learners had no willingness for success, they learned because they were sent and

pushed by their parents to school without a goal. They therefore stated that it became difficult to them to teach such learners. Empangeni School C Teacher Two pointed out:

> *Our learners do not take their education seriously. These learners are lazy to do their work. They do not care even if they fail. They see nothing wrong. They have no vision about their future.*

Harvey-Woodall, Smith and Boggan (2010) argue that many poor parents struggle with trying to meet necessities needed for their children to be adequately prepared for school. As a result, children become overburdened with worries, and all of these factors work against them being successful (Harvey-Woodall et al., 2010). Some teachers showed their frustration by stating that parents themselves fought teachers when teachers were trying to discipline their children. Teachers' complained that some parents were bad role models themselves since they come to schools to fight with teachers instead of seeking the solution to put their children on the right track. That resulted in schools' functionality being disrupted since parents were shouting at and calling teachers with unpalatable names inside the school premises.

However, further research findings indicate that teachers expected RSS learners to achieve at a possible highest level since they were writing the same grade twelve examinations as those of the urban school learners. This is against Tatum's (2005) findings that teachers hold low expectations for Black rural learners. In KZN rural secondary schools, teachers even conducted extra classes although conditions were not conducive especially at Umzinyathi district where most teachers stayed in local cottages to prepare learners to meet the expected performance in grade twelve examinations. Umzinyathi School B deputy principal complained:

> *The Department of Education does not consider rurality when matriculation results are analyzed although the situation is not the same compared to urban schools. Urban school learners have advantages but we do everything in our power to meet an acceptable standard of performance.*

Teachers showed their frustration when comparing rural school learners and urban school learners. They pointed out that urban learners walked shorter distances to schools compared to RSS learners. Parents of urban learners are working. Libraries, newspapers, radios and televisions are available to the urban learners compared to struggling RSS learners. Ilembe School B Teacher One stated this:

South African public school learners write the same matriculation papers. Therefore, we expect more from our learners. We even expect A symbols, even though there are challenges but expectations are high. We want doctors and engineers from these learners.

Teachers stated that although they were expecting good results from their learners, the harsh environment under which they were working could not be ignored. They pointed out that RSS learners were not exposed to media such as newspapers and even radios and resources such as libraries and EMCs. This is supported by Ilembe School B Teacher Two that:

These learners could not perform according to urban school learners since their bad environment determines their performance. However, we are trying our best.

Furthermore, Ilembe School A principal asserted:

These learners are expected to perform at a possible highest level but we do not ignore the environment where these learners come from.

Teachers suggested that learners must be given equal opportunities and not to judge them according to their geographical setting because by doing that, teachers might be disadvantaging them. However Umzinyathi School A HOD stated:

We cannot ignore that in rural areas there are many difficulties such as lack of resources, distance travelled by learners and teachers, and bad conditions of roads to achieve the highest level of learners' performance.

Teachers expected better performance from rural learners although there was an insufficiency of resources. Although teachers' expectations were high one could not compare rural learners with urban school learners. This emanated from the research findings that even though teachers expected a lot from their learners they acknowledged that it was difficult to achieve high quality teaching and learning in their working environment which created a lot of frustration and stress to them.

Empangeni School C Teacher One showed her frustration when she stated this about RSS learners:

Rural secondary school learners are demotivated. They do not like to learn, even if you try by all means. These learners are not used to learning. That is why they perform very bad at matriculation level. Learning opportunities are sufficiently provided for them but they do not use those opportunities.

The reason raised why RSS learners were demotivated about learning was that rural communities failed to encourage learners to perform at a highest level. This is because these

learners were not exposed to educational activities. These activities were not available in their communities. During my observation, I discovered that the nearest towns are Stanger for Ilembe district schools, Eshowe for Empangeni district schools and, Greytown and Dundee for Umzinyathi district schools. These towns are very far from these learners (actual distance is provided in Chapter Six). Teachers stated that learners only experience a different life when they go to tertiary institutions where they can be able to touch the computer, visit the library and use the science laboratory for the first time. The latter is supported by my observation that there was lack of infrastructure such as electricity (in some schools), water, and the condition of roads was too bad. There were no EMCs close to schools that participated in this study. Non-availability of radios, TVs, computers and internet connectivity in rural schools and households could not help teachers to expect their learners to perform at the highest level in real terms. Teachers' high expectations were too ambitious if one looks at the conditions under which they were working.

In order to provide more assistance for RSS learners, teachers indicated that they provided extra classes after school hours, on Saturdays, during school holidays and early in the morning if possible although there were challenges. These classes were conducted since teachers noticed that school hours were not sufficient to prepare learners, particularly grade twelve; for external tests and final examinations. Teachers mentioned that they worked tirelessly with their learners until the final examinations were completed. Ilembe School B Teacher One emphasized:

> *You cannot relax even during your own time; you have to come to school to prepare for final examinations since we are going to be judged about our school's performance.*

Teachers stated that learners were able to attend extra classes. This was witnessed by my observation at Umzinyathi School A where grades 10-12 learners started classes at seven o'clock in the morning although some few learners arrived late because of the long distance they walked on foot. However, teachers also raised their frustration that learners, particularly girls, were vulnerable during after school classes. Umzinyathi School B deputy principal stated:

> *Our learners come from very far to school. They go through difficult and dangerous bushveld and cliffs. Female learners are raped and we have decided to abandon after school and morning classes. We only offer extra classes during Saturdays and school holidays.*

The latter is supported by Empangeni School B principal:

> *We have abandoned morning classes since teachers and learners come from very far. Before, we used to use after-school hours, weekends and school holidays. The challenge was that learners reached home very late. These learners were vulnerable to criminals. Therefore, we have also abandoned after-school hours since female learners have been raped. We have two current incidents where our female learners were raped.*

Despite that teachers pointed out that extra classes were conducted in all nine schools, there were problems since learners were coming from very far. Teachers stated that some learners walked for two hours. They mentioned that for these learners to arrive before seven they have to leave their homes before five in the morning. After school classes started at half past two or at three to four or five in the afternoon. It therefore indicates that rural learners left their homes while it was still dark in the morning and arrived home when it was dark, more especially during the winter. This situation made learners to be vulnerable to criminals since they went through bushes and cliffs. This has resulted in Empangeni School A and School B and Umzinyathi School B and School C, Ilembe School A and School B (67%) to abandon morning and after-school extra classes.

5.2.1.3 Influence of poverty on teaching and learning outcomes

Teachers' responses show that 79% of the teachers felt that poverty contributed to learners' poor performance while 11.5% teachers felt that poverty did not contribute to learners' poor performance in RSSs. The mean score of 3.95 is greater than 3.49, showing that poverty has contributed to learners' poor performance in KZN. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.40534 (gender), 0.42754 (age), 0.53118 (type of employment), 0.97419 (post level), 0.86761 (experience) and 0.16789 (qualification) show no significant difference between biographical variables and poverty since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that poverty contributed to RSS learners' poor performance in the grades 10-12 NCS. Poverty was mentioned by teachers during interviews as one of the contributory factors to poor performance of RSS learners since poor learners lacked self-confidence which negatively affected their academic performance. These findings are similar to Nieto & Bode's (2010:407) view that poverty is one of the barriers to learners'

academic achievement. Ilembe School A principal stated this when commenting about the role played by poverty:

> *Poverty plays a greater impact in terms of poor performance not necessarily that these learners' thinking levels are low; their background determines their performance. They are coming from very poor families. There is no exposure to media and resources such as libraries and laboratories. There is not even a radio, not to mention the television.*

Teachers mentioned that rural families were poor and were dependent on social grants. Learners came to school with broken shoes and torn uniforms which caused a lot of de-motivation among themselves, lack of self-confidence and negative perception about the school which caused a lot of dropouts. The latter was witnessed during my observation process since some learners were wearing broken shoes and torn shirts. Teachers stated that their learners had nothing to wear. In some cases, teachers made donations for these poor learners. Most of these learners stayed with grandparents. Picture 5.1 shows us the poverty levels in rural areas.

Picture 5.1 Poverty in rural areas
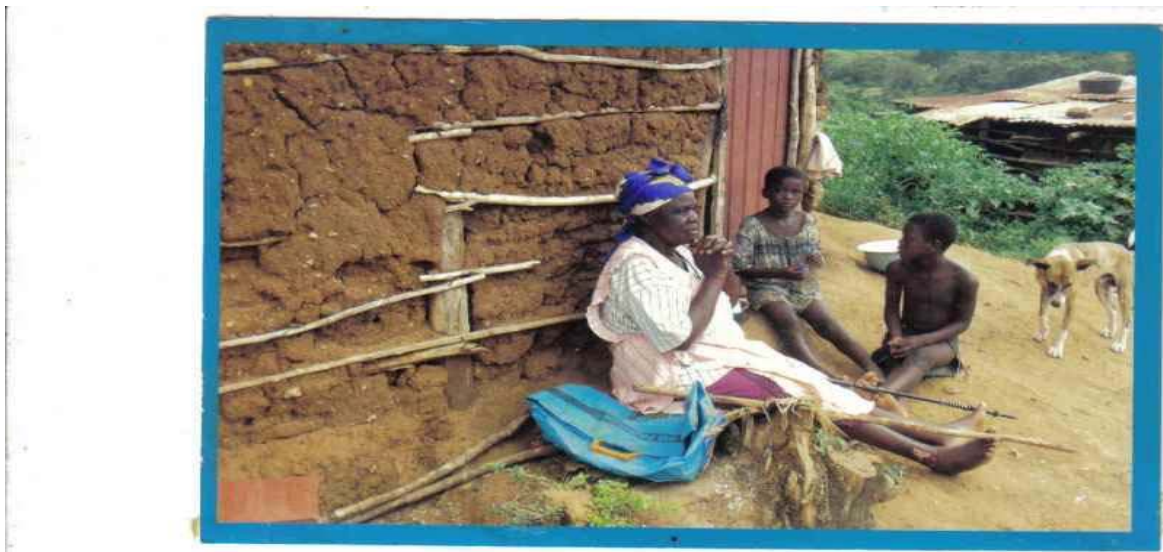
Picture 5.1 is an example of the level of poverty in rural areas that impacted negatively on learners' performance. One cannot expect quality performance in learners from such conditions. Furthermore, some teachers stated that some of their learners came from child-headed and single parent families. This has also had a negative impact on learners' performance. Ilembe district School B Teacher Two added:

Poverty plays a negative impact on learners' performance. Learners fail even to concentrate because of hunger. They think about their poor lives rather than focusing on what is taught in the class. They cannot even hear what the teacher is saying during the teaching and learning process.

Further research findings indicate that some of RSS learners come to school hungry. A practical evidence of poverty was provided by Empangeni School C Teacher One:

In this year alone, two of our learners have fallen down in the morning assembly because they were hungry. These learners come to school hungry and they have to wait until eleven in the morning for school nutrition. These learners cannot concentrate in the class when they are hungry.

Both teachers of Empangeni School C stated that when these learners who fell down during the morning assembly were given some food by teachers from their own lunch they managed to stand up, meaning that the problem was lack of food in their homes contributed by the high level of unemployment due to lack of development projects in rural areas. Teachers further stated that the feeding scheme in rural schools was addressing the hunger problem during school hours since if learners were fed they did not lose concentration. Teachers pointed out that this food made a big difference to learners' performance since other learners came to school with empty stomachs and they only get food at school. However, after school there was no food available at home. The school feeding scheme was the only hope for these poor learners to get food. Some of the disappointing actions and behaviour of RSS learners were pointed out by Empangeni School A HOD who said:

Poverty is a big problem. Some learners come to school hungry. Some of them come to school since they know that they will get food but when nothing is cooked during that particular day they leave school before time.

Learners who left school before time might be that they were hungry or undisciplined. A recent study by Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:10) reveals that sometimes when teachers went to class they found that their classes were empty, because undisciplined learners left school during tuition time. Empangeni School A Teacher Two stated that when learners left school before time it frustrated them since their schools would be judged in terms of their matriculation performance rather than that when food was not available learners left school as they wished. Teachers further pointed out that some learners came to school because they knew that there was food. As a result, absenteeism has decreased. During my observation I discovered that most learners in each class were more than ninety percent present except at

Empangeni School A and School B and Ilembe School B where more than ten days by some grades 10-12 learners in each term were lost due to absenteeism.

5.2.2 Bias and racism

Bias and racism in education can deprive RSS learners of the opportunity to achieve good performance. Table 5.5 presents quantitative data analysis on bias and racism.

Table 5.5 Bias and racism in education

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Std.Dev.
2.1 English contributes to learners' poor performance.	4.5	9.5	11.25	41	33.75	3.90	1.11
2.2 African indigenous knowledge is considered in grades 10-12 NCS.	6	19	31.75	36.75	6.5	3.19	1.01
2.3 Learners from poor families are considered deficient by teachers.	15.75	37.75	23.25	19	4.25	2.58	1.09
2.4 There is insufficient learning space in my school.	7	13	5.5	37.25	37.25	3.85	1.25

Table 5.5 shows how teachers responded in each item. The mean score of item 2.1 was 3.90 and item 2.4 was 3.85 indicating agree responses. The mean score in item 2.2 was 3.19 and in item 2.3 was 2.58 showing that teachers' responses were at average level. Graph 5.2 also provides data analysis on bias and racism in education.

Graph 5.2 Biasness and racism in education
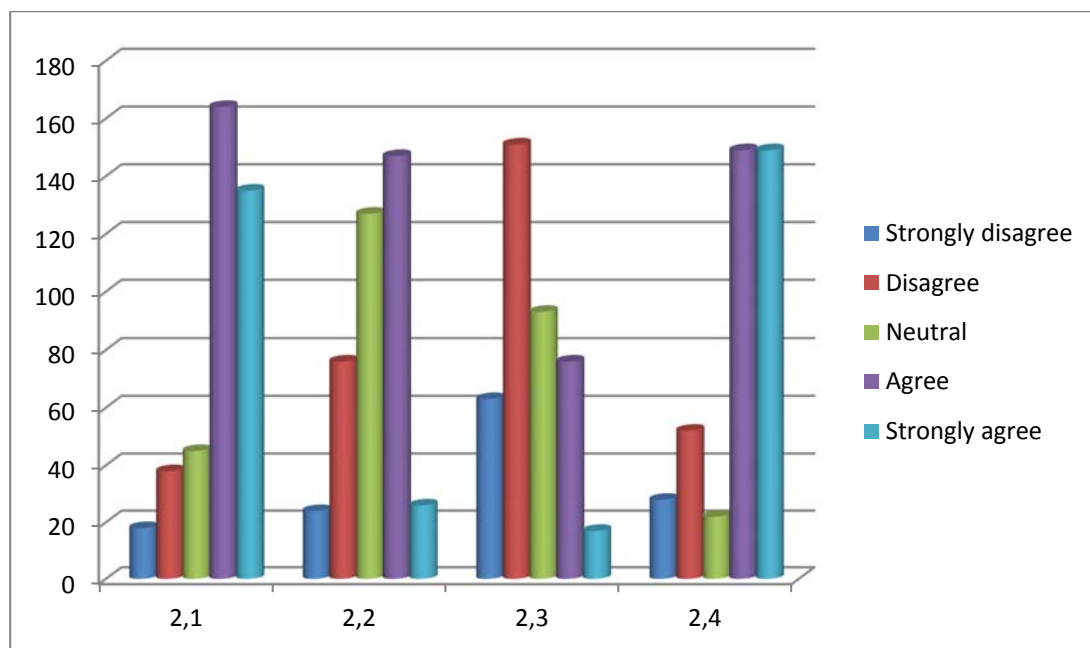
The agree response was the highest in 2.1, 2.2 and 2.4 indicating that teachers were positive in their responses. Teachers' responses in 2.3 indicate that they did not consider poor learners as deficient.

5.2.2.1 Equal learning opportunities

English was indicated as one of the learning barriers by 74.75% teachers while only 14% of them did not perceive English as a learning barrier for RSS learners. Only 11.25% of the teachers were uncertain. The mean score of 3.90 is more than 3.49, indicating that English was a barrier to RSS learners' performance. Table 5.6 presents gender differences.

Table 5.6 Gender and English

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	10.00%	9.29%	80.71%
Female	18.00%	13.21%	68.79%

Chi-square   8.20593   df=2   p=.01652

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.01652 shows a statistically significant difference between gender and English since it is less than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (18%) compared to (10%) males did not view that English contributed to learners' poor performance while more male teachers (80.71%) compared to female teachers (68.79) agreed that English contributed to learners' poor performance. During my observation, I discovered that male teachers used English more than female teachers during teaching and learning, and that might be the reason why there were gender differences. Table 5.7 presents the qualification differences.

Table 5.7 Qualification and English

Qualification	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Grade 12 and lower	22.00%	18.67%	59.33%
Under-qualified	12.76%	4.71%	82.53%
Diploma	10.37%	12.71%	76.92%
Degree	10.87%	8.91%	80.22%

Chi-square   13.4383   df=6   p=.03658

 The Pearson's chi-square p-value 0.03658 in Table 5.7 indicates a statistically significant difference between qualification and English as a learning barrier to RSS learners since the p-value was less than 0.05 (5%). There were 22% teachers with grade 12 and lower compared

to 10.87% teachers with degrees who viewed that English was not a learning barrier. There were 59.33% teachers with grade 12 and lower compared to 82.53% under-qualified and 80.22% teachers with degrees who indicated that English was a learning barrier to RSS learners. Most of the teachers with grade 12 and lower qualification were temporary teachers who were new in the system lacking teaching experience. That may be the possible reason why they were fewer in number, compared to other qualification groups indicating that English was a learning barrier. Teachers with degrees and diploma were experienced teachers who were fully aware of the challenges of RSS learners of which English was one of those challenges. This means that teachers with the lowest qualification considered English a barrier to learning less than teachers with higher qualifications. Table 5.8 presents experience differences.

Table 5.8 Experience and English

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	22.21%	20.66%	57.13%
3-4 years	11.03%	13.89%	75.08 %
5-9 years	16.13%	13.98%	69.89%
10-19 years	9.52%	2.97%	87.51%
20+ years	11.11%	4.75%	84.14%

Chi-square   25.96702   df=8   p=.00106

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.00106 shows significant difference among experienced groups since the p-value was less than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years (57.13%) was the least group of teachers who viewed that English was the problem. More experienced teachers-10-19 years group (87.51%) and 20+ years group (84.14%) were the most groups who indicated that English was one of the learning barriers for RSS learners. The less experienced the teachers were the less they noticed that English was a learning barrier. The more experienced the teachers were the more they experienced that English was a learning barrier. The possible reason might be that most experienced teachers were aware of the challenges for RSS learners while the less experienced were trying to identify the learning problems of RSS learners. Moreover, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.12132 (age), 0.06766 (post level) and 0.07171 (type of employment) show no significant difference since the latter p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that English contributed to RSS learners' poor performance. Teachers mentioned that English played a huge role on RSS learners' performance since English is the language of teaching and learning in South Africa for all subjects except isiZulu in KZN rural secondary schools. However, English was found to be one of the problems (75%) to RSS learners' performance. Commins (2000:57) concurs that the basic challenge for learners whose first language is not English is that they have to learn academic content through English. One of the reasons raised by teachers why RSS learners were poor in English was that English was the language of teaching and learning while isiZulu was the only language of communication in KZN rural communities. They further pointed out that rural environment played a major negative impact in English usage by learners. When learners were away from school they did not have any platform where they could practice their English language skills. Learners were also not confident in speaking English. These learners did not understand their teachers during instructional time. They also failed to understand test and examination questions even if they knew the answer. Ilembe School B Teacher One asserted:

> *English is poor. During examinations, learners need teachers to explain question papers in isiZulu. If they are left alone to write examinations they could not pass since they do not understand the questions even if they know the answer. Teachers have to explain everything in isiZulu so that learners can be able to write something.*

However, Umzinyathi School A HOD blamed teachers for poor English competence among learners when he stated:

> *English is a problem. Learners write nothing in English regarding functional and creative writing activities. The situation is very bad in terms of English usage. Teachers themselves have impact in terms of poor English usage by learners. Teachers are code switching.*

Teachers stated that examination questions, except isiZulu subject, are only in English which is the language of teaching and learning in the grades 10-12 NCS. Questions for examinations are not set in African languages in South Africa, except Afrikaans. Such situation is caused by the legacy of apartheid where African languages such as isiZulu and isiXhosa to name but the few were oppressed.

Research findings show that RSS learners were not poor performers by nature but English was giving them a lot of challenges which negatively affected their achievement in their subjects. During interviews, teachers stated that they were sometimes tempted to code

switching so that learners could understand the subject content and examination questions. The latter was witnessed during my observation period where all observed teachers used both English and isiZulu when teaching. However, code switching may have a negative impact on learners' English learning because learners could not try to learn English if teachers simplified everything for learners in isiZulu. As a result, learners were failing to construct even a single sentence in English. These findings were supported by the following comments by Empangeni School C Teacher One:

> *Learners fail even to construct a single simple sentence. Their English background is poor and that negatively affects their academic performance.*

Teachers pointed out that RSS learners were unwilling to speak English even though opportunities were provided. In addition, teachers mentioned that the reason why English was poor among RSS learners was that primary schools were not strong enough to sufficiently prepare learners in English. Teachers also pointed out that learners came to secondary school blank regarding English competence. Even at home learners did not get assistance in their work since rural people were uneducated. Parents were unable to understand their children's work because it was in English. Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two supported this:

> *English is only spoken in the class at Umsinga schools. When learners are outside the class they fail even to joke with their friends using English. At home they do not get opportunities to learn English. The problem is that parents are illiterate.*

The latter is supported by my observation since I did not notice even a single learner in all nine observed schools speaking English during their break time. They were only communicating using their mother tongue, isiZulu. Moreover, teachers mentioned that learners at Umsinga did not have televisions and radios where they could listen to English programmes. Nothing added to learners' limited English vocabulary. There were no newspapers to read since parents were poor and illiterate. It was therefore impossible for these learners to perform at the possible highest level in the grades 10-12 NCS.

Further research finding concerning poor performance of learners is that there was a problem when learners were writing examinations. Teachers stated that their learners had to read the question paper in English and translate it into isiZulu and that took a lot of time. Consequently, many RSS learners were failing to complete test and examination papers in time. That has resulted in them failing examinations and tests, not necessarily that they were blank and slow to think but the problem was their poor command of English. The latter has

led to RSS learners' cognitive dissonance since English was a barrier to their learning. Their cognitive ability was difficult to be noticed since they were unable to express themselves in English. Learners were unable to do presentations, write assignments, essays and read in English. Their confidence was low due to poor command of English.

In addition, teachers' responses in Table 5.5 show that 74.5% of them viewed that there was insufficient learning space in RSSs compared to urban schools, making teaching and learning in rural areas more difficult. There were 20% teachers who felt that there was sufficient learning space. The mean score of 3.85 is greater than 3.49, showing that there was insufficient learning space in rural schools. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.47103 (gender), 0.38570 (age), 0.18016 (experience), 0.65887(post level), 0.39472 (type of employment) and 0.31256 (qualification) show no statistical difference between the latter biographical variables and learning space since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that there was insufficient learning space in RSSs. During my visit to distribute and collect questionnaires to and from Ilembe, Empangeni and Umzinyathi schools, I found that most schools have administration buildings. However, during my formal observation period, I discovered that some classes were overcrowded with more than fifty learners, particularly at Umzinyathi district schools. These findings are supported by Nesane (2008:53) that high teacher-learner ratio is affecting education in South Africa. There were classes with more than fifty learners at Umzinyathi School A, School B, and School C, Empangeni School B, and Ilembe school B. Teachers complained that they could not do practical activities because the space was too limited. Both Ilembe School B teachers stated that they were unable to use even the school television since there was no space for it. Comments by Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two supported:

> *We have limited space to teach our learners. For example, we have the school television but I cannot use it because there is no space available to do that. Our learners are deprived sufficient learning opportunities. We need more classrooms in our school.*

Additionally, Ilembe School B Teacher One stated:

> *We have no space for performing drama. Our school is too small. There are very few classes. If I want to do practice I have to ask other schools to provide our learners with a space. It is also a challenge to go to those schools because of geographical isolation of schools and insufficient availability of transport. It is hard to teach here.*

This means that RSS learners have insufficient learning opportunities since there were activities that could not be performed due to the limited availability of learning space. In such situation, it means that RSS learners were deprived of equal learning opportunities compared to urban and former Model C learners.

5.2.2.2 Indigenous Knowledge

Teachers' responses indicate that 43.25% of the teachers believed that African indigenous knowledge was considered for learners in the grades 10-12 NCS while 25% teachers felt that indigenous knowledge was not considered as the reason for RSS learners' poor performance in the grades 10-12 NCS. The mean score of 3.19 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that indigenous knowledge was rarely or sometimes considered in the grades 10-12 NCS. This indicates that indigenous knowledge was inadequately considered in the grades 10-12 NCS. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.16691 (gender), 0.06946 (age), 0.24897 (type of employment), 0.24039 (post level), 0.71946 (experience) and 0.37617 (qualification) show no significant difference between the latter biographical variables and indigenous knowledge since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5 %).

Qualitative research findings reveal that the African language (isiZulu) was ignored in our schools although the South African Language Board (SALB) to promote African languages had been established. According to Umzinyathi School A HOD, this board was failing to promote African languages. Furthermore, Empangeni School B principal mentioned that processing of water, paper and electricity was promoted in our education system of which rural learners were not exposed to. Similarly, Themane and Mamabolo (2011:10) point out that Black learners fail to relate what they learn at school to their existing knowledge. Empangeni School B Teacher Two asserted:

> *African knowledge is not promoted; only Western culture is promoted in our curriculum.*

Ilembe School A principal added by stating:

> *The rural environment is not considered when the new curriculum is developed. This is because curriculum developers come from urban areas and forget about rural areas to be part of the curriculum. Rural learners are disadvantaged by this curriculum we have.*

Teachers complained that the grades 10-12 NCS did not cater for different geographical settings. Rural areas were not catered for in this constant curriculum changes. Teachers suggested that indigenous agricultural activities should be part of the curriculum. The latter involves cultivation of maize, beans, amadumbe and sweet potatoes, and livestock farming. Teachers also suggested indigenous carpentry such as fighting sticks, knobkerries, wooden trays (izingqoko) and wooden spoons (izinkezo) to be involved in the curriculum. The use of reeds, calabash, bamboo and wood to make musical instruments was also suggested by teachers to cater for rural learners' learning needs. Traditional activities were also suggested by teachers to be part of the grades 10-12 NCS. Such activities include udwendwe (traditional wedding), umemulo (21st birthday party), stick fighting, Zulu dance, cow and goat peeling during Zulu traditional feasts, fetching water and grass cutting for roofing. The latter activities are part and parcel of rural children's lives, more especially in KZN.

Teachers further mentioned that sometimes it was hard to explain some of the things to learners which were too confusing to them. For instance, research findings show that computers were not found in rural households. Therefore, RSS learners have to learn things that were new to their lives and it has caused RSS learners' poor performance. Teachers perceived the grades 10-12 NCS as urban-biased or urban-based. They stated that the grades 10-12 NCS did not give their learners a chance to practise their way of life but the curriculum forced these learners to exercise the Western way of life, which was unfair. In other words the grades 10-12 NCS is Eurocentric (Gorski, 2010; Singh, 2010). Further findings indicate that although there was arts and culture in the general education and training band, it was not taught in the grades 10-12 NCS. This was also unfair to RSS learners since it was the only subject except isiZulu that could accommodate Zulu culture. Empangeni School A Teacher One stated:

> *Arts and culture covers indigenous knowledge. However, it is not available in the grades 10-12 NCS. Our learners have only isiZulu where they can excel during tests and examinations. What is not fair is that Whites have to write all subjects in English and Afrikaans, and examination papers are set based on their way of life, giving them better opportunities to pass. Nothing is African in the grades 10-12 NCS.*

The latter findings indicate that arts and culture and isiZulu were the only subjects that rural learners knew better because they deal with their lives. Unfortunately, arts and culture was not included in the grades 10-12 NCS. The only subject that rural learners in KZN could excel in was isiZulu, indicating that the grades 10-12 NCS is biased.

5.2.2.3 Teachers' love and care towards rural school learners

More than half (53.5%) of the teachers did not consider learners from poor families as deficient. There were 23.25% teachers who were uncertain. Only 23.25% of the teachers considered rural learners as deficient. The mean score of 2.58 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that teachers rarely or sometimes considered rural learners from poor families as deficient. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.48567 (gender), 0.06946 (age), 0.11737 (experience), 0.15354 (post level), 0.86515 (type of employment) and 0.06124 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers stated that they treated RSS learners equally. They treated them as their own children. They tried by all means to support them if possible. For example, they even invited poor learners to visit their homes in towns during school holidays. They did that in order to expose RSS learners to urban life so that they can be motivated and learn new things. They also did it to show these learners that even though they come from poor families, they were also human beings who needed to be loved. Ilembe School A Teacher Two pointed out:

> *Learners of our school are poor. They come from poor families. They stay with grandparents. Their mothers are in urban areas looking for job. When we see that learners have torn uniforms and broken shoes we ask for donations from local business people. That is how we show love to these poor learners.*

Teachers mentioned that they buy learners school uniforms and shoes using donation funds and distributed them among poor learners. Teachers further stated they feel pain when they see these learners suffering because of poverty in their families.

Other findings presented in the earlier sections of this chapter indicated that teachers even shared their lunch with learners showing that they took great care for their poor learners. These findings did not support Nieto and Bode's (2010:402) observation that learners might be thought of as culturally deprived simply because they speak a language other than English and live in poverty. The reason why Nieto and Bode's (2010) view was rejected by these findings might be that teachers and learners were sharing the same Zulu traditional culture, language, customs and beliefs.

5.3 CORRELATIONS OF CHAPTER FIVE ITEMS

5.3.1 Cronbach's alpha correlations of items

The Cronbach's alpha was used to measure internal reliability of items in this chapter. Table 5.9 provides Cronbach's alpha correlation of section B.

Table 5.9 Correlation of sub-sections

B1: Average inter-item correlation: 0.08				B2: Average inter-item correlation: 0.06		
Item	**Item total correlation**	**Alpha if deleted**		**Item**	**Item total correlation**	**Alpha if deleted**
B1-1	0.01	0.43		B2-1	0.15	0.10
B1-2	0.20	0.35		B2-2	0.12	0.15
B1-3	0.11	0.39		B2-3	0.06	0.22
B1-4	0.01	0.45		B2-4	0.09	0.19
B1-5	0.22	0.34				
B1-6	0.37	0.24				
B1-7	0.31	0.27				

The Cronbach alpha of section B1 was 0.40 and the Cronbach alpha for section B2 was 0.21. Therefore, the two sets of items in section B (B1 and B2) did not seem to measure reliability constructs because alphas were too low. One cannot combine the items into one score for B1 and one score for B2. All the items were weak in terms of statistical significant correlation. It should be concluded that these items should not be added together or combined in some other way. These items were each really separated entities. The cause for low value of alphas in this study could be due to the low number of items constructs (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011: 54). This is because section B2 in the questionnaire has only four items compared to B1 with seven items. The latter could be the possible reason why alphas were too low.

5.3.2 Spearman's correlations of items

The Spearman's rank order correlation was used to test the relationship between the items of this chapter. The marked (*) correlation is significant at 0.05 (5%).

Table 5.10 Spearman's correlations of multicultural education items

	B1_1	B1_2	B1_3	B1_4	B1_5	B1_6	B1_7	B2_1	B2_2	B2_3	B2_4
B1_1	1.00										
B1_2	-0.06	1.00									
B1_3	0.183*	0.055	1.00								
B1_4	0.083	0.014	0.201*	1.000							
B1_5	0.064	0.041	0.164*	-0.103*	1.000						
B1_6	0.000	0.201*	-0.029	-0.115*	-0250*	1.000					
B1_7	-0.119*	0.265*	-0.065	-0.107*	0.148*	0.591*	1.00				
B2_1	0.144*	0.032	0.074	-0.145*	0.236*	0.275*	0.144*	1.000			
B2_2	0.035	0.060	0.090	0.052	0.018	0.032	0.018	0.076	1.000		
B2_3	-0.111*	-0.201*	-0.085	0.049	0.032	0.155*	0.147*	-0.009	0.083	1.000	
B1_4	0.003	0.019	0.045	0.120*	0.141*	0.053	0.066	0.144*	0.027	-0.041	1.00

The marked (*) correlations are significant at p<.05000.

Table 5.10 shows that each item correlated with more than three items except item B2_2. Only item B2_2 did not correlate with other items, indicating that indigenous knowledge had no relationship with other items. It therefore indicates that there was a relationship between teachers' expectations of rural learners' items and bias and racism items. Teachers' ratings show that there was positive significant correlation between English and poverty. This indicates that poverty influenced learners' poor command of English in KZN rural secondary schools. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected that poverty does not influence RSS learners' poor command of English.

5.4 SUMMARY

Findings show that teachers were able to conduct extra classes to give RSS learners more learning opportunities. However, morning classes were abandoned in some schools since learners were walking long distances on foot. This has caused them to reach home very late. This has resulted in female learners being raped on their way home. Further findings reveal that although teachers were unhappy with learners' lack of commitment in their school work, their perceptions towards RSS learners were positive. They expected RSS learners to perform at a possible highest level. However, poverty, lack of indigenous knowledge in the grades 10-12 NCS and English were some of the contributory factors to RSS learners' poor performance in matriculation examinations.

CHAPTER SIX
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
JOB SATISFACTION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is assumed as one of the mechanisms that can produce better and committed teachers. This chapter therefore provides data analysis on teachers' experiences of job satisfaction, WIPD, working conditions, the wider school community and the grades 10-12 NCS. Data from structured questionnaires, interviews, and observation schedules is provided using tables, themes and pictures.

6.2 RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

6.2.1 Teachers' experiences of job satisfaction in rural secondary schools

Table 6.1 presents data analysis on teachers' experiences of job satisfaction in RSSs.

Table 6.1 Teachers' experiences of job satisfaction in RSSs

Item	Percentage					Mean score	Std.Dev.
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**		
1.1 Teachers are happy to teach rural school learners.	12.25	26.75	22.25	28.5	10.25	2.98	1.21
1.2 Teaching in rural areas is stressful.	5.25	17	14.5	40.75	22.5	3.58	1.16
1.3 Work overload is a cause of stress.	3.25	6.75	6.5	43	40.5	4.11	1.01
1.4 Too much paperwork is a cause of dissatisfaction.	3.25	2.5	7.25	42.5	44.5	4.23	0.93
1.5 Large classes cause teachers' job dissatisfaction.	2.75	4.75	8.25	42.75	41.5	4.16	0.96
1.6 Lack of support services causes job dissatisfaction.	1.75	2.25	8.25	48	39.75	4.22	0.83
1.7 Dilapidated buildings negatively affect teachers' job satisfaction.	2.25	7.75	22	48	20	3.76	0.94
1.8 Geographical isolation of schools contributes to teacher turnover.	1.25	7.75	19.5	47.5	24	3.85	0.92
1.9 School governing body chairperson has a greater influence during teacher promotion process.	6.75	17.5	29	34	12.75	3.29	1.10
1.10 Teacher unions recognize their members for promotions.	2.25	10.5	22	44.75	20.5	3.71	0.98
1.11 Teachers choose to work in urban areas rather than rural areas.	3.25	2.25	10	38.5	46	4.22	0.95
1.12 National Professional Diploma in Education helps teachers to apply for promotional posts.	2	12.5	31	40.5	14	3.51	0.95
1.13 Teachers travel long distances to their schools.	1.75	3.5	9.25	39.25	46.25	4.25	0.89

Teachers were positive in all items except item 1.1 and item 1.9. In item 1.9, 29% of the teachers responded uncertain, indicating that many teachers were unsure about the SGB chairpersons' influence during the teachers' promotion process. Also in item 1.12, 31% of the teachers responded uncertain showing that they were not clear about the national professional diploma in education (NPDE) since some of the teachers were already qualified before the implementation of the NPDE in 2005 (Zuma, 2009:2).

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6.2.1.1 Impact of teaching in rural schools on job satisfaction

Teachers' responses show that 38.75% of the teachers indicated they were happy teaching RSS learners. There were also 39% teachers who indicated that they were unhappy teaching RSS learners. The mean score of 2.98 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that teachers were rarely or sometimes happy to teach RSS learners. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.08638 (qualification), 0.73166 (post level), 0.62829 (gender), 0.36405 (experience), 0.64849 (type of employment) and 0.55708 (age) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Teachers' responses show that 84.5% of the teachers chose to work in urban areas rather than rural areas while there were only 5.5% of the teachers who were satisfied teaching in rural areas. The mean score of 4.22 is greater than 3.49, showing that teachers chose to work in urban areas rather than in rural areas. Table 6.2 presents type of employment differences.

Table 6.2 Type of employment and choosing to work in urban schools

Type of Employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	3.00%	8.03%	88.97%
Temporary	8.00%	11.97%	80.03%

Chi-square   6.835263   df=2   p=.03279

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03279 in Table 6.2 shows significant difference since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (88.97%) than temporary teachers (80.03%) chose to work in urban areas rather than rural areas. The possible reason might be that temporary teachers' focus was to get money in order to fulfil their lowest level of basic needs, while permanent teachers were more concerned with their working environment. According to Envision Software (2007), physiological needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs provide for paying salaries that allow workers to buy life essentials such as food, while the second lower level of needs provides environment which is free from

threats. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.56768 (age), 0.21988 (qualification), 0.89370 (post level), 0.68217 (gender), and 0.07241 (experience) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (%).

An overwhelming majority of 71.5% of the teachers felt that isolation of schools contributed to teacher turnover. Only 9% of the teachers thought that isolation of schools did not cause teachers to leave their schools. There were 19.5% teachers who were uncertain. The mean score of 3.85 is greater than 3.49, indicating that geographical isolation contributed to teacher turnover. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.15406 (post level), 0.30099 (qualification), 0.84178 (age), 0.99506 (gender), 0.55861 (type of employment) and 0.19485 (experience) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that RSSTs faced more challenges than urban school teachers. The comments made by Ilembe School A principal confirmed this:

> *Working in rural areas is causing stress since working conditions are very bad. Community members are also illiterate failing to motivate their children about learning. Insufficient availability of resources and infrastructure in rural schools and in the wider community cause a lot of stress to us.*

Moreover, Ilembe School C Teacher Two commented:

> *Although we love our learners the environment under which we are working is demotivating. Learners themselves are not committed because of poverty in their households. The crime rate is also high since female learners are raped by community members. Our emotions are negatively affected by these conditions.*

Teachers mentioned that RSS learners were demotivated about learning making teachers' job more stressful. They have lesser interest in learning because of high poverty in rural households and the environment under which they were raised. Furthermore, teachers mentioned that unavailability of laboratories, libraries and EMCs caused them stress since learners were unable to do their homework, projects and assignments. The latter finding support Ngcongo's (2009:7) argument that in RSSs resources such as newspapers, magazines, telephones and electricity are normally not available. The bad condition of roads and insufficient availability of water were some of the factors raised by teachers as the causes of their stress in RSSs.

Further qualitative research findings indicate that in nine observed RSSs, thirteen teachers from 2009, 2010 and 2011 have applied for transfers to other better schools because of geographical isolation of their schools. Although the number was not high these teachers who left their schools were all qualified teachers. This situation has deprived RSSs of highly qualified teachers. Howley and Howley (2004) assert that rural schools are geographically isolated, which presents a particular problem among teachers. The reason raised by teachers was that schools were far apart from each other making networking difficult to happen. It was hard for schools to work together since they were isolated from each other. Teachers mentioned that, because of geographical isolation of schools, some of the schools were unable to work together. Empangeni School C Teacher One asserted:

> *It is hard for neighbouring schools to support each other since they are far away from each other.*

Moreover, Empangeni School A HOD stated:

> *Isolation of schools is a big problem. We are unable to network because of geographical isolation of our schools.*

The teachers stated that clusters were established to help teachers to network with other teachers. These teachers have to meet at their own time, not during school hours, and that causes a big problem since teachers of Ilembe and Empangeni were staying far away from their schools, and therefore after school hours could not be used. Isolation of schools made it difficult for teachers to meet. Other findings indicate that if teachers from other schools were invited to provide content assistance to rural schools they refused because of their geographical isolation and bad conditions of roads. Ilembe School A principal commented:

> *Geographical setting of this school is not good. It is in the far end. The road is too bad and the transport is not sufficient. Even if you want to meet other teachers, you must be absent from school, which is not good for learners you teach. If you invite other teachers to assist, it becomes a problem.*

During my observation at Umzinyathi schools, I found that there was not much isolation of neighbouring RSSs. Clusters were sometimes effectively used by these schools. The reason was that the place has a lot of mountains that have no population. Where the place was conducive for people to live, it became densely populated. This has resulted in many schools being built close to each other to cater for the community's children. It was therefore easier

for those neighbouring schools to meet in clusters although the bad condition of roads was one of their main challenges.

6.2.1.2 Teachers' workload

Teachers' responses show that 83.5% of the teachers felt that workload was a cause of stress. Only 10% of the teachers did not notice workload as a cause of stress. Only 6.5% of them were uncertain. The mean score of 4.11 is greater than 3.49, showing that workload was a cause of stress. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.78300 (gender), 0.83855 (post level), 0.15845 (post level), 0.32237 (experience), 0.41381 (type of employment) and 0.94766 (age) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Moreover, 87% of the teachers thought that too much paperwork was causing their dissatisfaction. Only 5.75% of the teachers did not feel paperwork as the cause of dissatisfaction. The mean score of 4.23 is greater than 3.49, showing that paperwork was a cause of teachers' job dissatisfaction. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.59517 (gender), 0.48800 (post level), 0.42898 (age), 0.17013 (experience), 0.51976 (type of employment) and 0.44336 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

The research findings from the qualitative study indicate that work overload was a problem since teachers were not allocated to schools according to the subject needs but post-provisioning norms (PPN) determined the number of teachers in each school. Teachers complained that they ended up working like computers. For instance it was found that one teacher was teaching mathematics, English, and history and that on its own created pressure on the teachers. This situation is frequent in small rural schools where teachers teach subjects they do not know. This situation is caused by the small number of teachers. Teachers stated that school needs were not considered when recruiting teachers. Only the number of learners (enrolment) determined the number of teachers the school was qualified to have. Empangeni School C Teacher Two supported this:

> *My workload is too heavy because of our small post-provisioning norms.*

Ilembe School B Teacher One added:

164

> *I am not happy with the workload. I am overloaded because of the post-provisioning norms. The problem is that learners are leaving our school to other schools because of our poor performance in grade twelve.*

During my observation I found that School B had achieved 57% in 2010 and 47% in 2011 in grade twelve examiantions. To be fair few parents would enrol their children in such poor performing schools when better performing schools were available. The challenge of too much workload was also pointed out by Ilembe School C Teacher One:

> *Workload is too high because of the small PPN. You can find that one teacher is teaching more than six subjects.*

Research findings indicate that even in schools which have only one subject stream such as Empangeni School A and Ilembe School A, teachers were dissatisfied with their workload although each school provided one subject stream. This indicates that it was not only the large number of learners in one class that caused too much workload. Burger (2009:2) identifies causes of teachers' dissatisfaction as intensification of workload due to policy changes and the requirements of the grades 10-12 NCS including planning, preparation of reporting recording and assessment. This means that the grades 10-12 NCS implementation process on its own was posing work overload to teachers since it has too much paperwork.

In addition, teachers complained that the National Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, promised to reduce paperwork such as learner profiles and teacher files, recording and reporting and CASS activities but it was still a problem. Teachers stated that it seemed as if the DoE was considering paperwork more than the teaching and learning process. Teachers stated that sometimes they did not go to classes because they were preparing their paperwork such as attendance registers, personal files, CASS records, lesson plans, assessment schedules, assessment records and progress reports for submission to their principals, circuits and districts. Empangeni School C Teacher One supported:

> *Paperwork is too much. There is daily preparation. There is moderation. There are many subjects to prepare for teaching. There is a lot of marking to be done. We have to prepare ourselves for IQMS. We mark classroom registers. We have to prepare and mark CASS activities.*

Ilembe School B Teacher Two complained:

> *We end up doing paperwork and fail to go to the class. That is not fair for our learners. They deserve better and more learning opportunities. But we have no option since we are judged according to our written evidence.*

Teachers indicated that they were willing to be in their class most of their time but paperwork forced them to stay in their staff room writing most of their time. Even the SMT members complained about paperwork since they had failed even to monitor teaching and learning effectively because they had to submit some papers to their circuits and districts such as annual plans, school improvement plans, school policies, safety and security policies and IQMS final scores . Umzinyathi School A HOD commented:

> *Paperwork is difficult. As teachers we have to teach learners but those who monitor us want something written. Writing is a lot of work and marking for different classes is too stressful. Paperwork has become more important than teaching learners.*

Paperwork was a big challenge to teachers' work. However, the observed subjects such as isiZulu, English and mathematics were found sufficiently marked during my observation showing that teachers were working very hard to ensure that their learners were sufficiently prepared for test and examinations. Attendance registers were fully marked. Learners' moderation files were also found well prepared and in good condition.

6.2.1.3 Impact of lack of support services

Teachers' responses indicate that 87.75% of the teachers felt that lack of support services caused their job dissatisfaction while 4% of them felt that lack of support services did not cause job dissatisfaction. The mean score of 4.22 is greater than 3.49, indicating that lack of support services was causing teachers' dissatisfaction. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.48865 (gender), 0.17969 (qualification), 0.43872 (age), 0.06143 (experience), 0.69239 (type of employment) and 0.55389 (post level) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers complained that they were not receiving the attention they deserved from their district officials. The only thing that the DoE officials did was to come to school to see how teachers were teaching without any guidance and support. This shows that some district officials have no strategy to support teachers in RSSs. Teachers indicated that subject advisers only came to schools to find mistakes. Similarly, Zuma, the current South African President (in Bauer, 2012) during the 53rd ANC national conference stated:

> *I want to see inspectors back. Some might oppose this. Some of our friends in labour, even, do not like this idea. If they don't, then we will just send them finding teachers not doing their work.*

These comments by President Zuma confirm that the DoE officials' visit to schools is not to support teachers but the aim is to find teachers' mistakes. On the other hand, teachers in this study indicated that subject advisers failed even to provide learning schedules for teachers that were reasonable. They also pointed out that subject advisers sometimes copied learning schedules from textbooks and provided them to teachers. Such learning schedules could not be used when using many textbooks since they were for only a specific textbook.

Shortage of workshops was also identified as one of the shortcomings on the part of the DoE since teachers cannot teach successfully if they lack relevant knowledge and skills. SMT members complained that they were not supported in dealing with problems in schools. The only thing that the DoE was doing was to threaten them with demotion if their schools failed to achieve good results in grade twelve. This is supported by Empangeni School B principal:

> *We are not happy about the support we receive from the Department of Education. The Department of Education officials do not come to schools to provide support. As I speak to you, our teachers are insufficiently developed in grades 10-12 NCS but nobody from the department is willing to address the gap. If learners fail in the grade twelve examinations, officials will come to school shouting at and threatening us.*

The post level one (PL1) teachers complained that SMTs themselves were unable to provide support to teachers since they were not sufficiently developed to support teachers emotionally, academically, socially and psychologically. SMTs were unable to provide counselling sessions to stressed teachers since they were also not developed in that area. This situation has resulted in a huge number of teachers taking long sick leave, leaving learners with supplement teachers who have insufficient teaching expertise.

6.2.1.4 Dilapidated buildings negatively affect teachers' job satisfaction

Teachers' responses show that 68% of the teachers indicated that dilapidated buildings negatively affected their job satisfaction while only 10% of them felt that dilapidated building did not negatively affect their job satisfaction. There were 22% of the teachers who were uncertain. The mean score of 3.76 is greater than 3.49, indicating that dilapidated buildings negatively affected teachers' job satisfaction. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.05718 (gender), 0.91544 (post level), 0.30811 (age), 0.09507 (experience) and 0.25062 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.3 provides type of employment differences.

Table 6.3 Type of employment and dilapidated buildings

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	8.02%	15.98%	76.00%
Temporary	11.98%	28.02%	60.00%

Chi-square   10.98621   df=2   p=.00412

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.00412 shows a significant difference since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were more permanent teachers (76%) than temporary teachers (60%) indicating that dilapidated buildings affected teachers' job satisfaction. The possible reason might be that the permanent teachers' focus was on their teaching environment to make teacher teaching effective while temporary teachers were focusing on the lower levels (physiological) of needs (pay salaries to buy food) presented in Maslow's hierarchy of needs in Chapter Two page 48 of this study.

 Qualitative research findings show that all schools (100%) where interviews and observation took place were built up of blocks and corrugated iron. However, the findings indicate that the buildings of Empangeni, Umzinyathi and Ilembe district RSSs were not in good condition. These schools have dilapidated floors and walls. Teachers pointed out that their learners destroyed the school buildings because of lack of discipline. During my observation I discovered that windows and doors were broken. Teachers mentioned that doors and windows were also broken by cattle herders with the assistance of school learners after school hours when nobody was inside the school. However, there was no clear reason provided rather than simply vandalism. During my observation, I found that teachers were working on dusty floors which were dangerous for those who have sinusitis and the potential of tuberculosis and asthma was also expected in such conditions. Schools of such structures are forced to abandon classes on windy and rainy days (Risimati, 2007:252). Similarly, teachers pointed out that classes were abandoned at Empangeni School A, School B and School C, and Ilembe School B and School C during rainy and cold windy days since windows and doors were broken and roofs were leaking. During my observation, I found that all the toilets were pit toilets without flushing water since there was no running water. These toilets were dirty and dilapidated. Some of them were already full making it very difficult for learners to visit the toilets.

Picture 6.1 Bad buildings

Picture 6.1 shows an eight-classroom secondary school. All eight classrooms have broken windows. Four of the classrooms have no doors. The furniture was broken and dilapidated. Classes have not even a single textbook. There was also a dumping zone and long grass more than one metre tall where mice and snakes could hide in front of a dilapidated block of two classrooms. Such bad buildings of rural schools are more likely to cause job dissatisfaction among the RSSTs. Empangeni School A Teacher Two asserted:

> *SMTs are responsible to make renovations. As teachers, we are pushed to work in such bad condition; you can see how bad our school is. This causes the huge job dissatisfaction among ourselves.*

Furthermore, Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two showed her dissatisfaction:

> *Buildings are not hundred percent conducive. We have the problem of heat at Umsinga area during the summer. There are windows in this school that do not open at all. There are classes without windows that can be opened. When it is hot it is hard to teach.*

Teachers indicated that the community members and some of their learners vandalized schools due to simply vandalism. Lumadi (2008) points out that dilapidated buildings and lack of DoE support are a legacy of the apartheid regime when Black South Africans received poor education with inadequate resources. Only one out of nine schools was found in good condition. This school was at Umzinyathi district where interviews and observation were conducted. There was not even a single window that was broken. Both teachers told the same story when asked why windows were not broken. They stated that their learners were sufficiently disciplined. The level of crime in the area was very low. Learners came from families where values were promoted.

6.2.1.5 Influence of SGB chairperson during teacher promotions

Teachers' ratings show that 46.75% of the teachers felt that the SGB chairperson has greater influence during teacher promotion process while 29% of them were uncertain. There were

24.25% teachers who viewed that the chairperson has no influence during the teacher promotion process. The mean score of 3.29 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that the SGB chairperson rarely or sometimes has influence during the teacher promotion process. Table 6.4 presents experience differences.

Table 6.4 Experience and SGB chairpersons' influence

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	21.46%	47.36%	31.18%
3-4 years	21.43%	22.34%	56.23%
5-9 years	21.81%	29.13%	49.06%
10-19 years	28.57%	26.39%	45.04%
20+ years	27.98%	19.78%	52.24%

Chi-square   18.38698   df=8   p=.01851

There was a significant difference among experienced groups since the Pearson chi-square p-value of 0.01851 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years' experience group (31.18%) was the least group experiencing the SGB chairperson influence during teacher promotion. The more experienced teachers such as 3-4 years (56.23%), 5-9 years (49.06%), 10-19 years (45.04%) and 20+ years (52.24%), experienced the chairperson influence more than the new teachers. The possible reason might be that more experienced teachers are more likely to have applied for promotional posts and experienced the influence of the SGB chairperson during the teacher promotion processes. On the other hand, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.53158 (gender), 0.14466 (post level), 0.37972 (age), 0.38919 (type of employment) and 0.21876 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers pointed out that the people who were found to be biased during teacher promotion interviews were chairpersons and their principals. These findings support Dehaloo's (2008:81) findings in KZN schools that the SGB chairperson influenced the other SGB members when it came to choosing the candidates for promotion posts. However, the principal was not mentioned in the latter study as one of the SGB members who had a greater influence in teacher promotion processes. However, Empangeni School B Teacher Two complained about his principal's comments using an isiZulu proverb:

> *Inkankane lidla umsundu wangakubo (Available promotion positions are only reserved for homegrown teachers).*

This is also supported by Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two:

> *School governing bodies have a big role. For example, nobody from outside can compete with me in my own community because I have people who favour me to be promoted since they know my parents and my family. Even if you score the best points in the interviews but if you are coming from other places you will be shifted to number three during the school governing body's recommendation process.*

This means that teachers from other areas had no chance to be appointed to management positions. This is supported by my observation at all participating schools. I found that most principals were the local people. In one school at Umzinyathi I found that the principal and deputy principal had the same surname. When I enquire how it happened, the principal told me that the wider school community was their clan. Their surname was the dominant surname in the area. This is supported by Empangeni School C Teacher One:

> *School governing bodies are biased. They promote only homegrown teachers. They do not consider qualifications and performance.*

Teachers complained that principals dominated the promotion process using SGB chairpersons. They stated that SGB chairpersons were told by principals what to do. They did not decide on their own. Furthermore, teachers stated that principals undermine SGBs. Teachers' pointed out that other SGB members were sidelined by principals during promotions. The principals and the chairpersons were the key role players in the teacher promotion process. Teachers also mentioned that SGB members were mostly uneducated and did not understand English. On the other hand, the curricula vitae (CVs) were written in English. This means that SGB members did not understand candidates' CVs during the short listing and interviewing process since everything was done in English. Therefore, the final decisions were taken by those who understand English, most possibly the principal and sometimes with the SGB chairperson. Teachers showed their dissatisfaction about that the principals were the only interview translators and interpreters of which in many instances their translations and interpretations were in favour of their preferred candidates. That has resulted in undeserving candidates being promoted over deserving candidates, and therefore this can be concluded that promotions in RSSs were not necessarily based on candidates' merit but favouritism and biasness were the dominant processes.

The teachers further pointed out that SGBs' chairpersons promoted people they loved, not based on their performance. Sometimes chairpersons were bribed by candidates. However,

what I noticed was that two of the teachers from different schools became uncomfortable when answering about the influence of the SGB chairpersons during the promotion processes. One teacher of Umzinyathi and one teacher of Empangeni district schools sometimes became emotional during the interviews indicating that this question was directly touching their own personal experiences. When enquired more information to find out about the whole story, the interviewed teachers ended up revealing that they were unfairly treated during the promotion processes by the school SGB chairpersons and their principals. These teachers did not want to elaborate on this issue, meaning that the question was touching the sensitive button. They showed their dissatisfaction about their schools. They were planning even to leave their schools if they could find any vacant positions in other schools. Umzinyathi School A HOD also concurred:

> *School governing body chairpersons are biased and corrupt during the teacher promotion process. They accept money from candidates and favour their relatives and friends. They always come with their own people to be promoted.*

The latter comments suggest that there are principals, deputy principals and HODs who do not deserve their current positions since they were unfairly promoted. This might be one of the reasons why RSSs' performance is poor in matriculation examinations.

Furthermore, 65.25% of the teachers viewed that teacher trade unions were disrupting the teacher promotion process. Only 12.75% of the teachers felt that teacher trade unions have no impact. There were 22% teachers who felt that trade unions rarely or sometimes disrupted teacher promotion process. The mean score of 3.71 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teacher trade unions were disrupting the promotion process in KZN rural secondary schools. Table 6.5 presents post level differences.

Table 6.5 Post level and teacher trade unions

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher	12.77%	30.15%	57.08%
SMT	12.73%	13.85%	73.42%

Chi-square   9.076618   df=2   p=.01074

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows statistical significant difference between post level and trade union involvement in the promotion process of teachers since the p-value of 0.01074 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). SMT members, including HODs, deputy principals and principals, were more dissatisfied (73.42%) compared to PL1 teachers (57.08%) about the

trade union involvement in the teacher promotion process. The possible reason might be that SMTs are the only school structure which knows what type of the teacher the school needs. Another reason might be that SMTs members have more opportunities to experience the trade union's influence than PL1 teachers since all of them have applied for promotion posts. On the other hand, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.55513 (gender), 0.57007 (age), 0.09919 (experience) and 0.85280 (qualification) and 0.77466 (type of employment) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers mentioned that teacher trade unions were disrupting the teacher promotion process. Teachers pointed out that the trade unions' involvement in promotion processes was disruptive rather than constructive. Unions recommended their members who were active in union matters. Similarly, a recent study by Zengele (2009:ii) found that during the filling of promotional posts, teacher unions tended to use undue influence to have their members promoted to the detriment of deserving and better qualified teachers. The comments by Empangeni School B Teacher Two supported these findings:

> *Teachers' trade unions are disruptive when it comes to teacher promotions since they want only their members promoted. Many of those members are only active in union matters. Unions do not consider teachers' level of qualifications, experience and expertise. As long as teachers are active in union matters they have greater opportunities for promotions.*

The latter comments indicate that unions were disruptive since they wanted only their members to get promoted. Teachers pointed out that many of those members were active in union matters not in school matters and that demotivated good performing teachers. Active trade union members had greater promotion opportunities. Those teachers who were inactive in union matters had lesser promotion opportunities. Teachers pointed out that some union members were sidelined by their own unions if they were inactive in union matters. Trade union office bearers had more promotional opportunities than ordinary union members. Consequently, good teachers may become poor performers due to the latter situation.

6.2.1.6 Impact of the national professional diploma in education

Teachers' responses indicate that 14.5% of the teachers did not notice NPDE as an effective work-integrated professional development programme (WIPDP). There were 54.5% of the teachers who thought that the NPDE has helped them to apply for promotional posts. The

mean score of 3.52 is greater than 3.49, showing that NPDE has helped teachers to apply for promotional posts. Table 6.6 presents age differences.

Table 6.6 Age and NPDE

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	15.08%	34.79%	50.13%
30-39 years	17.20%	21.43%	61.37%
40+years	11.22%	36.78%	52.00%

Chi-square   10.89183   df=4   p=.02781

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows significant difference among age groups since the p-value of 0.02781 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 30 -39 years group (middle-aged group) of teachers (61.37%) was the group most satisfied with the NPDE. The possible reason might be that they were in the middle of their teaching career and the NPDE has helped them to become qualified teachers. On the other hand, the 20-29 years group (50.13%) was the least satisfied. These teachers were the youngest group which comprised teachers who had not yet completed the NPDE. The 40+ years group of teachers was less satisfied (52%) since the NPDE is the new WIPDP of which most of the eldest teachers were not exposed to. On the other hand, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.06504 (gender) 0.80540 (qualification), 0.89669 (experience), 0.73867 (type of employment) and 0.82672 (post level) show no statistical significant difference between age and NPDE since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, the teachers stated that teachers who were unqualified or under-qualified were studying NPDE through the University of KwaZulu Natal, Unisa and North West University in order to be qualified teachers. This is in line with Zuma's (2009:67) argument that the benefit of NPDE is that it is equivalent to REQV13 which is a minimum requirement for promotional posts. Umzinyathi School B Teacher Two commented:

> *Teachers gain confidence after completing the NPDE. They become qualified and able to apply for promotional positions. The NPDE secures teachers' teaching positions and creates promotional opportunities for teachers.*

These teachers were motivated by senior and qualified teachers who were in promotional positions (HODs, deputy principals and principals) because they possessed the NPDE qualification as the basic qualification to be a qualified teacher. Most qualified teachers in

RSSs thanked the government for the introduction of the NPDE since they managed to study further although HEIs were very far from rural areas where this study took place. Therefore, the NPDE was the qualification that RSSTs studied to become qualified.

6.2.1.7 Teachers travel long distances to their schools

Teachers' responses show that 85.5% of the teachers indicated that they travelled long distances, while 5.25% of the teachers stated that they did not travel long distances. Only 9.25% of the teachers were uncertain. The mean score of 4.25 is greater than 3.49, showing that teachers travelled long distances to their schools. Table 6.7 presents gender differences.

Table 6.7 Gender and teachers' travelling distances

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	7.30%	11.21%	81.49%
Female	3.20%	7.29%	89.51%

Chi-square   6.79483   df=2   p=.04785

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.04785 indicates a statistical significant difference between female teachers and male teachers since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (89.51%) than male teachers (81.49%) viewed that they travelled long distances. This might be caused by that females were not comfortable to be away from home since they were the ones who were more concerned with their children and house activities such as cooking, cleaning and washing than male teachers. On the other hand, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.43077 (post level), 0.64180 (age), 0.49135 (experience) (0.77487 (type of employment) and 0.94650 (qualification) show no statistical significant difference since p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings reveal that most RSSTs were staying far away from their schools. This is because teachers' school cottages were insufficiently available. Those few available community members' cottages were not safe for teachers to stay. The criminals have attacked teachers during the night. When teachers were away, their cottages were broken into and their valuables were stolen. Therefore, they have no other option than to stay in nearby towns. For example Empangeni district teachers stayed at Eshowe (40 km away), Mandeni (38 km away) and Ilembe district teachers stayed in Stanger (50 km away). Some teachers were travelling daily from Durban to Ntunjambili schools (Ilembe district), which is more than 170 km per single journey. Empangeni School B principal stated:

School and community cottages are not safe since criminals had stolen teachers'
valuables and that had led teachers to vacate them, opting to travel long distances
from nearby towns such as Mandeni and Eshowe.

Furthermore, teachers indicated that family issues have caused them to stay far from their
schools. Some teachers were staying far from their schools to protect their marriages. Other
teachers, more particularly female teachers, were single parents and therefore they have to
look after their children. The comments by Empangeni School C Teacher One supported:

I cannot stay in the cottage leaving my spouse behind since nobody is trusted
nowadays. My kids also need their mother's love. If I am not closer to them they will
be left vulnerable. I have to take good care of them. They need me all the time.

These teachers reached schools tired and what performance can one expect from such
teachers? The disadvantage of this situation is that extra classes were impossible and
ineffective to take place. Transport was inadequately available in these areas. Teachers stated
that the only transport available to towns was in the morning, and in the afternoon the only
transport available was from towns to rural areas. It was therefore impossible to go to town
during the midday.

6.2.2 Work integrated professional development needs

Table 6.8 presents statistical data analysis of this study on teachers' WIPD.

Table 6.8 Teachers' responses on WIPD needs

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
2.1 There is possibility for growth in my job.	6.5	11	14.5	49.5	18.5	3.63	1.10
2.2 Teachers are empowered to participate in decision-making processes.	10	16.5	16.5	45	12	3.33	1.18
2.3 Current professional development PD process satisfies teachers.	7	20.25	27.5	40	5.25	3.16	1.03
2.4 We have plenty of PD opportunities.	8	25.5	25.25	35.25	6	3.06	1.08
2.5 My job is stimulating.	5.75	18	22.75	43.75	9.75	3.34	1.06

Teachers' responses show that 2.1 was the only item with positive responses. In all other
items, teachers' responses indicate that WIPDs were rarely or sometimes provided to RSSTs.
This indicates that WIPDs were insufficiently provided to RSSTs in KZN.

6.2.2.1 Teachers and their job

Teachers' responses show that 53.5% of the teachers were stimulated by their job. There were 23.75% of the teachers who were not stimulated by their job. The mean score of 3.34 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that teachers were rarely or sometimes stimulated by their teaching job. Table 6.9 presents qualification differences.

Table 6.9 Qualification and job stimulation

Qualification	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Grade 12 or lower	28.30%	11.70%	60.00%
Under-qualified	14.39%	35.61%	50.00%
Diploma	21.65%	25.85%	52.50%
Degree	30.66%	17.84%	51.50%

Chi-square   14.26176   df=6   p=.02684

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.02684 shows significant difference since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). Grade 12 or lower teachers were the most stimulated group (60.00%) in their teaching job. The teachers holding degrees were among the least stimulated teachers (52.65%). Findings indicate that the more qualifications achieved the less satisfied teachers become. The possible reason may be that highly qualified teachers have more promotion ambitions than less qualified teachers. Unfortunately, there are few promotion opportunities in the education sector. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.11682 (type of employment), 0.26255 (post level), 0.42069 (experience), 0.12589 (gender), and 0.51581 (age) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that the status of teachers at Empangeni and Ilembe district RSSs was bad in their wider school communities. The decline of teachers' status was caused in some instances by teachers themselves. The comments by Empangeni School B principal stated how:

> *Teaching status is not good since teachers themselves make bad things. If teachers respect themselves the community will respect them. Sometimes teachers drink alcohol with learners or members of the school community or sometimes fall in love with learners. In other cases, teachers are reported raping learners.*

At Empangeni and Ilembe district schools, teachers mentioned that teaching was not a respected profession as it used to be in the past. The reasons identified by teachers were that in some instances teachers smoked and drank alcohol with learners. The abolition of corporal

punishment was also identified as one of the contributory factors that negatively impacted on the status of the teaching profession. Teachers stated that they had no authority over their rude and naughty learners. They further pointed out that they were walking on foot like learners since they were unable to buy cars. The cause was that they were underpaid. That was one of the reasons why teachers had financial problems since they wanted to meet the status they thought they should have in the community. The latter findings are in line with Armstrong's (2009:29) findings that the salary structure of the South African teaching force is therefore not conducive to attract most highly qualified teachers. Empangeni School C Teacher Two comments concurred:

> *Learners smoke and drink beer in front of us since we have no full power to punish them. This is because our status is low in these communities since we walk on foot like these learners. We also borrow money from these learners' parents causing us to be disrespected by their children and community members. They cannot give us respect we deserve since we are underpaid, and they know that we are poor.*

One cannot expect teachers' to be respected if learners and their parents are aware that they are struggling financially. Teachers also reported that in some cases teachers were unable to pay back in time the money they owed community money lenders (omashonisa). As a result, in some cases teachers were being visited during school hours by these money lenders to pay back their money. The latter situation has ruined teachers' reputation and dignity in these district rural schools.

On the other hand, findings indicate that the status of teachers was good at Umzinyathi district schools. Teachers were respected in this place because they were perceived as the torch bearers in the community they served. Teachers were satisfied that they were teachers at Umzinyathi district. Community members at Umzinyathi RSSs perceived teachers as the light and development agents in their areas.

Further findings show that teachers were unable to buy houses because the government housing subsidy was too small: R900 per month. Ironically, teachers were not allowed to own the government's low cost subsidized houses. Teachers therefore complained that they had no opportunity to own a house because it was important for their quality of life. Further findings indicate that teachers showed their dissatisfaction in terms of their postgraduate qualifications such as honours, master's and doctoral degrees which were not paid for by their employer (DoE). Umzinyathi School C Teacher Two stated:

What is disappointing is that our trade unions are busy with political matters. They are ineffective. They fail to force the government to pay for our postgraduate degrees which we have worked hard for. They also have failed to make the government pay sufficient housing subsidy. We are not allowed to own government's low cost houses. We end up living in shacks. Our situation is disappointing.

In addition to teachers' dissatisfaction was that the medical aids were not fairly and equally subsidized; only government employees medical scheme (GEMS) was receiving greater consideration. Teachers mentioned that those teachers who were not in GEMS were paying more money since their medical aid companies were not sufficiently subsidized as GEMS. Teachers further pointed out that even though they did not like to be teachers they were still being teachers since employment opportunities were not available in other fields. The latter shows that teaching profession was not stimulating; as a result, there were teachers stated that they were intending to quit the teaching profession.

Furthermore, research by Mello (2008:39) discovered that PD increases teachers' job satisfaction. In order to prepare and support teachers to do their job at Empangeni, Ilembe and Umzinyathi rural district schools, teachers' responses indicate that 68% of the teachers noticed opportunities for growth in their job, meaning that there was possibility for growth. Only 17.5% teachers did not notice any growth opportunity. The mean score of 3.63 is greater than 3.49, indicating that there was possibility for growth in teachers' jobs. Table 6.10 presents age differences.

Table 6.10 Age and growth opportunities

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	23.20%	16.91%	59.89%
30-39 years	12.00%	16.67%	71.33%
40+years	17.30%	9.92%	72.78%

Chi-square   9.997762   df=4   p=.04047

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference among the age groups regarding growth opportunities since the p-value of 0.04047 was less than 0.05 (5%). The youngest group (20-29 years) was the least satisfied group (59.83%) with growth opportunities. The possible reason might be that they were all PL1 teachers who did not notice any growth in their teaching career. The 40+ years of teachers was the most satisfied group (72.78%). The reason might be that most SMT members and well qualified teachers

were 40+ years old. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.20486 (gender), 0.78844 (type of employment), 0.54485 (qualification), 0.06417 (experience) and 0.45381 (post level) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that all teachers, including the SMT members, pointed out that although opportunities to grow were available they were ineffective since teachers were not fairly provided with them. Research findings show that old SMT members were not developed; only the newly appointed SMT members were developed once after promotion without any ongoing PDPs. On the other side, PL1 teachers were not given sufficient opportunities to grow. However, all SMT members interviewed stated that they have chances to grow since they have the opportunities to exercise their management skills when supervising teachers' work. They have authority and power but without proper guidance from the circuit and district officials. The comments by Empangeni School A HOD supported:

> *Yes, there are opportunities for growth because we are a small school; improving the school will make us grow.*

The latter comments showed a positive attitude towards her school. However, other PL1 teachers in the study indicated that even though these opportunities were provided to them they were limited. Some teachers saw opportunities in their school being reserved for certain individuals which led to their job dissatisfaction. Opportunities for growth for PL1 teachers were very few. The comments by Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two supported this:

> *Yes, I am insufficiently empowered to do my job. Sometimes if I come with suggestions or ideas they are ignored by the SMT members without reasons. I think being in post level one you have no opportunity to grow since what you suggest is ignored.*

Furthermore, Empangeni School A Teacher One commented:

> *There are plenty of opportunities to grow if you are a teacher, but it depends on principals. Principals tend to provide opportunities to people they like. Even if you misbehave or you are a poor performer, as long as you are a principal's informer, chances for promotion are yours.*

It can therefore be concluded that there were growth opportunities for both SMTs and PL1 teachers. Unfortunately, these opportunities were insufficiently provided to SMTs. On the other hand, PL1 teachers' growth opportunities were unfairly provided. Principals were biased when promoting teachers which contributed to teachers' job dissatisfaction.

6.2.2.2 Teachers' participation in decision-making processes

Teachers' ratings show that 57% of the teachers felt that they were empowered to participate in decision-making processes while 26.5% of them felt that opportunities to participate in decision-making were not provided. The mean score of 3.33 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that teachers' participation in decision–making processes was rarely or sometimes considered. Table 6.11 presents gender differences.

Table 6.11 Gender and teacher empowerment

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	20.60%	15.40%	64.00%
Female	32.40%	17.60%	50.00%

Chi-square   8.027932   df=2   p=.01806

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.01806 shows a statistically significant difference between gender and teacher involvement in decision-making since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were 32.40% female teachers compared to 20.60% male teachers who viewed that their involvement was not considered. On the other hand, 64.00% male teachers compared to 50.00% female teachers indicated that they were involved in decision-making processes. The possible reason may be that in most observed RSSs (8 out of 9) principals were male teachers (2=Empangeni, 3=Ilembe and 3=Umzinyathi) of which female teachers were uncomfortable to demand their participation in decision-making processes. This situation might also be based on the Zulu culture that females are not involved in decision-making processes in their communities. This culture is still in practice in KZN rural areas. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.26882 (age), 0.28790 (qualification), 0.87632 (experience), 0.63218 (type of employment) and 0.35103 (post level) show no statistically significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

According to Moore et al. (2010:26), people who exhibit the need for power have a desire to be influential and want to make input. However, the qualitative findings indicate that all PL1 teachers interviewed were not empowered to do their work. They mentioned that they were not fully involved in school decision-making processes. Only the SMT members made decisions for teachers. PL1 teachers complained that work distribution was made without teachers' involvement. They further pointed out that in some instances HODs drew timetables alone ignoring teachers' participation. Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two stated the findings:

> *School decisions are made without us as post level one teachers. The school management team decides alone. For us is to implement decisions taken without our involvement. We are not considered at all. Even if you raise an important idea, your idea is ignored because you are a post level one teacher.*

The comments by Umzinyathi School C HOD confirmed the latter:

> *We do not always involve teachers when important decisions of the school are made. Only the SMT members are allowed to make important school decisions because they are school managers. We do it to save time since teachers are overloaded.*

Saving time in the expense of teacher involvement when school important decisions are taken is unacceptable since they might resist decision made without their involvement. That might result in important school programmes being ineffectively implemented.

However, teachers showed satisfaction about their autonomy since they did their work without any interference. The comments by Empangeni School B Teacher Two supported:

> *I take full responsibility of my job. I am aware that I could be held accountable when learners fail to perform accordingly. I do my work without any interference by the principal or the HOD. I only report to them and ask assistance when needed.*

Teachers stated that they only asked assistance when needed. Although most of the decisions were made without their engagement teachers showed satisfaction with their work independence. The latter findings are in line with Cabrita and Perista's (2007:14) argument that greater teachers' autonomy is associated with greater job satisfaction.

6.2.2.3 Availability of PD opportunities

Responses indicate that 41.25% teachers viewed that they had PD opportunities. There were 33.5% teachers who viewed that PD opportunities were not available. There were 25.25% teachers who were undecided. The mean score of 3.06 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing average responses by teachers, meaning that PD opportunities were available at average level. Table 6.12 presents gender differences on the availability of PD opportunities.

Table 6.12 Gender and PD opportunities

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	27.20%	26.65%	46.15%
Female	39.80%	23.85%	36.35%

Chi-square   6.841221   df=2   p=.03269

There was a statistically significant difference between gender and the availability of PDPs since the Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03269 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). Female teachers (39.80%) were more dissatisfied with their PDPs than male teachers (27.20%), while 46.15% males compared to 36.35% females viewed that PDPs were available. These findings are similar to Abd-El Fattah's (2010:19) findings that female teachers were less satisfied with their job than male teachers. The possible reasons may be that most male teachers were in management positions and most females were PL1 teachers. For instance in nine observed RSSs there were eight male principals and one female principal. Furthermore, in nine observed schools with fourteen HODs (5=Empangeni, 3=Ilembe, 6=Umzinyathi), there were only three female HODs and eleven male HODs. In addition, there were only three deputy principals in nine observed RSSs, of which all of them were male teachers. Female teachers may see themselves as ill-treated when it comes to teacher promotions and that might be the reason they noticed less development opportunity than male teachers. However, the Pearson's chi-square p–values of 0.79573 (age), 0.13565 (qualification), 0.11516 (experience), 0.09105 (type of employment) and 0.35103 (post level) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, the teachers stated that there were few development opportunities for them to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. Ilembe School B Teacher One stated:

> *The teachers' development workshop in the grades 10-12 NCS was only conducted for one to two days which was insufficient.*

Furthermore, Ilembe School Teachers Two asserted:
> *We do not meet often for development sessions since our HODs are also ineffective and lack subject and content expertise. As a result, they are unable to provide us with expertise relevant to the grades 10-12 NCS. Subject advisers also do not visit schools that are too far from the tar roads because the conditions of the roads are too bad.*

Teachers mentioned that development opportunities in RSSs were very slim. Teachers further pointed out that they could not meet during their spare time because of geographical isolation of schools. Even when they were invited to attend workshops, the transport was insufficiently available in rural areas. Consequently, some teachers failed to attend workshops, particularly those workshops that were held after twelve noon, since the KZNDoE has abolished workshops that are conducted during the school hours.

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6.2.3 Working conditions

It is believed that working conditions are one of the factors that contribute to teachers' levels of job satisfaction. Table 6.13 presents teachers' responses on RSS working conditions.

Table 6.13 Teachers' working conditions

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
3.1 There are few teaching and learning resources.	6.75	11.5	7.75	43.75	30.25	3.79	1.19
3.2 Our school is not safe.	7.5	25.5	16.5	31.25	19.25	3.29	1.25
3.3 There is a good relationship between among colleagues.	5	9	16.5	48	21.5	3.72	1.06
3.4 Electricity supply is a problem.	16.25	34.75	10	25.5	13.5	2.85	1.33
3.5 Water supply is problem.	6	12	10	36.25	35.75	3.84	1.21
3.6 Learner behaviour is a problem.	3.75	16	13.5	40.5	26.25	3.70	1.13
3.7 Learner-teacher ratio is a problem.	5.5	12.25	16	42	24.25	3.67	1.13
3.8 There are inadequate computer facilities.	5	6.5	3.75	34.25	50.5	4.19	1.10
3.9 There are in adequate library facilities.	4.5	6.25	5.25	28.25	55.75	4.25	1.10
3.10 There are inadequate laboratory facilities.	4.75	4.25	8.75	24.75	57.5	4.26	1.09
3.11 Classrooms are not conducive for learning and teaching.	4.75	19.75	16.25	30.25	29	3.59	1.23

In the nine items, teachers indicated that they were not happy with their RSS working environment since it was not conducive for effective teaching and learning. Teachers' responses in item 3.2 and item 3.4 were at average level.

6.2.3.1 Shortage of resources

Table 6.13 indicates that the working conditions in RSSs were not conducive since research findings show that 74% of the teachers felt that there were insufficient resources in RSSs. Only 18.25% of the teachers felt that there were sufficient resources. The mean score of 3.79 is greater than 3.49, indicating that resources were very few in RSSs. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.25646 (gender), 0.38138 (post level), 0.26882 (age), 0.82733 (experience), 0.76370 (type of employment) and 0.19397 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Furthermore, teachers' responses show that 51% of the teachers viewed that electricity was not a problem. Only 39% of the teachers viewed that electricity was a problem. The mean score of 2.85 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that electricity was rarely or

sometimes a problem in RSSs. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.64019 (age), 0.78998 (experience) 0.99372 (qualification), 0.15614 (type of employment) and 0.55643 (gender) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.14 presents post level differences.

Table 6.14 Post level and electricity

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	46.00%	1600%	38.00%
SMT	56.00%	4.00%	40.00%

Chi-square   8.039683   df=2   p=.01796

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between post level and electricity supply since the p-value of 0.01796 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More SMTs (56%) compared to PL1 teachers (46) did not feel that electricity supply was a problem. The possible reason may be that SMTs have the responsibility to provide resources to teachers. Therefore, if there was a shortage of resources in school SMT members were the first to be blamed by teachers. On the other hand, more PL1 teachers (16%) than SMTs (4%) were neutral. Reason may be that PL1 teachers were uncertain about the availability of electricity since in some schools generators and solar panels were used to generate power. During my observation, I found that all solar panels have been stolen by criminals and generators needed a lot of repairs, making it difficult for teachers to get power to do their job.

The teachers' ratings show that 72% of the teachers felt that water supply was a problem. Only 18% of the teachers indicated that water was not a problem. The mean score of 3.84 is greater than 3.49, indicating that water supply was a problem in RSSs. Table 6.15 presents gender differences on water supply.

Table 6.15 Gender and water supply

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	14.11%	7.89%	78.00%
Female	21.89%	12.11%	66.00%

Chi-square   7.262971   df=2   p=.02648

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference since the p-value of 0.02648 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). Male teachers (78%) were more dissatisfied

with water supply than females (66%). There were 21.89% females compared to 14.11% males who viewed that water supply was not a problem. The possible reason might be that female teachers in KZN rural schools did not rely on school water since they carried their own juices and commercial water to school. As a result, they were less affected by water shortage than male teachers. Table 6.16 presents age differences on water supply.

Table 6.16 Age and water supply

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	23.15%	13.54%	63.31%
30-39 years	10.13%	10.56%	79.31%
40+ years	20.72%	5.90%	73.38%
Chi-square	14.55149	df=4	p=.00573

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference among age groups since the p-value of 0.00573 was less than 0.05 (5 %). The 20-29 years group was the least dissatisfied (63.31%) about the shortage of water. The possible reason might be that they were new in rural areas and have less experience about the shortage of water. The 30-39 years group was the most dissatisfied group (79.31%) since they have more experience of working in rural areas and they were fully aware of the rural school problems. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.46921 (post level), 0.20411 (experience), 0.32713 (type of employment) and 0.78546 (qualification) indicate no statistically significant difference regarding water supply since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that teaching aids were not available in classrooms. I observed that charts were not hung on the walls to arouse learners' interest. Teachers complained that they ordered these teaching aids every year but they did not receive them. Principals were blamed by teachers for not making follow-up why teaching aids were not delivered in schools. Resources were found in short supply. There were no learner computers in order for learners to learn computer literacy. In support, James (2008:6) states that teaching and learning in KZN rural schools is hampered by lack of equipment such as science kits, computers with internet, maps, textbooks, references and televisions with satellite dishes. The comments by Ilembe School A principal supported the findings:

> *Norms and standards funds that the government is providing to schools are*
> *inadequate for buying teaching and learning resources. Schools are unable to use*

these funds to buy resources that schools need. The reason is that funds that are allocated to buy resources from norms and standards funds are too small.

During my observation, I discovered that internet connectivity was not available in all nine participating schools. Textbooks were insufficiently available. A few available textbooks were lying on the floor dirty and torn since cupboards were broken and in some schools were not available. Stationery was available but insufficient. Furniture was found in good order and sufficient except at Empangeni School A and School C where everything was dilapidated and vandalized. The grades 10-12 NCS subject statements were sufficiently available. Teaching was found to be traditional since it was teacher-based. Learners were not actively engaged in their learning since overhead projectors were not available for teachers to use innovative methods of teaching and learning.

Despite that there was insufficient availability of resources there were some interesting research findings at Umsinga RSSs. All six RSSs which participated in this study at Umsinga were found in good condition to produce better results despite that they were situated in the poverty stricken communities. For instance, all schools have computers for administration purposes. There were photocopiers. Umzinyathi School B had a huge neat, yet to be used computer building for learners. All SMT members have their own computers. The HODs' computers were for their subject teachers.

During the distribution and collection of questionnaires, I discovered that electricity was available in most schools. Only ten schools out of fifty schools had no electricity. There were three at Empangeni and seven at Ilembe district. This shows that the government was partly successful in its goal to electrify schools, although there were still schools without electricity. During interviews and observation processes in nine schools, Empangeni School A, and Ilembe School A, B and C have no electricity and that made teaching and learning more difficult for teachers. This is supported by Uhegbu (in Mojapelo 2008) that some schools in South Africa do not have electricity. The latter RSSs have only to use chalkboard and chalk, which was time consuming when notes were to be provided to learners. Their teaching was not innovative and interesting to learners. It was too traditional. Empangeni School A Teacher Two pointed out:

We are unable to plan properly for tests and examinations since our school has no electricity. We ask assistance from neighbouring schools if we want to make copies

for handouts, tests and examinations. We are really struggling in this school. Our job is not interesting at all.

Teachers indicated that during tests and examinations, principals have to ask for assistance from neighbouring schools for photocopying of question papers, which was time consuming. The times for learners to start their test and examination papers were not known since nobody knew when the papers were to be ready because they were photocopied from other schools. Learners of these schools had no opportunity to use computers and television since electricity was not available.

All schools participated in the interviews and observation used tanks to keep water. Teachers pointed out that they were dependent on the rainfall. School tanks were also not sufficient to keep enough water for learners and teachers. Teachers indicated that during summer months their schools were able to keep sufficient water in tanks. However, during winter these tanks ran dry because there were few or no rainfalls.

Picture 6.2 Water supply in rural schools

Picture 6.2 shows the tanks that RSSs rely on to keep water since there was no running water available in each of these schools. For example, Ilembe School B used the Tugela River for learners and teachers to drink when tanks were empty which was dangerous to their lives. Female learners were used to fetch water from the Tugela River, which was 500 metres away from the school. Ilembe School C Teacher Two supported:

> *We use tanks to keep water during summer when there are plenty of rainfalls. During winter tanks dry out. When no water is available we do not close schools as urban schools do, but we fetch water from the river using female learners.*

Teachers mentioned that they managed to conduct classes even if water was not available in winter since they have no other options. This situation is not good for our teachers and

learners since in such situations hygiene is compromised. This is because when teachers and learners come from the toilets they have to wash their hands with water and soap. They have also to use water to clean their classrooms and wash dishes and buckets for their school nutrition.

6.2.3.2 Impact of teacher-learner ratio

Teachers' responses show that 66.25% of the teachers indicated that the teacher-learner ratio was high. Only 17.75% of the teachers indicated that teacher-learner ratio was not high. The mean score of 3.67 is greater than 3.49, showing that teacher-learner ratio was high. Table 6.17 presents post level differences regarding teacher-learner ratio.

Table 6.17 Post level and teacher-learner ratio

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	13.16%	23.23%	63.61%
SMT	22.34%	8.77%	68.89%

Chi-square   9.52463   df=2   p=.00855

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between post level and teacher-learner ratio since the p-value of 0.00855 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More SMTs (22.34%) compared to PL1 teachers (13.16%) did not see that the teacher-learner ratio was too high. The possible reason might be that SMT members teach fewer subjects and some of them, especially principals, to not teach at all. They did not experience the impact of overcrowding personally compared to PL1 teachers. Table 6.18 presents type of employment differences.

Table 6.18 Type of employment and teacher-learner ratio

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	18.35%	09.80%	71.85%
Temporary	17.15%	22.20%	60.65%

Chi-square   6.164437   df=2   p=.04586

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.04586 shows a significant difference since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were 71.85% permanent teachers compared to 60.65%) who were dissatisfied about overcrowding in RSSs. The possible reason might be that permanent teachers were more aware of challenges of overcrowding than temporary teachers.

Furthermore, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.82746 (qualification) 0.65575 (gender), 0.55970 (experience) and 0.15797 (age) show no statistically significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that overcrowding, more especially at Umzinyathi district, was found to be a problem where there were classes with more than fifty learners in each class. Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two complained about large classes:

> *We are not happy about the number of learners in each class. We have too many learners in each class; as a result, we fail to give each learner sufficient attention. We have to do a lot of marking for class work activities, tests, assignments, projects and examinations. We work under stress every day because of large classes.*

Teachers complained of the teacher-learner ratio which was too high, making it more difficult to teach. These findings tie up with Lumadi (2008) and De Lannoy and Hall's (2010) views that despite the formally prescribed teacher-learner ratio which is 35:1 for both rural and urban public secondary schools, some schools are facing up to ninety learners in one classroom. Teachers pointed out that the problem was that when learner enrolment increased, it took too long to get additional teachers. Therefore, available teachers have to teach more subjects than they should, making their job more stressful. Working in such a situation was causing a lot of stress to teachers since they were overloaded and sometimes teaching subjects they did not know.

Picture 6.3 Overcrowding of classes in rural schools

Picture 6.3 shows the nature of overcrowding in some RSSs. This is one class of seventy two learners, which makes it difficult for teachers to manage in providing effective teaching and

learning. The high teacher-learner ratio was one of the factors causing teachers' dissatisfaction in RSSs. Teachers pointed out that they were working under immense pressure because they had to attend to each learner but that was impossible because of the large classes they were teaching, more especially at Umzinyathi district and one school at Empangeni District. Teachers at Umzinyathi district and Empangeni School B complained that marking learners' work was taking a lot of their time because of a huge number of learners in their classrooms.

Marking of assignments and projects for CASS purposes for their learners was also causing a lot of stress. They stated that they were more dissatisfied than urban school teachers since they teach more than fifty learners in one class. These findings are in line with Nesane's (2008:53) argument that high teacher-learner ratio is affecting education in South Africa. The comment by Umzinyathi School A HOD concurred:

> *There are many learners in each classroom. I sometimes teach four different classes with more than fifty learners per class a day. I have to mark their class work activities, assignments, projects and tests. It is very difficult to work here. Unfortunately, the department blames us when learners fail, failing to consider our extremely harsh working environment.*

To RSSTs it was an unfair treatment on the part of the DoE since when matriculation results were released RSS challenges such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of resources and infrastructure were not considered. Some teachers complained that when RSS learners failed teachers were blamed and shouted at as if they were more incompetent than urban school teachers. Teachers further complained that the issue of the high number of learners that teachers taught was not considered by the DoE when grade twelve examination results were released.

6.2.3.3 Availability of facilities

The teachers' ratings show that 84% of the teachers felt that library facilities were inadequate. Only 11.5% of the teachers viewed that library facilities were adequate. The mean score of 4.19 is greater than 3.49, indicating that library facilities were inadequate in RSSs. However the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.39274 (gender), 0.96255 (post level), 0.79236 (age), 0.80238 (experience), and 0.59485 (type of employment) show no difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.19 presents gender differences on library facilities.

Table 6.19 Gender and library facilities

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	6.65%	4.36%	88.99%
Female	16.35%	3.14%	80.51%

Chi-square   9.093702   df=2   p=.01060

There is significant difference between gender and library facilities since the Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.01060 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (16.35% compared to male teachers (6.65%) did not feel that library facilities were insufficiently available in RSSs. On the other hand, more male teachers (88.99%) than female teachers (80.51%) viewed that library facilities were insufficiently available in RSSs, making teaching and learning more difficult. The possible reason might be that male teachers were more likely to seek extra learning opportunities for their learners than female teachers. The reason was that female teachers have more house responsibilities than male teachers, which caused them to be at home most of the time after school and during weekends or holidays. Therefore, this might cause female teachers to be less aware that libraries were important for learners.

Furthermore, 82.25% of the teachers viewed that laboratories were not available in RSSs while there were only 9% of them indicated that laboratories were sufficiently available. The mean score of 4.26 is greater than 3.49 showing that laboratory facilities were inadequately available in RSSs. Table 6.20 presents gender differences.

Table 6.20 Gender and laboratory facilities

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	5.26%	9.17%	85.57%
Female	12.74%	8.33%	78.93%

Chi-square   6.357166   df=2   p=.04164

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between gender and laboratory facilities since the p-value of 0.04164 was less than 0.05 (5%). There were 5.26% male teachers compared to 12.74% female teachers who viewed that laboratory facilities were sufficient. On the other hand, 85.57% males compared to 78.93% females indicated that laboratory facilities were inadequately available in RSSs. The possible reason might be that female teachers in KZN rural areas were less used in providing additional

expertise in their subjects. Most of their time was spent socializing with friends and colleagues, making them less aware than males that laboratories were important for effective teaching and learning. As a result, they were less likely than males to notice that laboratories were insufficient. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.70383 (post level), 0.34344 (qualification), 0.90366 (experience) and 0.54120 (age), 0.18707 (type of employment) show no statistical significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that computers for learners were not available in all schools except at Umzinyathi School B where the new computer building was being prepared. These findings are supported by Empangeni School B Teacher Two:

> *Learners' computers are not available in our school. One of the reasons is that norms and standards funds are too small. The other reason is the issue of safety since there is no night shift security guard to look after learner computers. If we buy them now they will be left vulnerable to criminals.*

During my observation, I discovered that the only computers available in schools were for administrative work used only by clerks, SMT members and few teachers. SMTs' computers were protected since the administration buildings have burglar guards and strong rooms. Teachers also pointed out that the computers for learners were not available in their schools. As a result computer studies were not offered. However, some teachers at Umzinyathi RSSs promised that computers for learners were in pipeline. At Ilembe RSS, all interviewed and observed three schools have no electricity and therefore having computers was meaningless. All Empangeni district school teachers mentioned that, since the place was infested with crime created by faction fights, buying learner computers should be a precious gift to thieves. For instance, both Empangeni School C teachers stated that computers were stolen by criminals during the night. These computers were yet to be used. The latter findings were some of the reasons why some RSSs in KZN province have no computers for learners. Ilembe School B Teacher One commented:

> *We do not have libraries in our schools because our schools are poor. There is also no library in our school wider community. There is no library at Maphumulo which is our local village. The nearest library where learners have to go is in Stanger, which is more than 40 km away from the school.*

Some teachers indicated that they need libraries but it was difficult for schools to have them since they did not have adequate facilities and materials for libraries. Learners were only

dependent on teachers and textbooks. They had no opportunities to find answers on their own. They were too dependent because learning materials were insufficient. Teachers mentioned that when learners were given projects and assignments, it was difficult for them to access relevant information since libraries were not available. For instance, the nearest library for Empangeni RSS learners was in Mandeni which is more than 38 km away for the furthest learners. At Ilembe RSSs, the nearest library was in Stanger, which is 50 km away for the furthest learners. Therefore, some learners failed to do their work, not because they were lazy or incompetent, but the environment in which they learn made it impossible for them to achieve quality learning opportunities. These findings support the findings of studies conducted by Mazibuko (2007); Risimati (2007) and Dala (2009) who found that in South African rural schools one of the main challenges faced by teachers was lack of libraries.

Further research findings show that there were no laboratories in all fifty visited schools in the three districts (Ilembe, Empangeni and Umzinyathi) during the distribution and collection of questionnaires. Learners relied on teachers' presentations and their textbooks for learning. Teachers stated that there were no science laboratories in RSSs. Umzinyathi School B Teacher Two commented:

> *It is rare to find a laboratory in rural schools. I have never seen even a single laboratory from each of the schools around Umsinga. We have developed the notion that laboratories are only for urban schools.*

Teachers pointed out that subjects such as life sciences, geography and physical sciences that need more practical activities were only taught and learned theoretically. Therefore, learners were not actively involved when learning the latter subjects. This means that learners of poorly-resourced schools of rural areas have lesser learning opportunities compared to learners of affluent urban well-resourced schools such as former Model C schools. This is because the well-resourced schools receive funds from other sources and they are not reliant on government subsidy compared to poorly-resourced schools of rural areas. It means that the government subsidy is insufficient to redress imbalances of the past in education. These findings link up with research findings of Mazibuko (2007) and Dala's (2009) studies that revealed that rural schools in KZN have no laboratories. Therefore, RSS learners are deprived of better and equal learning opportunities compared to those of the former Model C school learners.

6.2.3.4 School safety

Teachers' ratings show that 50.5% of the teachers thought that RSSs were not safe while there were 33% of them who indicated that RSSs were safe. The mean score of 3.29 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that RSSs were rarely or sometimes safe. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.30874 (gender), 0.40151 (qualification), 64104 (age), 0.60635 (experience), 0.64319 (type of employment) and 0.6918 (post level) show no statistically significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Moreover, findings show that 66.75% teachers felt that learner behaviour was a problem. There were 20% teachers who did not notice any problem with learner behaviour. The mean score of 3.70 is greater than 3.49, indicating that learner behaviour was a problem. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.35328 (qualification), 0.06186 (age), 0.38792 (experience) and 0.15299 (post level), 0.33795 (type of employment) and 0.39274 (gender) show no statistical significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that learners came to schools with weapons despite that instructions were provided on the notice boards that weapons were not allowed inside the school premises. All teachers indicated that their learners were naughty. Learners opened secret entrance and exit holes through the school wiring fence that criminals used when they wanted to enter school premises after school, during weekends and during school holidays. During my observation I witnessed the secret holes in all nine observed RSSs. All Empangeni district teachers indicated that their schools were not safe. For example, in 2005 a School B teacher at Empangeni district survived a gun shot by armed robbers inside the school premises. Teachers mentioned that the place was infested with a lot of faction fights between clans. This situation has resulted in some learners being attacked in their schools by rival gunmen. Faction fights have disturbed learners. As a result, learners were dropping out in huge numbers because of faction fights at Empangeni wider school communities. These findings link up with Masitsa's (2011:164) argument that there is a deep-rooted culture of violence that has been cultivated in different ways over many years, thus making schools unsafe and insecure.

Furthermore, two out of ten visited schools at Empangeni district have no security guards but the reason why was not clear. For instance, Empangeni School A principal stated that during

his enquiry no reason had been provided why his school was not allocated a security guard. Teachers asserted that they were vulnerable to criminals due to the latter situation. In addition, research findings show that learners were very rude. They carried knives, knobkerries and sticks to school. Nobody was able to search these learners since teachers were scared of them. For instance, at Empangeni School C, teachers reported that a teacher was beaten by learners with knobkerries and that the teacher has already left the school. Teachers further stated that learners of Empangeni School A and Ilembe School C smoked dagga inside the school premises despite the presence of security guards in these schools. These findings indicate that even security guards were scared of these learners or they failed to do their job properly because of fear. Smith and Sergiovanni (2009) point out that insecurity about food and other basic survival needs increases the stress with which poor children live and heightens the likelihood of family conflicts. What frustrated teachers the most was that parents were too protective of their children. The comments made by Empangeni School A HOD tell the whole story:

> *School safety is not there. Siphila ngenkosi (We are still alive because of God). This school is totally isolated. The school has no neighbours. Even if we are attacked nobody will help us. Learners are also rude. They have criminal friends who steal school property during school holidays, weekends and after school hours.*

Further comments were provided by Empangeni School A Teacher Two, emphasizing how vulnerable their school was:

> *The school is not safe at all. The school has no security guard. The only security guard available is for teachers and learners during school hours. When we are away, the school property is vulnerable. As I am talking to you right now, the principal's office has been vandalized during the winter school holidays. Criminals have enough time to do their job since nobody would disturb them.*

The latter findings were witnessed during my observation. The principals' office was a mess. Everything was broken, and-upside-down. He has decided to move to a small dirty and untidy room. The situation was a huge disappointment and disaster. Important school documents where school records were kept were totally destroyed without a reason. Working in such an environment can never make teachers happy.

The issue of long distance between police stations and schools was also mentioned by teachers as one of the factors causing schools to be vulnerable to criminals. The comments by Ilembe School B Teacher One supported this:

We have no reliable network for our cell phones here. There are sometimes selected areas inside the school where you could go in order to get network for your cell phone. It is difficult to phone police if we are being attacked. One of our learners was killed inside the school premises but it took hours for police to arrive.

The latter indicates scary incidents that could lead to RSSTs' job dissatisfaction. During my observation, I discovered that the police stations were too far away from schools with a maximum distance of 40 km away. That has resulted in learners and teachers being vulnerable to criminals.

Research findings further indicate that schools were partly safe from criminals during the school hours except at Empangeni RSSs where gunmen from fighting clans were even looking for learners in their schools. During the day, the security guards were there to protect teachers and learners. Teachers pointed out that the big problem was after school hours since nobody was patrolling. When there were no security guards schools were left vulnerable to criminals. Fortunately, Umzinyathi schools were found to be safe during the day since learners were disciplined. However, after school hours these schools were also vulnerable to criminals. During my observation period, I asked about the broken solar power panels that were used to generate power at Umzinyathi School A and I was told that they were stolen by criminals during the night. Security guards themselves were not safe since Empangeni School A security guard was being threatened by the learners because the security guard was not a member of the same community. Learners wanted someone from their community to be a school security guard. All the latter incidents show that RSS learners were used to violent behaviour since they came from violent communities.

Additionally, research findings indicate that at Empangeni School A, School B and School C, and Ilembe School C, learners were not committed to learning. Teachers mentioned that learners were ill-disciplined. They pointed out that learners came to school because they were being pushed by their parents. As a result, late coming of learners was high at the latter district schools. Sullivan, Riccolo and Reynolds (2008) argue that negative attitudes towards school are associated with lower achievement and lower expectations of the future. All teachers of these two district schools stated that learners do not respect school property. Learners broke doors and windows when teachers were away. At Empangeni School C, learners helped criminals to steal computers for the learners during the night. This has negatively affected teachers' job satisfaction. Teachers pointed out that every weekend at Empangeni School A and Ilembe School C something was broken or vandalized by learners

themselves. At Empangeni School A criminals have also stolen the solar power panels with the help of learners since the school had no electricity. Empangeni School A Teacher Two complained:

> *The situation in this school pushes teachers to work in bad conditions and that causes greater job dissatisfaction.*

A similar incident was reported by Ilembe School C Teacher One:

> *Learners use drugs inside the school's premises. As teachers, we try to protect them from being arrested because we know their parents. For example, a grade eleven learner who stole school property during holidays was reported by his parents to school to be arrested. However, at a later stage the same parents urged the principal to withdraw the case. Teachers were threatened to be killed if they continue opening the case.*

Teachers mentioned that they stay under fear in their schools since parents were too protective of their children. They further mentioned that they were soft targets for criminals since their safety was not guaranteed in their schools. There were gates that were not locked since some schools had no security guards.

6.2.3.5 The nature of classrooms

Teachers' responses show that 59.25% of the teachers indicated that classrooms were not conducive for teaching and learning while 24.5% teachers thought that classrooms were conducive. The mean score of 3.59 is greater than 3.49, indicating that classrooms were not conducive. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.10398 (gender), 0.09549 (post level), 0.17011 (qualification), 0.12804 (experience), 0.10398 (type of employment) and 0.09159 (age) show no statistically significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that classroom conditions were not conducive, particularly at Empangeni and Ilembe schools. During my observation I found that windows and doors were broken. Walls were not in good condition since paint had been washed away by rainfalls' and walls had huge cracks. At Empangeni School A for instance, it was disappointing. Classrooms of this school were not fit to be called classrooms. They were like calf-pens. In one observed building with five classes, all the windows were broken. There were doors that were half broken. The floors were very bad, having potholes that caused

danger to both learners and teachers. In fact, the school should not be allowed to operate in such a condition.

Picture 6.4 Nature of classrooms in rural schools

The floors in Picture 6.4 were not conducive for effective teaching and learning since there were potholes. Furniture was broken and chalkboards were in a bad condition. The latter conditions cannot make RSSTs to be happy in their teaching job.

Surprisingly, teachers mentioned that subject advisers and the ward manager visited the school several times since it was an underperforming school. This was also witnessed during my observation since the log book indicated that the latter DoE officials have visited the schools several times. However, nothing was done to address the bad situation of the school. Classrooms of Ilembe School B and C were also not conducive for teaching and learning. Findings also show that in other schools at Empangeni and Ilembe, floors were dangerous for both teachers and learners since there were also potholes. Therefore, teachers and learners have to be very cautious when walking in their classrooms to avoid crippling.

Picture 6.5 Broken windows in rural schools

The situation in Picture 6.5 shows the nature of windows in RSSs. One could not expect high quality teaching and learning in such conditions. Ilembe School C Teacher One complained:

Our classrooms are too bad. They are not conducive for teaching and learning. Windows and doors are broken. During the winter season it is very cold in the classrooms. During rainy days rainfall is able to enter the class because of broken windows. Floors are dusty and have potholes. Some of the roofs are leaking making it difficult to teach when it is raining.

I observed that effective teaching and learning were unlikely to happen in such conditions. SMTs and the SGBs have to be blamed for failing to make just minor repairs in RSSs. At Umzinyathi district schools, classrooms were partly conducive for learning except in School C where classrooms were in need of renovations since they were old and dirty, making them uninteresting for teaching and learning. Umzinyathi School C walls were also dilapidated.

6.2.3.6 Relationship among colleagues

Responses indicate that there were 69.5% of the teachers who experienced good relationships. There were only 14% teachers who did not experience good relationships. There were 16.5% teachers who rarely or sometimes experienced good relationships among teachers. The mean score of 3.70 is greater than 3.49, showing that there was good relationship among teachers. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.30005 (gender), 0.20601 (experience), 0.73373 (qualification), 0.73767 (age), 0.91737 (post level), and 0.35986 (type of employment) show no significant difference regarding teacher relationship since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research reveals mixed findings such as good relationships and bad relationships among teachers. For example some of the teachers stated that young teachers who were recruited from other fields because of teacher shortages were not prepared to accept advice from senior teachers. They created problems among the staff members because they were not taught how a teacher has to behave. This is supported by Empangeni School B Teacher One:

There is a good relationship among teachers in our schools. We are like sisters and brothers. However, young teachers who are recruited from other professions are not keen to accept constructive advice from senior teachers. They want to create conflicts among teachers. They have criminal friends from the school wider community.

At Ilembe School A, there was lack of collegiality among teachers. Both interviewed teachers at Ilembe School A stated that bad relationship among teachers has caused parents to enrol their learners in neighbouring schools. During my observation I discovered that there were teachers who had applied for transfers. Other teachers were on long sick leave for more than

six months because of this bad relationship among teachers. Although these two above-mentioned incidents were disruptive in terms of teaching and learning, in seven interviewed schools the teacher relationship was found to be healthy. Teachers mentioned that they were friendly towards each other. This healthy atmosphere was good for effective teaching and learning. It was found that in some schools, during the last day of each term teachers were organizing braai and secret pal parties to celebrate together. That was showing a good relationship among staff members. Interpersonal relationships form an important facet that brings about job satisfaction for RSSTs (Maforah, 2004:28).

6.2.4 Needs expected from the wider school community

The wider school community plays an important part regarding teachers' levels of job satisfaction. Table 6.21 presents data analysis on needs from the wider school community.

Table 6.21 Needs from the wider school community

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
4.1There are no media education centres in the school community	2.75	4.5	6.75	34.5	51.5	4.28	0.97
4.2 Parents' level of education is low.	1.5	5.25	4.75	37.25	51.25	4.32	0.90
4.3 Condition of accommodation is bad.	2.5	6.75	16.25	39.75	34.75	3.98	1.00
4.4 Condition of road is bad.	3.25	6.25	8.25	36	46.25	4.16	1.03
4.5 There is a high level of armed robbery.	9.5	31.5	26	22.5	10.5	2.93	1.16
4.6 Learners walk long distances on foot.	1	1.75	3.75	28.75	64.75	4.55	0.74
4.7 There are no enough healthcare centres.	1.25	5.5	9	36.75	47.5	4.24	0.92
4.8 Shopping centres are not sufficient.	1.5	2	5	29.75	61.75	4.48	0.81
4.9 Transportation is not sufficient.	1.75	4	8	32.25	54	4.33	0.91
4.10 Leisure activities are inadequate.	0.75	2	9.25	38	50	4.35	0.79

Teachers' responses in this sub-section indicate that teachers were highly dissatisfied except in items 4.3 and 4.5. The mean scores were very high in eight items, indicating that teachers were highly dissatisfied with the wider school community.

6.2.4.1 Impact of parents' level of education

Teachers' responses show that 88.5% of the teachers felt that parents' level of education was poor while 6.75% of them indicated that parents' level of education was not poor. The mean score of 4.32 is greater than 3.49, showing that parents' level of education in rural areas was low. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.58625 (gender) 0.38558 (type of employment)

and 0.51111 (post level) show no statistically significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.22 presents age differences.

Table 6.22 Age and parents' level of education

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	11.90%	1.89%	86.21%
30-39 years	3.51%	4.32%	92.17%
40+ years	4.84%	8.04%	87.12%

Chi-square   14.828006   df=4   p=.00507

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference among age groups since the p-value of 0.00507 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 20-29 years (86.21%) was the least dissatisfied group while the 30-39 years (92.17%) was the most dissatisfied group. The possible reason might be that 30-39 years were adequately experienced post PL 1 teachers who knew how difficult it was to work with rural school parents. Table 6.23 presents qualification differences.

Table 6.23 Qualification and parents' level of education

Qualification	Disagree	Neutral	Disagree
Grade 12 or lower	14.00%	5.33%	80.67%
Under-qualified	3.50%	5.76%	90.74%
Diploma	3.58%	5.92%	90.50%
Degree	5.92%	1.99%	92.09%

Chi-square   15.20555   df=6   p=.01872

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference since the p-value of 0.01872 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). Grade 12 or lower group (80.67%) was the least dissatisfied while the teachers holding degrees (92.09%) were the most dissatisfied group about parents' level of education. Therefore more qualified teachers were more dissatisfied than less qualified teachers about parents' level of education in rural areas. The possible reason might be based on the fact that more qualified teachers have more experience working with rural parents than less qualified (grade 12 or lower) teachers. Table 6.24 presents experience differences.

Table 6.24 Experience and parents' level of education

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	16.17%	5.17%	78.66%
3-4 years	3.27%	1.49%	95.24%
5-9 years	6.41%	5.49%	88.10%
10-19 years	2.35%	5.65%	92.00%
20+ years	5.55%	5.95%	88.50%

Chi-square   19.50015   df=8   p=.01240

There was a significant difference among experienced groups since the Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.01240 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-12 years group (78.66%) was the least dissatisfied group regarding parents' level of education. More experienced groups were more dissatisfied with parents' level of education. The possible reason might be that the less experienced teachers have less experience of rural school parents compared to more experienced teachers.

 Qualitative research findings indicate that teachers were not happy with the parents' non-involvement in school activities. They pointed out that parents saw no need to go to schools. Some teachers stated that one of the reasons why parents disengaged themselves was that they perceived themselves as possessing a lower status compared to teachers' status. The other reason for non-involvement was that parents were illiterate. These findings are in line with Ntshingilas's (2006) findings that, one in three South Africans over the age of twenty has no schooling at all or has not completed primary school. This has caused parents to disengage themselves from attending school meetings or to respond to invitations. Parents were not interested in school matters. Ilembe School B Teacher One complained about parents' involvement:

> I am not happy. Parents do not come to school. It seems as if they do not care about their children's future.

Empangeni School A Teacher Two added:

> Parents' involvement in school activities is poor. Parents are not interested to come to school. Even if we write letters to invite them they do not respond. They sometimes tell their children that we must leave them alone since they are not trained to teach.

Teachers mentioned that only a few parents managed to attend school meetings. Some teachers commented that they thought the reason was poverty. Parents were sometimes busy with piece jobs and unable to come to schools. Teachers stated that during summer parents

were busy in their fields planting maize, beans, peanuts and amadumbe, on which they relied for food. In winter when there was nothing to plant parents worked for other richer people such as fetching wood, fetching water and cutting grass for roofing. Findings indicate that Zulu women were experts in these activities. Teachers stated that men built huts, kraals, prepared hut foundations and looked after livestock such as goats, sheep and cattle. Therefore, they have no time to attend school meetings, since education was not one their priorities.

6.2.4.2 Teacher accommodation

Teachers' responses show that 74.5% of the teachers felt that conditions of accommodation were bad. Only 9.25% of the teachers indicated that the conditions of accommodation were not bad. The mean score of 3.98 is greater than 3.49, indicating that accommodation conditions were very bad. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.45596 (gender), 0.73419 (post level), 0.41499 (qualification), 0.48745 (experience), 0.93910 (type of employment) and 0.07494 (age) shows no statistically significant difference between biographical variables and teacher accommodation since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that teachers were not safe in cottages and that was the reason why Empangeni RSSTs decided not to stay in cottages since they were being easily robbed on gunpoint by gunmen. Their cottages were not strong enough to protect them against criminals. Teachers pointed out that they were the victims of criminals and house breakers. A typical incident was provided by Ilembe School C Teacher One:

> *One female teacher visited her home from the Maphumulo area. During her return to her cottage all her belongings were stolen since there are no security guards in cottages. Teachers' cars are also usually stolen from cottages. Female teachers are sexual abused in their cottages by criminals from the community.*

During my observation, I found that teacher accommodation was not conducive for them to live in, since teachers were staying in very bad cottages built by community members to make money. Picture 6.6 shows the type of community cottages where teachers were staying.

204

Picture 6.6 RSSTs' community cottages and rented huts

Some teachers were staying in small huts as shown in Picture 6.6, built with mud walls, which can fall at any time and roofed with thatched grass. During rainfalls, roofs of huts were leaking and walls were falling, making life difficult for teachers. Some accommodation had no electricity. Teachers were forced to use candles and gas stoves for lighting and cooking.

Teachers mentioned that it became difficult for them to do their lesson preparations using candles. Some of the buildings were dilapidated. These findings confirm Oluoch's (2006:11) argument that there are no good houses for teachers to rent in rural areas. However, teachers living close to Tugela Ferry (Umzinyathi) and Maphumulo (Ilembe) were more fortunate since they stayed near rural towns where sufficient electricity was available; but cottage buildings were also not good for teachers to stay in.

6.2.4.3 Infrastructure development in rural areas

Results show that teachers were highly dissatisfied about the wider community of the school since 86% of the teachers indicated that there were no EMCs in their school community. Only 7.25% of the teachers indicated that there were EMCs in school communities. The means score of 4.28 is greater than 3.49, indicating that EMCs were not available in rural communities. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.33120 (gender), 0.98127 (age), 0.10194 (qualification), 0.81074, (experience), 0.46171 (type of employment) and 0.28445 (post level) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings reveal that EMCs were not available in rural areas where this study was conducted. During my visits to fifty schools I did not notice even a single EMC in three districts. Also during my observation period to nine RSSs, there were no EMCs available in school wider communities. Teachers also indicated that EMCs were not available in the wider community of their schools. Some of the teachers were not even aware of the

existence of the EMCs in KZN. These findings are supported by Empangeni School A Teacher Two:

> *I don't know about education media centres you are talking about. Where are they? What they are used for? I don't think that there is even a single teacher in this area who is aware of those centres. I have never heard about them.*

The reason might be that EMCs were very few in KZN. As Gendall (2008:242) points out, the problem with EMCs is that in 2006, there were only six EMCs across the KZN province, which could not provide all schools with required resources and skills. Some teachers pointed out that learners of their schools were in need of such EMCs since they have to access information to do their reading activities, homework, assignments and projects since libraries were not available. Teachers complained that their learners were deprived of better learning opportunities by the KZNDoE since they were unable to do their assessment tasks effectively.

Teachers' responses show that 82.25% of the teachers felt that the condition of roads was bad. Only 9.5% of the teachers viewed that the condition of roads was good. The mean score of 4.16 is greater than 3.49, showing that the condition of roads was bad. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.81416 (gender), 0.33649 (post level), 0.34098 (qualification), 0.73689 (type of employment) 0.22784 (experience) and 0.49752 (age) show no significant difference regarding the condition of roads since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that the condition of roads was bad. All visited schools during the distribution and collection of questionnaires have roads. However, all roads to schools were gravel roads except in four Ilembe schools where there were tar roads to schools. This indicates that 95% roads of visited schools were too bad to travel on.

Picture 6.7 Bad condition of roads in rural areas

Picture 6.7 shows one of the main roads in KZN rural areas. It is difficult to drive in such roads since they are bumpy and can cause damage to any type of vehicle. Newman (2006) cites the lack of basic infrastructure such as decent roads in rural areas of South Africa as one of the factors that hamper the process of attracting and retaining well qualified teachers. Teachers pointed out that transport was rarely available in rural areas because of the bad condition of roads. Roads were bumpy, causing a lot of damage to cars. Those who used their own cars to schools were paying a lot of money for fuel and repairs. Umzinyathi School B deputy principal commented:

> *I think you have already seen yourself the condition of roads while you were coming here. Roads are too bad at Umsinga. It is very difficult for us to use our cars on these roads. As I am speaking to you, my car is broken because of bad roads we have. I need to do some repairs.*

Teachers stated that because of the bad condition of roads they failed to come to school early because roads were full of potholes. During rainy days some teachers failed to come to school since roads were slippery. During dry seasons, these roads were dusty. Teachers were asking for their municipalities to do something about the bad condition of roads. Roads were mentioned as one of the major reasons why teachers were not happy working in rural areas.

In addition, 86.25% teachers indicated that transportation was insufficiently available in rural areas because of the bad condition of roads. Only 5.75% teachers indicated that transportation was available. The mean score of 4.33 is greater than 3.49, showing that transportation was not sufficient. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.17561 (gender), 0.12235 (age), 0.33867 (qualification), 0.21511 (experience), 0.78723 (type of employment) and 0.33483 (post level) show no significant difference between biographical variables and transportation since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers pointed out that vans, Ventures and kombis were used to transport passengers from rural areas to towns. The problem raised by teachers was that the transport to towns was only available in the morning. In the evening the only transport available was from towns to rural areas. If you decided to go to town after school hours, there was no transport available to town and therefore teachers had to be absent from school if they wanted to go to town. The latter was witnessed during my visits to Empangeni, Ilembe and Umzinyathi district RSSs. The cause was that there were no decent roads for the transport to flow. Newman (2006) points out that the lack of basic infrastructure such as decent roads is

one of the factors that hamper the process of attracting and retaining well qualified teachers. Ilembe School A principal supported these findings:

> *Because of the bad condition of roads, transportation is insufficiently available. Transportation is only available from six to ten in the morning to Stanger and also in the afternoon from Stanger. We are therefore forced by circumstances to be absent from school if we want to go to Stanger.*

It is therefore a challenge for teachers to work in rural areas. Working in such conditions will never arouse teachers' interest. As a result, RSSs were losing high quality teachers. That has resulted in RSSs having a high number of unqualified and under-qualified teachers. For instance, findings of this study indicate that there were 104 (26%) unqualified and under-qualified teachers out of 400 participating teachers in RSSs.

Teachers' responses indicate that 84.25% of the teachers felt that healthcare centres were insufficiently available in rural areas. Only 6.75% of the teachers viewed that healthcare centres were sufficient. The mean score of 4.24 is greater than 3.49, showing that healthcare centres were insufficient in rural areas. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.48706 (gender), 0.08169 (post level), 0.45808 (qualification), 0.97769 (experience), 0.56284 (type of employment) and 0.83249 (age) show no significant difference between healthcare centres and biographical variables since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During my visit to fifty schools when distributing and collecting questionnaires, I never came across a pharmacy in rural areas. Teachers stated that they have limited access to healthcare in rural areas. When they were sick, they had to travel to Mandeni and Eshowe for the Empangeni district; Dundee and Greytown for the Umzinyathi district and Stanger for the Ilembe district. Teachers pointed out that sometimes, they were forced by circumstances to go to public clinics for medication which were not providing quality medication. Teachers further stated that medical doctors were also not available in rural clinics. Teachers who have chronic diseases such as, blood pressure and diabetes, have to be absent from their schools to collect their medication from urban doctors, leaving the learners with nobody to teach. Umzinyathi School C Teacher Two supported:

> *If is difficult to be a rural school teacher. When you are sick, you have to travel long distances to major towns where doctors and pharmacies are found. The distance to towns costs a lot of money. Local public clinics are ineffective since they have insufficient medication.*

These findings are in line with Newman's (2006) argument that the lack of infrastructure such as health facilities in rural areas of South Africa, is one of the factors that hamper the process of attracting and retaining well qualified teachers.

Teachers' responses indicate that 91.5% of the teachers were dissatisfied about the shortage of shopping centres. Only 3.5% of the teachers viewed that shopping centres were not the problem in rural areas. The mean score of 4.48 is greater than 3.49, indicating that shopping centres were insufficient in RSSs. Table 6.25 presents age differences.

Table 6.25 Age and shopping centres

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	3.37%	10.36%	86.27%
30-39 years	3.90%	3.00%	93.10%
40+ years	3.23%	1.64%	95.13%

Chi-square　　13.06577　　df=4　　　p=.01096

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistical difference among the age groups since the p-value of 0.01096 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The older groups (30-39 years and 40+ years) were more dissatisfied about the insufficient shopping centres in rural schools compared to the 20-29 years age group (86.27%). The possible reason might be that older teachers were more aware of the problems caused by the insufficient shopping centres in rural areas than younger teachers. Table 6.26 presents post level differences.

Table 6.26 Post level and shopping centres

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	4.65%	8.15%	87.20%
SMT	2.35%	1.85%	95.80%

Chi-square　　6.239566　　df=2　　p=.04417

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between post level and shopping centres since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). SMT members (95.80%) were more dissatisfied about insufficient shopping centres than PL1 teachers (87.20%). The possible reason might be that SMTs were earning more money and therefore they have money to buy what they need. Unfortunately, there was an insufficient number of shopping centres in rural areas. Table 6.27 presents qualification differences.

Table 6.27 Qualification and shopping centres

Qualification	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Grade 12 or lower	6.49%	10.18%	83.33%
Under-qualified	4.51%	6.69%	88.80%
Diploma	2.00%	2.09%	95.91%
Degree	1.00%	1.04%	97.96%

Chi-square 13.9616   df=6   p=.03007

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference among the qualification groups and the shopping centres since the p-value of 0.03007 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). Grade 12 or lower group (83.33%) was the least dissatisfied. Teachers holding degrees (76.96%) were the most dissatisfied teachers about insufficient shopping centres in rural areas. Therefore, less qualified teachers were the least dissatisfied and the most qualified teachers were the most dissatisfied. The possible reason might be that the more qualified teachers have more employment opportunities than the less qualified teachers.

The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.19514 shows no significant difference between gender and shopping centres since the p-value was greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.28 presents experience differences.

Table 5.28 Experience and shopping centres

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	6.97%	13.03%	80.00%
3-4 years	3.93%	4.47%	91.60%
5-9 years	1.35%	4.21%	94.44%
10-19 years	3.55%	2.21%	94.24%
20+ years	1.70%	1.08%	97.22%

Chi-square   24.93517   df=8   p=.00159

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.00159 shows a significant difference among experienced groups since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years (80%) was the least dissatisfied group compared to other groups. The most experienced group (20+ years (97.22%) was the most dissatisfied group regarding insufficient availability of shopping centres in rural areas. The possible reason might be that new teachers have less knowledge while the most experienced teachers were fully aware of shortage of shopping centres in rural areas. Table 6.29 presents type of employment differences.

Table 6.29 Type of employment and shopping centres

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	3.40%	1.32%	95.28%
Temporary	3.60%	8.68%	87.72%

Chi-square   6.02572   df=2   p=.04915

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.04615 shows a significant difference since the p-value was less than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (95.28%) than temporary teachers (87.72%) indicated that shopping centres were insufficient. The possible reason might be that permanent teachers needed shopping centres more than temporary teachers since they were earning larger salaries, which they can use to buy what they need.

During my visits to fifty schools and observation in nine schools, there were no shopping centres in rural communities. Teachers stated that to get what they wanted they had to travel long distances to major towns such as Stanger for Ilembe district teachers, Dundee and Greytown for Umzinyathi district teachers and Mandeni and Eshowe for Empangeni district teachers. Their travel costs to major towns were high.

Picture 6.8 Type of shops in rural areas

This is one of the shops found in rural areas. These types of shops are failing to provide community members with basic needs. Teachers pointed out that they were not happy about the service they received from the shop in Picture 6.8 because tinned goods sold to them had expired. Meat got rotten because power was insufficiently available. Only food, mainly outdated food, was sold in such shops. Therefore, the situation was more likely to dissatisfy RSSTs. Ilembe School B Teacher One stated:

Our schools are very far from the major towns where we can buy what we need. A single journey costs more than fifty rand to Stanger, which is the only nearest town.

Therefore, it was not easy to go to town during school days because the distance was too far and the transport was insufficiently available. Teachers have to be absent from school if they have to go to town to buy what they need.

Teachers' responses indicate that 88% of the teachers felt that leisure activities were inadequate in rural areas. Only 2.75% of the teachers indicated that leisure activities were sufficient in rural areas. The mean score of 4.35 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that leisure activities were inadequate in rural areas. Table 6.30 presents age differences.

Table 6.30 Age and leisure activities

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Disagree
20-29 years	4.86%	13.39%	81.75%
30-39 years	2.58%	9.42%	88.00%
40+ years	0.81%	4.94%	94.25%

Chi-square   9.751688   df=4   p=.04482

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference among age groups since the p-value of 0.04482 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The older teachers (30-39 years and 40+years) were more dissatisfied about the leisure activities in rural areas. The possible reason may be that older teachers possessed more knowledge about rural areas compared to younger teachers (20-29 years) who were still learning about rural life. Table 6.31 presents experience differences.

Table 6.31 Experience and leisure activities

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	8.00%	15.65%	76.35%
3-4 years	2.96%	8.69%	88.35%
5-9 years	1.20%	12.78%	86.02%
10-19 years	1.59	6.35%	92.06%
20+ years	0.00%	2.78%	97.22%

Chi-square   16.9537   df=8   p=.03059

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03059 shows a significant difference among experienced groups since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years (76.35%)

was the least dissatisfied group compared to other groups. The middle-aged groups were more dissatisfied than the 0-2 group. However, the 20+ years group (97.22%), which was the most experienced group, was the most dissatisfied group. The possible reason might be that new teachers were less aware that leisure activities were insufficiently available in rural areas. On the other hand, the most experienced teachers were fully aware that leisure activities were insufficient in rural areas. On the other hand, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.49295 (gender), 0.10588 (post level), 0.15483 (type of employment) and 0.13440 (qualification) show no significant difference between biographical variables and leisure activities since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that teachers got bored staying in rural areas since there were no shopping centres, cinemas and sports facilities. There were also insufficient playgrounds available for teachers to play some sport. There were no music competitions held in the wider school communities. Entertainment activities were very limited in rural communities. This is supported by Ilembe School B Teacher One:

> *We get bored during our spare time. We have no place to visit during weekends to entertain ourselves. We stay in cottages for the whole weekend, since a visit to Stanger (closer town) costs a lot of money.*

Teachers pointed out that the only places that they managed to visit were during udwendwe (Zulu traditional wedding) and umemulo (21st ceremonies) and during Zulu traditional feasts. Teachers pointed out that these ceremonies were rarely available in rural areas since rural people were unemployed and poor. Therefore, RSSTs stayed most of the time having no entertainment in rural communities. They have no place to visit in order to relieve stress and pressure of being overloaded with school work and away from their family members.

6.2.4.4 Distance walked by learners on foot

Teachers' responses show that 93.5% of the teachers indicated that learners walked long distances on foot. Only 2.75% of the teachers viewed that learners did not walk long distances on foot. The mean score of 4.55 is greater than 3.49 indicating that RSS learners were walking long distance on foot. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.67678 (gender), 0.36159 (post level), 0.7670 (type of employment), 0.17430 (age) and 0.98809 (qualification) show no statistical differences regarding the distance walked by learners since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.32 presents experience differences.

Table 6.32 Experience and learners' distance

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	6.14%	10.86%	83.00%
3-4 years	3.53%	3.18%	93.29%
5-9 years	1.08%	1.30%	97.62%
10-19 years	3.00%	3.41%	93.59%
20+ years	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%

Chi square   17.87616   df=8   p=.02217

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.02217 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years (83%) were the least dissatisfied groups. The middle-aged groups (3-4 years, 5-9 years and 10-19 years) were more dissatisfied than 0-2 years group. The most experienced group (20+ years) was 100% dissatisfied with the distance travelled by learners. The possible reason might be that the most experienced teachers were fully aware of the distances walked by learners compared to other groups. It can be concluded that the less experienced RSSTs were the less dissatisfied while the more experienced were the more dissatisfied. The possible reason might be that most experienced teachers were the group most fully aware that the distance has a negative impact on learners' performance compared to other groups.

Qualitative research findings indicate that learners were walking long distances. Teachers mentioned that most learners of their schools come from very far. Learners walked long distances with the maximum of more than 10 km. Female learners were vulnerable to criminals because of the long distance they travelled. Umzinyathi School B Teacher Two commented:

> *Learners come from very far. Even the transport programme that the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education is introducing to transport rural school learners could not work since some of our learners come from places where there are no roads.*

In support, Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two stated:

> *The distance travelled by learners is too long. Even if you may have the transport for these learners, it is very difficult since there is no road from school to where the majority of our learners stay.*

Some teachers stated that when learners stay far from school they come to school late, tired and fail to concentrate in the class. Furthermore, Empangeni School B has abandoned after school extra classes since female learners were being raped by criminals on their way back

home since they managed to reach home when it was dark. Another finding was that learners reached home tired and failed to do homework, projects and assignments. They also failed to study their school work, which negatively contributed to their academic performance.

During my observation, I discovered that many learners came to school very late because of the long distance they travelled. For instance, at Empangeni School B one hundred and seventy-three (28%) out of six hundred and twenty learners came late on 19 July 2012. At Empangeni School A seventy-four (38%) out of one hundred and ninety-four learners came late on 17 July 2012. At Empangeni School C sixty (23%) out of two hundred and sixty-two learners came late on 18 July 2012. These indicate that huge numbers of learners arrived late, making them unable to attend first and or second periods and therefore their chances to perform well were very slim. One cannot expect these schools to perform at a possible highest level since a huge percentage of learners arrived late because of long distances they walked on foot. Consequently, learners' academic performance was negatively affected due to the long distances they walked on foot.

6.2.5 Job satisfaction and the new curriculum (the grades 10-12 NCS)

The implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS is a teachers' challenge that might impact on their levels of job satisfaction. Table 6.33 presents data analysis on job satisfaction and the grades 10-12 NCS.

Table 6.33 Job satisfaction and grades 10-12 NCS

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
5.1Teachers know how to teach their subjects.	0.75	4.5	7	55	32.75	4.15	0.79
5.2 Teachers were ready to implement grades 10 -12 NCS.	2.25	17.75	17.25	47	15.75	3.56	1.03
5.3 Teachers are able to cope with stress and pressures caused by the grades 10-12 NCS implementation.	10.5	16.5	20	43.75	9.25	3.25	1.16
5.4 School management teams offer counselling assistance for stressed teachers.	17.5	26	21.75	29.25	5.5	2.79	1.20
5.5 Teachers feel despondent to teach new subjects.	4.25	13.5	25.5	46	10.75	3.46	1.00
5.6 Teachers suffer from the fear of failure in the grades 10-12 NCS.	4	9.25	14	47.75	25	3.81	1.04
4.7 Teachers are able to use learner-centred teaching methods.	5	11.5	22	47.75	13.75	3.54	1.03

Table 6.33 indicates that only in item 5.1, item 2.5, item 5.6 and item 5.7 did teachers respond positively about the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs. In item 5.3, item 5.4 and item 5.5 teachers' responses were at average level.

6.2.5.1 Teachers' level of subject understanding

Teachers' responses show that 62.75% of the teachers felt that they were ready to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. There were 20% of the teachers who viewed that they were not ready to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. The mean score of 3.56 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teachers were ready to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.63360 (gender), 0.83548 (qualification), 0.43426 (post level), 0.44766 (experience), 0.45914 (type of employment) and 0.44931 (age) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers stated that although district workshops were sometimes conducted to develop them they were not sufficiently ready to teach the grades 10-12 NCS. That is why grade twelve pass rate in RSS was lower compared to urban schools. The reason raised by teachers was that the curriculum was changing (from OBE, RNCS and NCS), which confused them. Harley and Wedekind (2004:199) point out that with the introduction of the NCS teachers simply found themselves in a new curriculum world. Teachers pointed out that they were always new to the system. They have never been ready to implement the new curriculum. One of the reasons why teachers were not ready was that facilitators were not good enough. The following comments by Empangeni School C Teacher One supported the findings:

> *Teachers were not adequately prepared to implement the grades 10-12 NCS because in some subjects workshops were not provided. Facilitators who conducted workshops for only two days were not subject specialists. They only read the document as it was, failing to provide practical examples.*

Similar comments were made by Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two:

> *We were not ready. We were developed for only one day which was totally wrong. I did my diploma for four years to be ready to teach learners. But a one-day workshop to implement the new curriculum is an insult to us.*

This means that teachers were not sufficiently and effectively developed since PDPs were not adequately available. Teachers were not sufficiently prepared. Teachers indicated that they

were only passive recipients during the grades 10-12 NCS workshops. They were not actively involved in workshops. CASS was still a problem since it contained a lot of work but provided a low mark (25%). Teachers honestly stated that they were not sure how to do an effective CASS. They were still learning to do it. The latter findings are in line with Uiseb's (2009) argument that teachers in South Africa are still experiencing challenges with the implementation of the new assessment methods. All the teachers interviewed at all levels showed that development workshops were too short, ranging from one day to three days. The level of competence among the subject advisers was also a problem. They were not good facilitators. Their knowledge of subject content was poor.

Teachers' ratings show that 61.5% of the teachers indicated that they were able to use learner-centred teaching methods. There were 16.5% teachers who were unable to use learner-centred teaching methods. The mean score of 3.54 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teachers were able to use learner-centred teaching methods at a moderate level. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.30400 (gender), 0.96708 (qualification), 0.67759 (post level), 0.63980 (experience), 0.43976 (type of employment) and 0.42457 (age) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, some teachers claimed that they were able to use learner-centred methods. However, during my observation process, not even a single learner-centred activity was noticed. Teachers were traditionalists in their teaching. They used lecture and narrative methods which are traditional in nature. Learners were all facing the front chalkboard which was the only learning medium which teachers used to write. Some classes in KZN rural secondary schools were very big making it impossible for group work to take place. Empangeni School C Teacher Two confessed:

> *Although we are trying to teach our subjects accordingly, we are still struggling when it comes to the new teaching methodology. The reason is that we are inadequately developed to teach in a learner-centred environment. There is also insufficient availability of resources. The other issue is of the limited space available to exercise learner-centred teaching and learning methods. Learners also are unable to do presentations in class because of their poor command of English.*

Empangeni School A Teacher Two, School B Teacher Two and Ilembe School A principal revealed that they were not comfortable in using learner-centred methods because their learners were unable to express themselves in English; teaching-learning materials were

insufficient; teachers were not sufficiently equipped to use learner-centred methods and the space was insufficiently available for them to use learner-centred methods.

6.2.5.2 Teachers' counselling assistance from SMTs

Teachers' responses show that 43.5% of the teachers indicated that SMTs did not offer counselling assistance to stressed teachers while 34.75% of them viewed that SMTs provided counselling assistance. The mean score of 2.79 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that SMTs rarely or sometimes offered counselling assistance. Table 6.34 presents gender differences.

Table 6.34 Gender and counselling assistance

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	36.30%	22.14%	41.56%
Female	50.70%	21.36%	27.94%

Chi-square   10.03665   df=2   p=.00662

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between gender and teachers' counselling assistance since the p-value of 0.00662 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were more female teachers (50.70%) compared to 36.30% male teachers who indicated that there were no counselling assistance sessions. On the other hand there were 41.56% males compared to 27.94% females who indicated that counselling assistance was offered. This indicates that female teachers were more dissatisfied than males. The possible reason might be that females needed counselling assistance more than males. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.69842 (age), 0.34262 (qualification), 0.74236 (experience), 0.28039 (type of employment) and 0.05956 (post level) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that teachers who were suffering from stress and pressure were not attended to. Teachers pointed out that there were no programmes or structures responsible to deal with stressed teachers in their schools. The latter has caused an increase in teacher absenteeism in schools in order to attend to their stress. Empangeni School C Teacher One was angry when stating this:

> *There are no programmes in our school to deal with stress and pressures that we have as teachers. Instead teachers are shouted at by their superiors. Teachers work*

under stress everyday but nobody is attending to it. Only work that is needed even if you are sick.

These superiors she was talking about were SMT members and subject advisers who only wanted the job to be done without teachers' emotional and mental support. Similar views were stated by Ilembe School A principal:

To be fair, there is no structure to deal with stress and pressure that teachers face. There are different types of stress that teachers have such as work-related stress, personal and family problems stress. All these types of stress negatively affect teachers' work.

When I asked what the school was doing to address teacher stress since school work was negatively affected when teachers were stressed, he acknowledged that there was a need for the school to have the structure that deals with stressed teachers. Findings also indicate that teachers were in total agreement that they needed this structure in their schools since they worked under stress every day. Teachers stressed that the absence of such structure in their schools caused a lot of frustration that led to their greater job dissatisfaction. However, Schulze and Steyn (2007:705) recommend that individual teachers have to accept the responsibility to acquire stress-coping skills to handle demands of the profession effectively. During my observation, I found that four teachers were on long sick leave at Ilembe School A due to severe stress. This situation shows that teacher stress in one of the challenges that affect schools' performance.

6.2.5.3 Fear of failure

Teachers' responses show that 56.75% of them felt despondent about teaching new subjects. There were 17.75% teachers who did not feel despondent about teaching the grades 10-12 NCS. The mean score of 3.46 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that teachers rarely or sometimes felt despondent about teaching the grades 10-12 NCS. Table 6.35 presents post level differences.

Table 6.35 Post level and teachers' despondence

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	19.00%	32.11%	48.89%
SMT	16.50%	18.89%	64.61%

Chi –square   6.620682   df=2   p=.03650

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a statistically significant difference between post level and teachers' despondence since the p-value of 0.03650 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were more SMT members (64.61%) than PL1 teachers (48.89%) who felt despondent about teaching each the grades 10-12 NCS. The possible reason might be that SMTs have to answer to the district and circuit officials if learners fail at the end of the year. Another possible reason might be that SMTs were less developed in the grades 10-12 NCS than PL1 teachers. However, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.798469 (gender), 0.64060 (age), 0.18062 (experience), 0.25088 (type of employment) and 0.51938 (qualification) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that teaching new subjects such as arts and culture, technology and mathematics literacy was a huge problem because schools worked with available limited teachers. This was because PPN determined how many teachers the school was qualified to have rather than the subjects that teachers have to teach. Teachers indicated that schools failed to get specialist teachers for these subjects and that disadvantaged RSS learners since these subjects were taught by teachers who did not do them at secondary school level and also at tertiary level. The learners ended up failing to get sufficient knowledge and skills required by these subjects. Emphasizing the challenges of new subjects, Empangeni School B Teacher Two pointed out:

> *It is demotivating to teach the subject you have no knowledge of. Sometimes teachers even dodge going to their classes since they do not know what to say in front of the learners.*

Teachers complained that the introduction of these new subjects was intended to expose them since very few workshops were provided for teachers. They pointed out that subject advisers who facilitated these subjects were themselves unsure of what they were telling teachers. They read only the training manual, failing to modify the content. Commenting on the subject advisers' lack of knowledge and skills in the new subjects, Empangeni School C Teacher Two stated:

> *More training is needed. Subject advisers are just ordinary teachers without specialized expertise, and therefore they are unable to train teachers sufficiently and effectively. Subject advisers of these new subjects need more training themselves.*

Teachers stated that they thought that there was not even a single subject adviser trained in technology, for example. That was one of the reasons why teachers were not sufficiently

trained. Lack of teacher training in these subjects has caused teachers to go to class and say nothing to learners concerning these subjects. Research findings also indicate that these subjects were challenging to teachers since teachers were forced to read every time. Teachers became new every time. Teachers complained that old and experienced teachers were the same as new teachers since they also have to learn how to teach these new subjects. The new subjects were a big problem to old teachers who have a college education. Teachers have to do further studies in technology, for instance, without the background and that became a problem on its own. Teachers complained that the DoE did not consider old teachers in terms of teaching new subjects. Umzinyathi School B Teacher One pointed out:

> *There should be specialist teachers for these new subjects. Old teachers know nothing concerning these new subjects. They are not ready to implement them.*

Similarly, Umzinyathi School B HOD commented:

> *We are not well developed in these subjects. Old teachers need more training.*

Research findings also reveal that because of the shortage of support in these subjects, teachers were forced to register advanced teacher certificate in education (ACE) through HEIs in order to develop themselves in these subjects. Teachers' performance was dropping because they failed to teach new subjects effectively. This was because they lacked support in these subjects from subject advisers and also from their SMTs. Umzinyathi School A HOD supports:

> *There are no workshops. Subject advisers also do not know about these new subjects. They come to school to ask for a work schedule which they did not provide to teachers. Teachers have nothing to work with but subject advisers want work to be done knowing very well that these teachers are not capacitated in these subjects. They (subject advisers) also do not know.*

To improve schools' performance, capable teachers must be provided with work that meets their specialization. Providing teachers with subjects they do not know is causing stress and job dissatisfaction. Teachers will not be happy when teaching subjects that are new to them. This is an indication that teachers work long hours under stress, which affects their job satisfaction levels and their performance as a result (Ghoniem et al., 2011:22).

Teachers' responses show that 72.75% of the teachers were suffering from fear of failure. There were only 13.25% of the teachers who indicated that they were not suffering from the fear of failure. The mean score of 3.81 is greater than 3.49, indicating that teachers were

suffering from the fear of failure. Furthermore, the Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.30296 (qualification), 0.13952 (post level), 0.59212 (age), 0.22598 (type of employment) and 0.37884 (gender) show no significant difference since the p-values were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 6.36 presents experience differences.

Table 6.36 Experience and fear of failure

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	14.67%	22.28%	63.05%
3-4 years	18.57%	7.14%	74.29%
5-9 years	7.83%	20.13%	72.04%
10-19 years	8.51%	12.12%	79.37%
20+ years	16.67%	8.33%	75.00%

Chi-square 16.59688 df=8 p=.03459

The Pearson's chi-square p-value of 0.03459 shows a significant difference among experienced groups since the p-value was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years group (63.05%) was suffering the least from the fear of failure. The more experienced groups were suffering more from the fear of failure. The possible reason might be that new teachers received less criticism compared to more experienced teachers when learners fail the grades 10-12 NCS. This is because more experienced teachers were the ones who should be providing guidance to and mentoring novice teachers.

The findings from interviews show that the fear of failure occurred since the curriculum was changing constantly. Teaching methods were also changing. Teachers stated that the fear of failure caused stress to them. Singh (2011:376) points out that one of the causes of fear of failure is that the grades 10-12 NCS outcomes fail to give adequate specifications of essential learning and also these outcomes are left opened unspecified. These are the comments from Empangeni School B principal:

> *Teachers are stressed. The Department of Education fails to motivate learners. Nobody puts the blame on learners or parents, but all the blame goes to teachers, as if teachers are learning. Our learners are not serious enough. On the other hand, parents fail to provide their children with school needs but they buy expensive cell phones for their children.*

The latter comments show that education was not taken seriously in rural areas. The cause was that there were few educated people in these areas from whom learners could copy.

Parents themselves did not see education as their children's first priority. This is supported by my observation in schools. I did not see even a single parent visiting school in all fifty schools which participated in this study. Therefore, teachers asserted that they were suffering from fear of failure since even parent support was missing. Teachers who suffered from the fear of failure ended up stressed and depressed. Research findings also indicate that sometimes teachers who were suffering from fear of failure ignored external examination papers (grades 10-11) and decided that their learners had to write papers set by teachers themselves to avoid learners' failure since they were uncertain whether learners would be able to pass external examination and test papers. Empangeni School C Teacher One commented:

> There is fear of failure since rural school learners do not revise their work. They stop learning the subject when the teacher stops. These learners see nothing wrong even if they fail. They are not shy to tell us that they do not study their work. Some teachers end up providing easier and simpler tasks for these learners to pass since they fear failure.

Teachers stated that RSS learners did not want to learn since they were not motivated. Teachers mentioned that these learners were demotivated because there were many matriculation graduates who were unable to go to HEIs because of financial difficulties in their families. Teachers also revealed that they failed even to sleep if they noticed that learners were unable to cope with what they were teaching them. The following comments from Ilembe School B Teacher Two supported this:

> Fear of failure is our daily bread. We are a high school. Our grade twelve is in the limelight. If learners fail it is a big problem to us. At the end of the day not only the learners will be judged but the subject teacher is also judged. Teachers are stressed by this fear.

Teachers further pointed out that the fear of failure happens every day in their teaching career. Teachers were mostly suffering from this fear. They also stated that they were lucky that at this stage they were not attacked by serious diseases. Most of the fear was caused by the learners they taught. Learners were failing to cope with school work. Learners did not do projects and assignments for CASS purposes. Learners did not study their work to prepare for upcoming examinations. Umzinyathi School C HOD stated:

> Fear of failure is there in our job. That is why we do morning classes, afternoon classes and holiday classes. This is because of fear of failure as teachers. If it was not for fear we should be teaching only during school hours.

Further research findings indicate that RSSTs were more frustrated because their learners were not strong enough to write final examinations, especially grade twelve, because of their limited command of English. English was one of the factors that were causing teachers' stress and frustration. RSS learners did not finish examinations in time because they failed to understand questions. That was a huge worry to teachers since they were to be judged in terms of their grade twelve performance in the final examinations regardless of the environment under which they were working.

6.3 CORRELATIONS OF SECTION ITEMS

6.3.1 Cronbach's alpha correlations

Cronbach's alpha correlation was used to test internal reliability of each item. Table 6.37 provides Cronbach's alpha correlations of items.

Table 6.37 Cronbach's alpha correlations of sub-sections

	C1_AVE	C2_AVE	C3_AVE	C4_AVE	C5_AVE
C1_AVE	1.00				
C2_AVE	0.02	1.00			
C3_AVE	0.28	0.01	1.00		
C4_AVE	0.36	-0.13	0.55	1.00	
C5_AVE	0.4	0.38	0.9	0.18	1.00

The Cronbach's alpha shows a significant correlation among the sub-sections in this chapter. The Cronbach alpha measures the internal reliability of each item. Therefore, 0.7 or above is seen as acceptable. A score is calculated for each set of items, namely the average of the responses to the items in the set. These scores are called C1_AVE, C2_AVE, C3_AVE, C4_AVE and C5_AVE as indicated in Table 6.37 above.

The Cronbach's alpha of C1_AVE and C1_AVE in Table 6.37 is 0.02, showing no statistically significant correlation. This indicates that there was no relationship between teachers' experiences of job satisfaction items and teachers' WIPD items. The Cronbach's alpha of C3_AVE and C1_AVE is 0.28, showing a weak, moderate, positive, statistically significant correlation. This shows that there was a weak, moderate, positive relationship between working conditions items and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction items. The Cronbach's alpha of C3_AVE and C2_AVE is 0.01, showing no statistical correlation. This

suggests that there was no statistically significant correlation between working conditions items and WIPD items. The Cronbach's alpha of C4_AVE and C1_AVE is 0.36, showing moderate positive significant correlation. This indicates that there was a moderate positive relationship between wider school community items and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction items. The Cronbach's alpha of C4_AVE and C2_AVE is -0.13 showing a very weak, negative, significant correlation. This means that there was a very weak, negative relationship between wider school community items and WIPD items. The Cronbach's alpha of C4_AVE and C3_AVE is 0.55, showing a strong, positive, significant correlation. This indicates that there was a strong, positive relationship between the wider school community items and working conditions items.

The Cronbach's alpha of C5_AVE and C1_AVE in Table 6.37 is 0.4, showing no statistically significant correlation. This means that there was no relationship between the grades 10-12 NCS items and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction items. The Cronbach's alpha of C5_AVE and C2_AVE is 0.38, showing a weak to moderate, positive, statistically significant correlation. This means that there was a weak to moderate, positive relationship between the grades 10-12 NCS items and WIPD items. The Cronbach's alpha of C5_AVE and C3_AVE is 0.9, showing a weak, positive, significant correlation. This suggests that there was a weak, positive correlation between working conditions items and the grades 10-12 NCS items. The Cronbach's alpha of C5_AVE and C4_AVE is 0.18, showing a weak, positive, significant correlation. This indicates that there was a weak, positive correlation between the grades 10-12 NCS items and wider school community items.

6.3.2 Spearman's correlations of items

The Spearman's rank order correlation of items was used to test whether any correlation exists among the items of this chapter. The marked (*) correlations are significant at 0.05 (5%). Table 6.38 presents the Spearman's rank order correlations.

Table 6.38 Spearman's correlations of job satisfaction items

	C1_1	C1_2	C1_3	C1_4	C1_5	C1_6	C1_7	C1_8	C1_9	C_1-10
C1_1	1.00									
C1_2	-0.114*	1.000								
C1_3	0.047	0.393*	1.000							
C1_4	0.024	0.306*	0.579*	1.000						
C1_5	0.044	0.273*	0.527*	0.622*	1.000					
C1-6	-0.018	0.253*	0.423*	0.479*	0.551*	1.000				
C1_7	0.036	0.234*	0.296*	0.294*	0.374*	0.439*	1.000			
C1_8	-0.027	0.313*	0.285*	0.323*	0.285*	0.353*	0.467*	1.000		
C1_9	-0.008	0.139*	0.118*	0.063	0.172*	0.011	0.073	0.082	1.000	
C1_10	0.089	0.096	0.164*	0.128*	0.170*	0.054	0.111*	0.116*	0.223*	
C1_11	0.000	0.270*	0.242*	0.257*	0.238*	0.256*	0.201*	0.290*	0.105*	0.153*
C1_12	0.027	0.081	-0.013	0.031	0.024	0.056	0.064	0.171*	0.208*	0.167*
C1_13	-0.009	0.333*	0.246*	0.278*	0.224*	0.219*	0.239*	0.233*	0.123*	0.158*
C2_1	0.170*	-0.125*	0.029	0.015	0.066	0.120*	0.036	0.068	0.020	0.047
C2_2	0.033	-0.047	-0.037	-0.071	-0.040	-0.015	-0.024	0.053	0.150*	0.044
C2_3	0.214*	-0.095	-0.106*	-0.160*	-0.176*	-0.092	-0.094	-0.013	0.083	0.060
C2_4	0.165*	-0.120*	-0.091	-0.128*	-0.088	-0.077	-0.049	-0.029	0.095	0.103*
C2_5	0.205*	0.128*	-0.129*	-0.086	-0.078	0.040	-0.015	-0.043	0.001	0.029
C3_1	-0.115*	0.191*	0.180*	0.120*	0.146*	0.188*	0.145*	0.178*	0.057	0.010
C3_2	-0.061	0.280*	0.076	0.086	0.113*	0.150*	0.151*	0.196*	0.063	0.094
C3_3	0.083	-0.013	-0.021	-0.002	0.063	0.060	0.018	-0.006	0.028	-0.060
C3_4	-0.038	-0.046	-0.009	-0.009	0.024	0.000	0.051	-0.022	0.022	0.106*
C3_5	-0.071	0.179*	0.159*	0.168*	0.136*	0.176*	0.102*	0.184*	0.014	0.001
C3_6	-0.111*	0.223*	0.108*	0.128*	0.152*	0.126*	0.069	0.157*	0.031	-0.031
C3_7	-0.062	0.122*	0.196*	0.178*	0.178*	0.060	0.119*	0.181*	0.032	0.084
C3_8	0.116*	0.242*	0.324*	0.269*	0.222*	0.257*	0.155*	0.209*	0.024	0.071
C3_9	-0.089	0.260*	0.225*	0.311*	0.231*	0.230*	0.122*	0.242*	-0.004	0.087
C3_10	-0.058	0.236*	0.189*	0.274*	0.224*	0.250*	0.084	0.204*	-0.027	0.069
C3_11	-0.152*	0.218*	0.138*	0.115*	0.146*	0.094	0.092	0.061	0.073	0.053

	C1_1	C1_2	C1_3	C1_4	C1_5	C1_6	C1_7	C1_8	C1_9	C1_10
C4_1	-0.004	0.181*	0.219*	0.241*	0.221*	0.209*	0.214*	0.242*	-0.049	0.042
C4_2	-0.082	0.259*	0.239*	0.193*	0.216*	0.223*	0.166*	0.156*	0.010	0.168*
C4_3	-0.071	0.277*	0.191*	0.177*	0.180*	0.217*	0.266*	-0.288*	-0.021	0.060
C4_4	-0.125*	0.264*	0.188*	0.182*	0.108*	0.257*	0.182*	0.142*	-0.041	0.036
C4_5	-0.160*	0.227*	-0.019	-0.004	-0.040	-0.003	0.130*	0.141*	0.127*	0.071
C4_6	0.001	0.168*	0.234*	0.187*	0.163*	0.219*	0.103*	0.189*	-0.016	0.061
C4_7	-0.143*	0.173*	0.199*	0.233*	0.183*	0.262*	0.188*	0.264*	-0.047	-0.033
C4_8	-0.093	0.209*	0.236*	0.324*	0.249*	0.255*	0.165*	0.224*	-0.049	0.086
C4_9	-0.148*	0.301*	0.252*	0.293*	0.213*	0.242*	0.168*	0.247*	0.004	0.060
C4_10	-0.183*	0.236*	0.225*	0.279*	0.226*	0.280*	0.182*	0.275*	0.033*	0.126*
C5_1	0.123*	0.036	0.168*	0.188*	0.183*	0.067	0.053	0.057	-0.004	0.003
C5_2	-0.001	-0.047	-0.053	-0.085	-0.133*	-0.016	-0.057	0.014	0.041	0.003
C5_3	0.115*	-0.102*	-0.076*	0.099*	0.089	-0.012	-0.017	-0.024	0.050	-0.022
C5_4	0.005	-0.119*	-0.170*	-0.120*	-0.150*	-0.092	-0.051	-0.035	0.076	-0.020
C5_5	-0.032	0.085	-0.051	-0.013	0.021	0.030	0.035	0.113*	0.044	0.007
C5_6	-0.007	0.194*	0.196*	0.193*	0.139*	0.129*	0.110*	0.191*	0.096	0.091
C5_7	0.061	-0.031	0.024	0.032	-0.035	0.024	-0.021	0.035	0.013	0.011
	C1_11	C1_12	C1_13	C2_1	C2_2	C2_3	C2_4	C2_5	C3_1	C3_2
C1_11	1.000									
C1_12	0.132*	1.000								
C1_13	0.354*	0.010	1.00							
C2_1	0.137*	0.024	-0.027	1.000						
C2_2	0.064	0.213*	-0.074	0.398*	1.000					
C2_3	-0.014	0.184*	-0.136*	0.297*	0.498*	1.000				
C2_4	-0.019	0.141*	0.145*	0.107*	0.429*	0.596*	1.000			
C2_5	0.057	0.048	-0.054	0.396*	0.343*	0.448*	0.463*	1.000		
C3_1	0.129*	0.045	0.237*	0.030	-0.019	-0.047	-0.091	0.331*	1.000	
C3_2	0.114*	0.111*	0.309*	-0.076	-0.062	-0.060	-0.148*	-0.106*	0.331*	1.000
C3_3	0.083	0.023	-0.025	0.266*	0.271*	0.196*	0.151*	0.233*	0.071	0.006
C3_4	-0.014	0.090	0.062	-0.006	-0.008	0.074	0.084	0.056	0.254*	0.343*
C3_5	0.180*	0.084	0.151*	0.108*	0.116*	-0.006	-0.009	0.053	0.357*	0.249*
C3_6	0.091	0.061	0.170*	0.015	0.015	10.102*	-0.142*	-0.113*	0.254*	0.443*
C3_7	0.066	0.085	0.200*	0.101*	0.013	-0.034	-0.059	-0.038	0.203*	0.233*
C3_8	0.270*	0.035	0.293*	0.032	0.012	-0.112*	-0.039	-0.112*	0.022	0.298*

C3_9	0.319*	0.058	0.227*	0.093	0.045	-0.021	-0.0073	0.010	0.354*	0.208*
C3_10	0.261*	0.032	0.239*	0.097	0.023	-0.072	-0.075	0.014	0.357*	0.203*
C3_11	0.087	0.044	0.216*	-0.140*	-0.042	-0.070	-0.177*	-0.142*	0.269*	0.421*
C4_1	0.213*	0.020	0.239*	0.007	-0.099*	0.170*	-0.202*	-0.130*	0.230*	0.192*
C4_2	0.280*	-0.029	0.277*	-0.017	-0.017	-0.149*	-0.179*	0.151*	0.285*	0.203*
C4_3	0.157*	-0.024	0.209*	-0.120*	0.034	-0.073	-0.095	-0.165*	0.282*	0.324*
C4_4	0.212*	-0.015	0.229*	-0.001	0.014	-0.043	-0.121*	0.004	0.230*	0.219*
C4_5	-0.041	0.112*	0.168*	-0.136*	0.012	0.023	0.058	-0.001	0.103*	0.280*
C4_6	0.261*	0.141*	0.284*	0.071	0.071	-0.064	-0.088	0.004	0.246*	0.260*
C4_7	0.226*	0.046	0.249*	-0.009	0.026	-0.052	0.084	0.081	0.170*	0.144*
C4_8	0.313*	0.070	0.320*	0.047	0.009	-0.086	-0.092	-0.074	0.227*	0.137*
C4_9	0.230*	0.069	0.340*	-0.039	-0.039	-0.173*	-0.157*	-0.121*	0.271*	0.219*
C4_10	0.270*	0.064	0.309*	0.009	-0.046	-0.154*	-0.128*	-0.137*	0.258*	0.192*
C5_1	0.098	0.008	0.168*	0.178*	0.168*	0.041	0.046	0.107*	0.117*	-0.016
C5_2	0.032	0.080	0.053	0.129*	0.227*	0.237*	0.181*	0.220*	-0.050	-0.119*
C5_3	0.022	0.098	-0.049	0.159*	0.254*	0.279*	0.271*	0.232*	-0.083	-0.114*
C5_4	-0.031	0.108*	-0.075	0.134*	0.361*	0.283	0.313	0.244*	-0.096	-0.060
C5_5	0.078	0.046	0.033	0.032	0.104*	0.115*	0.084	0.097	0.063	0.051
C5_6	0.163*	0.070	0.193*	0.021	-0.058	0.045	-0.072	-0.065	0.223*	0.136*
C5_7	0.056	0.197*	-0.023	0.098	0.140*	0.178*	0.237*	0.148*	0.033	-0.015
	C3_3	**C3_4**	**C3_5**	**C3_6**	**C3_7**	**C3_8**	**C3_9**	**C3-10**	**C3_11**	**C4_1**
C3_3	1.000									
C3_4	-0.046	1.000								
C3_5	0.084	0.268*	1.000							
C3_6	0.O27	0.154*	0.339*	1.000						
C3_7	0.088	0.154*	0.236*	0.259*	1.000					
C3_8	O.065	0.171*	0.381*	0.300*	0.223*	1.000				
C3_9	0.157*	0.084	0.407*	0.248*	0.260*	0.693*	1.000			
C3_10	0.134*	0.114*	0.414*	0.198*	0.211*	0.643*	0.75*	1.000		
C3_11	-0.053	0.371*	0.187*	0.301*	0.209*	0.307*	0.305*	0.268*	1.000	
C4_1	0.081	-0.007	0.273*	0.153*	0.186*	0.329*	0.462*	0.508*	0.234*	1.000
C4_2	0.055	0.044	0.282*	0.182*	0.097	0.410*	0.435*	0.452*	0.239*	0.578*
C4_3	-0.009	0.157*	0.272*	0.239*	0.127*	0.334*	0.345*	0.292*	0.339*	0.419*
C4_4	0.129*	0.084	0.277*	0.154*	0.081	0.315*	0.334*	0.436*	0.197*	0.390*
C4_5	-0.018	0.252*	0.177*	0.240*	0.148*	0.102*	0.051	0.032	0.320*	0.032
C4_6	0.031	-0.005	0.311*	0.181*	0.209*	0.322*	0.319*	0.370*	0.154*	0.391*

C4_7	0.008	-0.008	0.287*	0.212*	0.174*	0.255*	0.277*	0.282*	0.165*	0.320*
C4_8	0.053	-0.067	0.240*	0.125*	0.120*	0.364*	0.453*	0.471*	0.107*	0.425*
C4_9	-0.023	-0.020	0.287*	0.212*	0.154*	0.359*	0.388*	0.397*	0.166*	0.363*
C4_10	-0.013	0.011	0.262*	0.209*	0.204*	0.396*	0.409*	0.435*	0.211*	0.431*
C5_1	0.121*	-0.094	0.126*	0.064	0.010	0.059	0.143*	0.195*	0.008	0.206*
C5_2	0.150*	-0.080	0.079	0.033	-0.007	-0.085	0.043	0.062	-0.052	0.076
C5_3	0.168*	-0.037	0.077	-0.086	-0.114*	-0.102*	-0.083	0.012	-0.046	0.019
C5_4	0.205*	0.069	0.023	-0.095	-0.024	-0.069	-0.077	-0.082	-0.059	0.121*
C5_5	0.087	0.062	0.107*	0.072	0.053	0.085	0.106*	0.041	0.037	0.075
C5_6	0.018	0.041	0.296*	0.181*	0.105*	0.178*	0.208*	0.186*	0.070	0.292*
C5_7	0.025	-0.025	0.076	0.022	0.023	-0.023	0.041	0.031	0.006	0.091
	C4_2	C4_3	C4_4	C4_5	C4_6	C4_7	C4_8	C4_9	C4_10	C5_1
C4_2	1.000									
C4_3	0.541*	1.000								
C4_4	0.476*	0.460*	1.000							
C4_5	0.090	0.258*	0.191*	1.000						
C4_6	0.359*	0.243*	0.424*	-0.096	1.000					
C4_7	0.339*	0.355*	0.383*	0.133*	0.477*	1.000				
C4_8	0.482*	0.342*	0.465*	-0.072	0.549*	0.515*	1.000			
C4_9	0.414*	0.372*	0.467*	0.070	0.484*	0.525*	0.637*	1.000		
C4_10	0.411*	0.391*	0.338*	0.085	0.359*	0.417*	0.532*	0.616*	1.000	
C5-1	0.161*	-0.010	0.164*	0.129*	0.271*	0.104*	0.275*	0.167*	0.094	1.000
C5_2	-0.012	-0.097	0.045	0.003	0.046	0.119*	0.008	-0.056	-0.029	0.366*
C4_3	-0.036	-0.048	0.046	-0.018	0.044	0.061	-0.027	-0.067	-0.057	0.218*
C5_4	-0.149*	-0.052	-0.056	0.134*	-0.089	-0.053	0.125*	-0.101*	-0.095	0.008
C5_5	0.138*	0.216*	0.105*	0.128*	0.063	0.113*	0.071	0.097	0.172*	-0.040
C5_6	0.334*	0.252*	0.208*	0.112*	0.245*	0.241*	0.268*	0.276*	0.216*	0.112*
C5_7	-0.018	-0.012	-0.005	-0.029	0.102*	0.066	0.068	0.015	0.013	0.242*
	C5_2	C5_3	C5_4	C5_5	C5_6	C5_7				
C5_2	1.000									
C5_3	0.424*	1.000								
C5_4	0.210*	0.382*	1.000							
C5_5	0.016	0.151*	0.151*	1.000						
C5_6	0.038	-0.006	0.035	0.358*	1.000					
C5_7	0.355*	0.217*	0.153*	0.062	0.081	1.000				

The marked (*) correlations are significant at p<..05000

Table 6.38 indicates that no correlation was noticed between C1_9 (SGB chairperson's influence during teacher promotion process) and all C3 items (working conditions). There

was also no correlation between the SGB chairperson's influence during the promotion process and all C5 items (the grades 10-12 NCS). There was also no correlation between C1_10 (trade unions' recognition of their members for promotion process) and all C5 items (WIPD). On the other hand, teachers' ratings indicate a positive relationship between WIPD and the grades 10-12 NCS. This shows that WIPD determined the teachers' job satisfaction levels regarding the grades 10-12 NCS implementation. This is in line with Mello's (2008: 39) argument that PD increases job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected that PD does not determine teachers' levels of job satisfaction.

Teachers' ratings show that there was a positive, significant correlation between items C4_2, C4_3, C4_4, C4_5, C4_6, C4_7 and C4_8, and items C1_2, C1_3, C1_4, C1_5, C1_6, C1_7 and C1-8 items. This shows that the wider school community determined RSST's experiences of job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected that there is no relationship between the wider school community and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction. There was also a statistically significant correlation between parents' involvement and poor availability of teaching and learning resources. There was also a positive, significant correlation between poor school safety and teachers' bad, unsafe accommodation in rural areas. The null hypothesis was rejected that there is no relationship between poor school safety and bad, unsafe teachers' accommodation. There was also a positive correlation between C3 items (working conditions) and C4 items (the wider school community), indicating that the wider school community determined the working conditions in RSSs. This suggests that the nature and the levels of socio-economic factors in rural communities determined the nature of working conditions in their schools. The null hypothesis was rejected that the wider school community does not determine the working conditions in RSSs.

6.4 SUMMARY

Teachers were dissatisfied about working in rural areas since they were overloaded and RSSs lacked resources and infrastructure. School buildings were dilapidated and classrooms were not conducive for learning and teaching. Learners were ill-disciplined because they carried dangerous weapons and smoked dagga inside the school premises. The SGB chairpersons and principals had a greater influence in teachers' promotion processes. Teacher trade union involvement in teachers' promotion processes was found to be disruptive rather than constructive since they forced their undeserving candidates, which were their loyal and active

union members to be promoted. Teachers were promoted not on merit but their promotion was based on favouritism and bias, which demotivated deserving teachers.

The condition of roads was too bad causing damage to teachers' cars. Although some schools have electricity there were still rural communities who have no electricity, making teachers' work more difficult. Those teachers who stayed in the community cottages and rented huts used candles and gas stoves for lighting and cooking. Teachers and learners travelled long distances to schools and the level of late coming was very high on the part of learners and some teachers during rainy days. Some of the female learners were raped after school hours because they walked long distances. Teacher development was found to be one of the factors that determined teachers' levels of job satisfaction. The wider school community affected the working conditions in RSSs. Teachers' job satisfaction levels were very low about the grades 10-12 NCS, working conditions and the wider school community. Research findings indicate that there were differences between some of the biographical variables and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER SEVEN
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Teacher PD is assumed as one of the key elements for effective grades 10-12 NCS implementation in KZN rural secondary schools. It is also assumed that adequately developed teachers are more likely to produce better education outcomes. This chapter therefore analyses and discusses data based on PD theories, IQMS, current PD strategies, a PD plan and how PD is provided in KZN rural secondary schools. Data from survey questionnaires, interviews and observation schedules is presented using tables and themes.

7.2 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

7.2.1 PD theories

The PD theories are some of the important strategies of developing RSSTs for effective grades 10-12 NCS implementation. Table 7.1 provides data analysis on teachers' PD theories.

Table 7.1 Teachers' PD theories

	Percentage						Mean	Std.Dev.
Item	1	2	3	4	5	Total		
1.1 Current PDPs such as IQMS and workshops help teachers to construct new knowledge.	6.5	10.75	17.75	49	16	100	3.57	0.08
1.2 PDPs are learners-centred.	4.75	14.75	29.25	46	5.25	100	3.32	0.95
1.3 PDPs are interesting.	3.5	13.75	31.25	46	5.5	100	3.36	0.91
1.4 PDPs occur in a collegial environment.	4.75	13.5	38.5	40	3.25	100	3.24	0.90
1.5 Practical-based learning is conducted in PDPs.	3.75	14.75	33.5	45	3	100	3.29	0.89
1.6 Self-directed Learning is promoted.	3.25	12.5	30.25	48.5	5,5	100	3.41	0.89
1.7 Problem-based learning is provided.	4	11	30.75	50.25	4	100	3.39	0.88

Findings show that teachers' responses were at average level since the mean scores of all items were greater than 2.50 and smaller than 3.50 except item 1.1 (3.57). The reason might be that teachers have been exposed to different workshops of which some of them were effective and some of them were ineffective. On the other hand, Table 7.1 suggests that teachers' PDP theories were insufficiently utilized when conducting teachers' PDPs.

7.2.1.1 School-based and district-based PDPs

The findings show that 51.55% of the teachers felt that PDPs were learner-centred while there were 29.25% teachers who were uncertain. There were 19.5% teachers who indicated that PDs were not learners' centred. The mean score of 3.32 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that PDPs were rarely or sometimes learner-centred. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.10630 (age), 0.54322 (qualification), 0.82082 (experience), 0.65804 (post level), 0.97663 (type of employment) and 0.18538 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Teachers' responses show that 51.5% of the teachers viewed that PDPs were interesting while 31.25% teachers were uncertain. There were 17.25% teachers who indicated that PDPs were not interesting. The mean score of 3.36 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that PDPs were rarely or sometimes interesting. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.28924 (gender) 0.724338 (type of employment), 0.84310 (post level), 0.94285 (experience), 0.67936 (qualification) and 0.81173 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Findings show that 43.25% of the teachers felt that PDPs occurred in a collegial environment while there were 38.5% teachers who were uncertain. There were 18.25% teachers who indicated that PDPs did not occur in a collegial environment. The mean score of 3.24 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that PDPs rarely or sometimes occurred in a collegial environment. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.76110 (age), o.75793 (qualification), 0.97937 (experience), 0.43233 (post level), 0.82287 (type of employment0 and 0.10772 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Research findings from interviews show that district PDPs were facilitator-based. Teachers stated that there was no discussion taking place between the workshop facilitators and the teachers. Teachers had only to listen to information delivered to them by the workshop facilitators. There was only one way information. Gensburg and Herman (2008) state that in a learner-centred environment the PD facilitator bases instruction on teachers' prior knowledge and experiences. Ilembe School C Teacher One commented:

> *Workshops conducted at district level use only cascade model of teacher development.*
> *Only subject advisers are talking in district workshops. We have to only listen to them*

since we are not actively involved in the district workshops. There is no strategy used to assess whether we understand what has been taught to us.

On the other hand, teachers mentioned that those few school-based PDPs conducted by HODs in their departments were learner-centred since teachers raised their challenges and discussed among themselves and their HODs. Teachers further stated that there were some opportunities for discussion in their departments although some of their challenges and concerns were not resolved since expertise was sometimes lacking on the part of HODs, more particularly those HODs who were managing and supervising more than one subject department.

Further research findings indicate that district-based PDPs were not interesting since there were many teachers in attendance and practical activities were impossible. Some of the teachers complained that they were only listeners of information having no opportunities to ask questions for clarity. Furthermore, some teachers stated that subject advisers have limited facilitation skills and lacked knowledge of the content they delivered to teachers. The comments by Empangeni School A HOD supported these findings:

District workshops are not interesting because subject advisers use only the cascade model of teacher development. These workshops are boring because we are not actively engaged. We have to sit and listen to information for the whole day.

On the other hand, teachers pointed out that the school-based workshops were sometimes interesting when the HOD facilitated their subjects they have majored in. However, school-based workshops were also uninteresting when the HODs tried to facilitate the subjects they have not majored in. Ilembe School C Teacher Two stated:

School-based workshops are sometimes interesting if HODs are effective since they address the real classroom situation. But these workshops are ineffective and uninteresting if the HODs lack relevant expertise because there are HODs in our schools who supervise subject departments which are outside of their specialization.

Teachers showed their dissatisfaction about having only one HOD even if subject streams were more than one. The reason was that HODs were forced to manage and supervise subjects they have no knowledge of because of the small PPN in their schools.

Whitcomb, Borko and Liston (2009) point out that PD experiences are effective when situated in a collegial environment. Unfortunately, the qualitative research findings show that

district-based workshops were not taking place in a collegial environment since teachers were threatened with sanctions if their learners failed the final examinations, more particularly grade twelve learners. Ilembe School B Teacher One pointed out:

> *The intention of subject advisers is to find mistakes among teachers. They are always threatening us that when they come to school they want everything in order without effective teacher development. They keep on shouting at us if learners fail. Principals are threatened with demotion if their schools fail to meet a certain percentage in matriculation final examination results.*

This situation has created a sour relationship between RSSTs and subject advisers. As a result, teachers did not welcome subject advisers' visits to their schools. Teachers were unhappy about subject advisers who only came to school to yell at them rather than providing support that teachers needed. Working in such conditions was not good to promote effective teaching and learning in rural schools.

7.2.1.2 The extent of self-regulated learning

Teachers' responses show that 15.75% of the teachers did not think that self-regulated learning (SRL) was promoted. There were 54% of the teachers who thought that SRL was promoted while 30.25% teachers were uncertain. The mean score of 3.41 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that SRL was rarely or sometimes promoted. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.84471 (gender), 0.40977 (type of employment), 0.63942 (post level), 0.62803 (experience), 0.62553 (qualification) and 0.54122 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, it was found that teachers were registered to HEIs to upgrade their qualifications. Teachers stated that they were trying by all means to direct their learning since SMTs and subject advisers were not effective in term of providing PDPs. Teachers relied on their subject statements and colleagues to equip themselves for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS. Teachers mentioned that they work hard by reading textbooks and references in order to equip themselves with relevant knowledge and skills. The comments of Empangeni School A HOD stressed that SRL was promoted:

> *The introduction of new chapters such as evolution and coordination in life sciences caused me sleepless nights. I tried to find techniques to approach these chapters by myself. I read different relevant textbooks and references to contextualize them. We also discussed about these chapters in clusters and now I am more comfortable.*

This shows that when teachers are committed they can do more to develop themselves in order to improve their knowledge and teaching skills. Therefore opportunities for growth have to be sufficiently provided for teachers.

Furthermore, teachers stated that they have opportunities to study further to increase their subject content knowledge. They identified programmes such as NPDE, ACE and BEd as some of the qualifications used by the DoE to promote teachers' SRL. They also pointed out that they were registered in these programmes to improve their knowledge and skills for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS since district workshops were ineffective. Research findings also show that ACE was the most popular qualification registered by senior teachers while NPDE was mostly registered by under-qualified and unqualified teachers. Teachers also stated that they manage to form study groups although the rural conditions were not effective because of geographical isolation of schools. In study groups teachers were sharing information. Ilembe School C Teacher One supported these findings:

> *We do not rely on subject advisers to develop us since they themselves need to be developed in the grades 10-12 NCS. To develop ourselves, we are furthering our studies. We form study groups to assist each other. If we have a problem in the grades 10-12 NCS implementation we ask assistance from our colleagues. If there is nobody with relevant expertise among the staff members, we invite specialists from other schools.*

This shows that teachers were committed to their development since they were furthering their studies and also forming study groups to develop each other. External assistance was also used to develop teachers for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS.

Additionally, the findings show that 54.25% of the teachers indicated that problem-based learning was provided in PDPs while there were 15% teachers who indicated that problem-based PDPs were not used. The mean score of 3.39 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that the problem-based learning was rarely or sometimes provided in PDPs for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.79012 (age), 0.59267 (qualification), 0.83406 (experience), 0.80362 (post level), 0.42134 (type of employment) and 0.18158 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During interviews, teachers mentioned that that it was difficult for the subject advisers to provide problem-based learning at district level workshops since the number of teachers was

normally huge. Teachers indicated that the space for problem-solving was insufficiently available at district level workshops. Another issue raised by teachers was the low level of competence of subject advisers. They failed to provide information that was more related to rural areas, but they were generic during their presentations. Empangeni School A Teacher Two pointed out:

> *Subject advisers who are district workshop facilitators need more development themselves. They lack facilitation skills and relevant subject expertise. I think these are some of the reasons why they are unable to assess teachers' understanding in the workshops. They avoid teachers' questions, complaining about limited time.*

On the other hand, although teachers pointed out that HODs have limited subject content expertise and facilitations skills, some of them have some expertise in their majored subjects. Therefore, their workshops were practical–based and problem-based helping teachers to solve their actual teaching problems.

7.2.2 IQMS as a WIPDP

IQMS is one of the PD strategies aimed at developing teachers in their schools. Table 7.2 presents a quantitative data analysis on IQMS.

Table 7.2 IQMS as a teachers' WIPDP

Item	Percentage					Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**		
2.1 There is subjectivity in the IQMS scoring process.	4.5	9.75	26	50.5	9.25	3.50	0.95
2.2 SMTs are adequately developed in IQMS matters.	4.25	17.75	21.75	47	9.25	3.40	1.02
2.3 IQMS as a WIPD focuses more on salary progression than teacher development.	5.25	23.5	30	29.75	11.5	3.19	1.08
2.4 Friendship and hatred influence the scoring in the IQMS.	7.5	23	29.75	28.75	11	3.13	3.13
2.5 The DSGs are adequately developed in IQMS activities.	5.75	15	25.5	49	4.75	3.32	0.98
2.6 The school development teams (SDTs) are adequately developed in IQMS activities.	5.25	16.5	25.5	47.75	5	3.31	0.98
2.7 IQMS has adequately developed teachers.	7.5	16.25	24	43	9.25	3.30	1.08

The findings' in this sub-section show that teachers' responses were at average level since the mean scores of all items were greater than 2.50 and less that 3.50 except item 2.1 (3.50). This suggests that teachers in participating KZN rural secondary schools were not satisfied with IQMS because of various factors as analyzed below.

7.2.2.1 Nature of the scoring process in IQMS

Teachers' responses show that 59.75% of the teachers felt that subjectivity influenced the scoring process while 26% of them were uncertain. Only 14.25% of the teachers did not feel that subjectivity was influencing the scoring process in IQMS. The mean score of 3.50 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that subjectivity was influencing the scoring process in IQMS. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.20244 (gender), 0.08813 (type of employment), 0.15918 (post level) and 0.59593 (qualification) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.3 presents age differences.

Table 7.3 Age and scoring in IQMS

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29	9.52	32.66	57.82
30-39	20.02	16.61	63.37
40+ years	13.21	28.73	58.06

Chi-square   12.30222   df=4   p=.01524

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.01524 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 30-39 years experience group was the highest to indicate that subjectivity influenced the scoring process. The 20-29 years of experience group was the most uncertain (32.66%). The possible reason might be that young teachers have no sufficient exposure to IQMS activity compared to the middle-aged and the eldest teachers. Table 7.4 presents experience differences.

Table 7.4 Experience and scoring in IQMS

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	10.73%	47.43%	41.84%
3-4 years	10.00%	21.00%	69.00%
5-9 years	12.98%	24.88%	62.14%
10-19 years	20.87%	20.73%	58.40%
20+ years	16.67%	15.96%	67.37%

Chi-square   27.10467   df=8   p=.00068

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.00068 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years experience group (41.84%) was the least to indicate that subjectivity influenced the scoring process. Teachers with more years of experience were more likely to indicate that subjectivity influenced the scoring process. The possible reason

might be that the new teachers have less information than more experienced groups in terms of cheating in IQMS.

Findings show that 41.25% of the teachers thought that IQMS focused more on salary progression rather than teacher development while 28.75% of them thought that IQMS did not focus on salary progression; while 30% teachers were uncertain. The mean score of 3.19 was greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, showing that IQMs rarely or sometimes focused on salary progression. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.4522 (age), 0.68844 (qualification), 0.56968 (type of employment) and 0.58603 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.5 presents post level differences.

Table 7.5 Post level and salary progression

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	29.75%	37.92%	32.33%
SMT	27.75%	22.08%	50.17%
Chi-square	7.395274	df=2	p=.02478

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.02478 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). There were more SMT members (50.17%) compared to PL1 teachers (32.33%), indicating that IQMS focuses more on salary progression. The possible reason might be that SMTs have noticed that teachers wanted higher scores although they did not deserve them. This is because higher scores qualify teachers for pay progression. Table 7.6 presents experience differences.

Table 7.6 Experience and salary progression

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	21.20%	48.13%	30.67%
3-4 years	34.24%	27.19%	38.57%
5-9 years	23.44%	31.40%	45.16%
10-19 years	33.31%	21.28%	45.41%
20+ years	31.56%	22.00%	46.44%
Chi-square	18.77956	df=8	p=.01608

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.01608 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years experience group (30.67%) was the least, indicating that IQMS focused on pay progression. The more experienced groups were more likely to

indicate that IQMS focused on pay progression. The possible reason might be that new teachers have less information in IQMS activities. This is also supported by a huge number (48.13%) of 0-2 years experience group in Table 7.6, indicating that they were uncertain.

Research findings from interviews indicate that the IQMS was just done for formality and pay progression purposes. These findings concur with Dhlamini's (2009:14) argument that the administration of IQMS files is like window dressing in order to submit fabricated evidence to the DoE. In all schools visited IQMS scores for previous years were available but teachers were honest to reveal that scores were fabricated since they did not do it practically. They complained that IQMS was adding more load on them since they were already overloaded. They further revealed that IQMS scores were awarded to teachers without an actual evaluation process. As a result, scores provided were biased and based on the relationship between DSG members and evaluated teachers. Ilembe School A Teacher Two confessed:

> *I think the money involved in IQMS makes its scores difficult to be fair. Even myself, if I could be one of the members of the development support group I would be biased. I cannot give my friend low scores. I will make sure that she qualifies for salary progression even if she is underperforming.*

Based on the latter comments, it becomes impossible to trust teachers' scores submitted to DoE for salary progression. It is therefore more likely that some teachers were getting higher scores which they did not deserve.

Moreover, research findings indicate that friendship and hatred were used to give scores. Teachers pointed out that there was no justice in the scoring process since the DSGs were pushing for their friends to be awarded higher scores. Those teachers who were not on good terms with the DSG or principals were given low scores even if they deserved more. Teachers pointed out that in some instances principals were awarding scores alone without the presence of the SDT and DSG members, let alone the teacher concerned. The latter findings indicate that IQMS was not conducted fairly and effectively in RSSs.

In addition, IQMS was mentioned by teachers as the sensitive PD strategy since it caused conflicts among teachers because of the money involved. This is supported by Bischoff and Mathye (2009:401) that teachers cheated scores on ratings and threatened their DSGs because they all wanted to receive money associated with good performance. Research findings

further show that IQMS did not serve the purpose it was established for, that was to develop teachers. Empangeni School C Teacher Two asserted:

> *As teachers, we do not perceive IQMS as a development strategy. We see it as the programme used to make money. I am sure if it were not for money teachers would have resisted doing it openly since it has no impact on their development.*

Teachers stated that they were not happy with IQMS since it was a tool used by those who were in power to fight their own battles with rivalry teachers. Teachers complained that teachers who were not on good terms with SMTs, more particularly the principals, got lower scores even if they deserved more, and those who were principals' friends were getting higher scores even if they did not deserve them. That was one of the reasons raised by teachers why they did not accept and support IQMS in their schools.

7.2.2.2 The level of competence in IQMS

Results show that 53.75% of the teachers thought that the DSGs were adequately developed in IQMS while 20.75% of them felt that DSGs were inadequately developed in IQMS matters. The mean score of 3.32 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that DSGs were rarely or sometimes competent in IQMS activities. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.59327 (gender), 0.19042 (type of employment), 0.16512 (post level), 0.46334 (qualification) and 0.73554 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.7 presents experience differences.

Table 7.7 Experience and DSGs' competence in IQMS

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	12.00	34.47	53.53
3-4 years	20.00	24.29	55.71
5-9 years	09.93	23.40	66.67
10-19 years	25.70	27.68	46.62
20+ years	36.12	17.66	46.22

Chi-square   17.63919   df=8   p=.02410

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.02410 was less than 0.05 (5%). The most experienced groups=10-19 years (46.62%) and 20+ years (46.22%) were the least to indicate that DSGs were competent in IQMS. The latter groups were the highest, indicating that DSGs were not competent. The possible reason might be that

teachers in the latter groups were senior teachers who were members of the DSGs. Therefore they were honest to expose their shortcomings in IQMS matters.

Teachers' responses show that 22% of the teachers indicated that SDTs were inadequately developed, while 52.75% of them thought that SDTs had adequate knowledge of IQMS. The mean score of 3.31 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that the SDTs were rarely or sometimes competent in IQMS issues. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.33600 (age), 0.09121 (qualification), 0.14010 (post level) and 0.85426 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.8 presents type of employment differences.

Table 7.8 Type of employment and SDTs' competence in IQMS

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	26.96%	23.74%	49.30%
Temporary	16.54%	27.26%	56.20%

Chi-square   6.166446   df=2   p=.04581

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.04581 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (26.96%) than temporary teachers (16.54%) indicated that the SDTs were insufficiently developed in IQMS. The possible reason might be that permanent teachers were more aware of the SDT's level of competence than temporary teachers. Table 7.9 presents experience differences.

Table 7.9 Experience and SDTs' competence in IQMS

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	12.36%	40.64%	47.00%
3-4 years	21.38%	23.43%	55.19%
5-9 years	11.98%	25.83%	62.19%
10-19 years	26.78%	20.97%	52.25%
20+ years	36.25%	16.63%	47.12%

Chi-square   18.59308   df=8   p=.01719

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.01719 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 20+ years experience group (36.25%), which was the eldest group, was the highest to indicate that SDTs were incompetent in IQMS. Additionally, the 20+ years experience group (47.12%) and the 0-2 years group (47%) were the least to

indicate that SDTs were competent in QMS. The possible reason might be that the most experienced teachers were members of SDTs and they were honest to expose their shortcomings in IQMS activities.

Further findings show that 56.25% of the teachers indicated that the SMTs were competent. A big number of 22% teachers thought that SMTs were not adequately competent in IQMS while 21.75% teachers were undecided. The mean score of 3.40 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that SMTs were rarely or sometimes competent in IQMS matters. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.26487 (gender), 0.25061 (type of employment), 0.67253 (post level), 0.71986 (qualification) and 0.72631 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.10 presents experience differences.

Table 7.10 Experience and SMTs' competence in IQMS

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	13.33%	36.70%	49.97%
3-4 years	32.51%	12.54%	54.95%
5-9 years	18.21%	16.20%	65.59%
10-19 years	23.83%	21.21%	54.96%
20+ years	22.12%	22.10%	55.78%

Chi-square   20.05391   df=8   p=.01013

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.01013 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 0-2 years experience group was the least (49.97%) to indicate that SMTs were competent in IQMS. Teachers with more years of experience were more likely to indicate that SMTs were competent in IQMS. The possible reason might be that young teachers lacked information regarding the role played by SMTs in IQMS.

Qualitative research findings show that SMTs were insufficiently developed in IQMS since schools have no IQMS specialists who were able to coordinate it among staff members. Teachers pointed out that they did not accept IQMS since it did not help them regarding their development needs. Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two stated:

> *IQMS does not develop teachers since school management teams know nothing about it. That is the reason why teachers are not committed to it. School management team and the school development team do not coordinate IQMs among teachers.*

Teachers stated that SMTs were unable to encourage them about IQMS. They also failed to coordinate IQMS among teachers. Teachers did not accept IQMS because of the manner in which it was introduced to them since SMTs were ineffective.

Teachers also asserted that DSGs are normal teachers without IQMS expertise. They stated that this emanated from the fact that they were not invited by the district when IQMS was introduced and that was one of the reasons why they were not developed on it. The only insufficient information they received about IQMS was from their SMTs who attended a one to two days workshop which was on its own inadequate. These findings confirm Nkambule's (2010:71) study that found that very little training was provided to DSGs by the DoE for effective IQMS implementation. Umzinyathi School B deputy principal commented:

> *The IQMS introduction workshop was attended only by the principal and one post level one teacher. The workshop was only one day which was insufficient. When they returned to school they disseminated inadequate information among teachers. As a result, teachers including school development team and development support group are inadequately developed in IQMS activities.*

Teachers stated that the DSGs were unable to provide PD sessions to teachers to address their areas of development since they were not sure how to do it. That was one of the reasons why IQMS was ineffective in RSSs since DSGs were the only structure responsible to provide continuous WIPDPs to RSSTs in order to address areas of development that had been identified in the previous class visit.

Additionally, teachers pointed out that SDTs were also ineffective since they were also inadequately developed in IQMS matters. Umzinyathi School C Teacher Two supported:

> *Seniority does not count when it comes to IQMS expertise. School management team, school development team and development support groups are struggling in IQMS. We are all new in it. There is no specialist in it.*

Research findings show that SDT members were chosen based on their seniority but they lacked IQMS knowledge and facilitation skills. The reason raised by teachers was that they were inadequately developed in IQMS activities. Those who attended the IQMS orientation workshop failed to develop SDTs since they were also insufficiently developed. SDTs' shortcomings were also noticed based on that they have never conducted IQMS meetings since they did not know what to say to teachers regarding IQMS. These findings confirm Somo's (2007) findings that STDs failed even to conduct meetings to discuss IQMS matters.

Among the reasons raised by teachers why SDTs did not conduct meetings was that they were insufficiently developed in IQMS matters. Furthermore, teachers indicated that only the principals dominated IQMS in order to unfairly manipulate it against their enemies; as a result, the IQMS chairpersons have no say, authority and power over it.

7.2.2.3 Impact of IQMS on teacher development

Teachers' responses show that 52.25% of the teachers viewed that the IQMS has adequately developed teachers while 23.75% teachers did not feel that IQMS has adequately developed them. The mean score of 3.30 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that IQMS rarely or sometimes developed teachers. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.56724 (age) 0.34039 (qualification), 0.15670 (post level), 0.18714 (type of employment) and 0.50896 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.11 presents experience differences.

Table 7.11 Experience and teacher development in IQMS

Experience	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
0-2 years	17.50%	30.50%	52.00%
3-4 years	22.96%	25.61%	51.43%
5-9 years	11.42%	24.16%	64.42%
10-19 years	32.94%	23.66%	43.40%
20+ years	33.93%	16.07%	50.00%

Chi-square　　　18.23814　df=8　　　p=.01951

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.01951 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). The 10-19 years (32.94%) and 20+ years (33.93%) experience groups were the highest in stating that IQM did not develop teachers. The latter groups were the least=43.40% and 50% to indicate that IQMS has developed teachers. The possible reason might be that the most experienced teachers have engaged themselves in IQMS several times but they noticed no development in themselves.

During interviews, teachers pointed out that IQMS did not develop them at all. The teachers indicated that IQMS was an effective strategy to develop teachers, but it was not implemented accordingly in schools. The comments by Empangeni School B principal provided a clearer picture:

IQMS was not effectively negotiated with teachers. Teachers are not developed in it. IQMS facilitators are not experts in it. IQMS has no impact on teachers' development. The IQMS facilitator that visited our school was only covering the scope since not even a single teacher was developed by the visit. IQMS is not accepted by teachers. That is the reason why teachers fabricate scores.

Teachers showed negative attitudes towards the existence of IQMS in schools as the teacher development mechanism. The comments by Ilembe School A Teacher One supported this:

IQMS is a good teacher development programme but it does not happen appropriately. It causes conflicts among teachers. The money involved in it causes problems in schools.

Further comments by Ilembe School A principal concurred with the latter:

No teacher development is happening in IQMS. IQMS is too sensitive. The focus is not on development but to get the money involved with it. It causes conflict and hatred in schools.

Ilembe School C Teacher Two added that:

IQMS does not play any role in developing teachers at the moment. Maybe in future teachers will be developed by IQMS. They must stop it. It does not help us at all.

Teachers honestly mentioned that IQMS was done in schools but only on paper. They stated that they have no time for IQMS and they see no need to do it. Teachers were not shy to state that IQMS scores were done only to rush submission dates to the DoE. They stated that if IQMS was done properly there would be no teaching taking place for the whole week. The reason was that there was too much paperwork involved in IQMS. Therefore, teachers saw no need to take IQMS more seriously than teaching their learners since it did not develop them at all.

7.2.3 Current PD strategies

Current teacher PD strategies have an important role to play for effective grades 10-12NCS implementation. Table 7.12 provides quantitative data analysis on current PD strategies.

Table 7.12 Current PD strategies

Item	Percentage						Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5	Total		
3.1 PDPs are facilitator-based.	3	11.75	34.25	47	4	100	3.37	0.85
3.2 There is sharing of expertise among teachers in PDPs.	2.25	10.25	24	57.5	6	100	3.55	0.84
3.3 Senior teachers are used to developing novice teachers.	2.75	13.5	23.25	51.75	8.75	100	3.50	0.93
3.4 Subject workshops are conducted at district level.	2	10.75	18.25	54.5	14.5	100	3.69	0.92
3.5 Teachers use videos to develop themselves.	10.5	29.5	29.25	24.75	6	100	2.86	1.09
3.6 Phase meetings are held to develop teachers.	5	13.25	28.25	46.5	7	100	3.37	0.97
3.7 Teachers form study groups to develop each other.	7.25	18.25	24.5	41.25	8.75	100	3.26	1.08
3.8 School use clusters to develop themselves.	3.75	9	14.5	54.25	18.5	100	3.75	0.98

Teachers' responses in this sub-section show that teachers were positive in most items except in item 3.1, item 3.5, item 3.6 and item 3.7. This shows that agree rating was indicated by the most teachers compared to disagree and neutral.

7.2.3.1 Subject content-based workshop at district level

Teachers' responses show that 69% of the teachers thought that subject workshops were conducted at district level. Only 12.75% teachers viewed that subject workshops were not conducted. There were 18.25% teachers undecided. The mean score of 3.69 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that subject workshops were conducted at district level. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.23674 (gender), 0.52028 (type of employment), 0.66823 (post level), 0.43964 (experience), 0.73891 (qualification) and 0.13454 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Mukeredzi (2009) asserts that it is a matter of common sense that teachers need to know the subject they teach. Teachers indicated that subject workshops were conducted at district level only when the new curriculum was introduced such as OBE, RNCS, NCS and CAPS. Ilembe School C Teacher Two commented:

> *District workshops are always generic. They fail to address subject content issues. These workshops are conducted only to disseminate information about the new curriculum. Subjects are not sufficiently attended to. Only some of important areas of the subject are highlighted leaving us with inadequate information.*

In addition, Empangeni School B Teacher Two pointed out:

Subject content-based does not receive attention at district level workshops. Our workshops are too generic. I think the problem is that subject advisers are not curriculum specialists. This is because many of them were appointed based on nepotism. They are not good subject specialists at all.

Based on the latter comments, it is more unlikely that teachers may become effective grades 10-12 NCS implementers since the content of their subject was not sufficiently attended to in district workshops by their subject advisers.

7.2.3.2 Clusters for teachers' WIPD

Findings show that 72.75% of the teachers indicated that clusters were used to develop teachers. Only 12.75% teachers viewed that clusters were not used while 14.5% teachers were undecided. The mean score of 3.75 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that clusters were used to develop teachers. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.85561 (age), 0.92695 (qualification), 0.36796 (experience), 0.85796 (post level), 0.28647 (type of employment) and 0.33425 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings show that clusters were effective strategies to develop teachers. Teachers mentioned that in clusters, they shared expertise and solved problems together. Hendricks (2008) and Hlongwane (2008) argue that it is in clusters where teachers meet to discuss issues related to specific subjects such as content, teaching methods, and assessment including CASS, tests and examinations. Furthermore, teachers pointed out that peer-tutoring was also conducted to develop each other in schools and also in clusters.

Teachers pointed out that they used clusters to develop themselves. They further stated that there were two types of clusters. The first clusters were formed by subject advisers where they met a certain group of schools for development and moderation purposes. The second type of cluster was when teachers formed groups of schools where they met to develop one another without the presence of subject advisers. The second cluster was formed by teachers themselves to share their frustrations and expertise together. In the latter cluster teachers' problems were solved by teachers themselves. They chose the facilitators among themselves. Teachers pointed out that their facilitators in their clusters were chosen among those teachers who understood a particular section better. Ilembe School C Teacher Two asserted:

> *We use clusters to develop each other. Sometimes, we invite subject advisers to assist. In many cases, we conduct workshops without subject advisers in our clusters. We choose facilitators among ourselves.*

Teachers stressed that in clusters, they were effectively developed. The only challenge found in clusters was geographical isolation of schools. Although clusters were formed, some of them were ineffective because of geographical isolation of schools in rural areas. RSSTs pointed out that some teachers were unable to attend clusters since transport was insufficiently available or sometimes the venues were not easily accessible to other teachers.

7.2.3.3 Video-based self-regulated learning

Research findings show that 40% of the teachers indicated that they did not use videos to develop themselves while a huge number of 29.25% teachers were uncertain. There were 30.75% teachers indicated that VBSRL was conducted. The mean score of 2.86 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, indicating that teachers rarely or sometimes used videos to develop themselves. This indicates that teachers were not sufficiently exposed to VBSRL to develop themselves. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.72756 (gender), 0.09714 (post level), 0.72369 (experience), 0.09257 (qualification) and 0.06412 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.13 presents type of employment difference.

Table 7.13 Type of employment and VBSRL

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	47.30%	26.32%	26.38%
Temporary	32.70%	32.18%	35.12%

Chi-square   6.07573   df=2   p=.04794

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.04794 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (47.30%) than temporary teachers (32.70%) indicated that videos were not used. The possible reason might be that permanent teachers were more aware about the unavailability of videos in RSSs than temporary teachers.

Qualitative research findings reveal that videos were not used to develop teachers. During interviews, teachers stated that they were unable to use videos to develop each other since they lacked technological expertise and videos were also not available in RSSs. Research

findings show that in all participating schools VBSRL was not conducted. The reason raised by teachers was that videos for teachers to develop themselves were not available in RSSs. Teachers stated that they have asked for videos from their SMTs but nothing was received. Teachers were interested in VBSRL. The only problem that they have was that videos were unavailable. Research findings further indicate that other schools have no electricity and therefore teachers have no opportunity to use videos even if they could be available in their schools. Umzinyathi School A HOD commented:

> *We do not have videos to develop ourselves. I am willing to use videos as my development strategy. Although I don't know how to use a computer but I will use my DVD device to watch how to improve my teaching skills and knowledge.*

Fernandez (2010) points out that the use of videos can allow teachers to have evidence-informed discussion and this could foster reflective practice among teachers. Furthermore, some teachers in this study pointed out that they were not developed in computers. They possessed no computer literacy skills and therefore it would be difficult for them to use videos even if they were available. However, teachers insisted that they were willing to use videos for their development as long as videos could be made available in their schools.

7.2.3.4 The role of senior teachers

Teachers' responses show that 60.5% of the teachers thought that senior teachers were used to develop novice teachers to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. Only 16.25% of the teachers viewed that senior teachers were not used to develop other teachers. The mean score of 3.50 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that senior teachers were used to develop other teachers. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.11412 (age), 0.72015 (qualification), 0.73315 (experience), 0.97612 (post level), 0.55238 (type of employment) and 0.24320 (gender) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that senior teachers were used at a moderate level to develop teachers since senior teachers were also overloaded. Teachers mentioned that the most people who developed novice teachers in RSSs were their HODs. A study by Joyce and Showers (in Prince, Snowden and Mathews (2010:4) showed that teachers who were involved in coaching sessions, whether experts or participants, were more likely to implement ideas into classroom practice than those who did not participate. Teachers stated that although

HODs in RSSs were also overloaded, they were responsible to develop new teachers. Umzinyathi School C Teacher Two stated:

> *As teachers, we know that the HODs are responsible to develop teachers in their subject departments, more particularly novice teachers. However, in most instances teachers are mentored by senior teachers. Senior teachers give them direction on how to do lesson plans, facilitate learning and how to assess learners.*

Research findings also indicate that sometimes HODs delegate the responsibilities to senior teachers who were also overloaded but HODs still remained responsible and accountable for the development of new teachers. HODs have not only to rely on senior teachers. They have to see whether new teachers were developing or not. Therefore, mentoring PDPs was conducted by senior teachers with their HODs. To support the latter, Ilembe School B Teacher One stated:

> *As a young and new grade twelve teacher I need assistance on how to teach English effectively. Our HOD is overloaded since he is the only HOD in this school. Senior teachers are the people who develop me a lot in English teaching.*

Although she was dependent on senior teachers for her development, the HOD was the only person who has the full responsibility to ensure that she was developing accordingly. HODs has to account if teachers were needing development in their subjects.

7.2.3.5 Phase/subject meetings are held to develop teachers

Teachers' responses show that 53.5% of the teachers indicated that subject meetings were held. There were 18.25% teachers who indicated that subject meetings were not held. The mean score of 3.37 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that phase/subject meetings were rarely or sometimes held to develop teachers. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.10821 (gender), 0.73286 (type of employment), 0.34512 (post level), 0.34768 (experience), 0.87106 (qualification) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.14 presents age difference.

Table 7.14 Age and phase/subject meetings

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	25.27%	27.04%	47.69%
30-39 years	16.58%	34.42%	49.00%
40+ years	12.90%	23.29%	63.81%

Chi-square   11.11194   df=4   p=.02533

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.02533 was less than 0.05 (5%). The 40+ years' experience group was the most (63.81%) compared to 30-39 (49%) and 20-29 (47.69%) years experience groups indicated that subject meetings were held. The possible reason might be that the eldest teachers were protecting themselves since they were the members of SDTs, SMTs and DSGs who were responsible to conduct phase /subject meetings.

Qualitative research findings indicate that HODs were responsible to conduct subject meetings in order to develop teachers. Teachers stated that because HODs have a full teaching workload they were unable to conduct sufficient meetings or workshops as was expected. One of the problems was that most RSSs were small in terms of PPN and therefore teachers and HODs in particular have to teach more subjects than expected. On top of that HODs have to manage more than one subject department, making them unable to perform their development tasks accordingly. Teachers further stated that they were unhappy about the HODs who were managing more than one subject stream. They complained that such HODs were under extreme pressure since they were only specialists in one subject stream. Ilembe School C Teacher One showed her dissatisfaction:

> *There is a disaster in my school. The former mathematics and science HOD in my school is now a commerce HOD because science stream is no longer there. This HOD cannot do anything in commercial subjects since he does not know anything. The only structure that is disrupting education is the DoE itself, why they consider PPN since subjects need to be taught by specialist teachers.*

Similarly, Ilembe School C Teacher Two commented:

> *I am a language teacher but the HOD that supervises me is a science HOD. As a result, he is unable to conduct subject meetings since he lacks relevant expertise. He is guided by post level one teachers on how to teach language.*

During my observation, I discovered that Ilembe School B has two subject streams with one HOD. In addition, Empangeni School C has two subject streams with one HOD, and Ilembe School C has two subject streams with one HOD. Therefore, these HODs were also managing subjects they did not even do at secondary school level let alone tertiary level. Such HODs were being taught by teachers they supervise since they lacked relevant expertise in those subjects. Teachers complained that such HODs were unable to conduct subject workshops for the subject they have no knowledge of. Teachers stated that when learners failed because of the latter situation the blame went to them instead of the DoE since it failed to provide

specialist teachers to schools. Teachers were dissatisfied that the DoE worked with available teachers irrespective of relevant expertise that teachers needed to possess for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs.

7.2.4 Teachers' PD plan

The PD plan is the key for effective teacher development in our schools. Table 7.15 presents data analysis on teachers' PD plan.

Table 7.15 Teachers' PD plan

Item	Percentage					Total	Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5			
4.1 Schools have PD plan	4.5	14.25	29.5	47.25	4.5	100	3.33	0.93
4.2 Needs analysis is conducted before PDPs are provided	3.75	16.5	29.75	46.25	3.75	100	3.30	0.92
4.3 PDPs meet teachers' needs	4.25	16.25	30.25	45.25	4	100	3.29	0.93
4.4 Meetings are conducted to identify teachers' PD needs.	4.5	20	24.75	47.25	3.5	100	3.25	0.96
4.5 Class visits are conducted to identify teachers' PD needs	3.25	13.5	20.75	53.25	9.25	100	3.52	0.95
4.6 Learners' results are used to identify teachers' areas of development	4	13.75	19.5	55.25	7.5	100	3.49	0.96
4.7 Teachers are actively engaged in PD needs analysis.	3.75	14.25	22.75	53.25	6	100	3.44	0.94

Results show that teachers' responses were at average level since the mean score of all items was more than 2.50 but less than 3.50 except item 4.5 (3.52). This shows that there was no clear available plan to develop teachers for the effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs.

7.2.4.1 Teacher development plan

Teachers' responses show that 51.75% of the teachers viewed that the PD plan was available in their schools while 29.5% of the teachers were uncertain. Only 18.75% of the teachers indicated that the PD plan was not available. The mean score of 3.33 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that the PD plan was rarely or sometimes available in RSSs. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.77657 (qualification), 0.23244 (experience), 0.85277 (post level) and 0.65376 (type of employment) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.16 presents gender differences.

Table 7.16 Gender and PD plan

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	13.60%	29.36%	57.04%
Female	23.90%	29.64.%	46.46%

Chi-square   7.479094   df=2   p=.02376

The Pearson's chi-square shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.02373 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (23.90%) than male teachers (13.60%) indicated that the PD plan was not available. More males (57.04) than females (46.46%) indicated that the PD plan was available in their schools. The possible reason might be that male teachers were protecting themselves since the majority gender in SMTs were male teachers. Table 7.17 presents age differences.

Table 7.17 Age and PD plan

Age	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
20-29 years	21.41%	33.27%	45.32%
30-39 years	13.96%	36.59%	49.45%
40+ years	20.88%	18.64%	60.48%

Chi-square   13.78291   df=4   p=.00802

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.00802 was less than 0.05 (5%). There were 60.48% 40+ years of age group compared to 30-39 (49.45%) and 20-29 (45.32%) years of age groups who indicated that the PD plan was available. The possible reason might be that the elder teachers were protecting themselves. It was therefore more likely that the elder teachers were members of SMTs, SDTs and senior teachers which were responsible to develop the PD plan for teacher development in their schools.

Qualitative research findings indicate that all interviewed and observed schools have no PD plan. During my observation, I did not find the PD plan in all nine schools observed, except the IQMS records without continuous teacher PD records. Only the final scores were available in the records. These findings confirm Munonde's (2007:109) study in Limpopo that found that facilitators of PDPs have no teachers' development plan. The reason raised by the teachers during interviews was that there was no time to develop the PD plan since they were overloaded. Empangeni School B principal confessed:

> *The PD plan is a problem to us. The reason is that there are many subjects. There is insufficient time for the PD plan. Individualized teacher attention is rarely provided. We are dependent on HODs to develop teachers in their subject departments.*

In addition, Umzinyathi School A HOD honestly stated:

> *This is something we have never thought about. We only hold teacher development sessions when the need for them arises. We do not plan ahead when to conduct teachers' PDPs.*

These findings indicate that PD plan was not considered by RSSs as an effective mechanism to develop teachers. Although some teachers in the interview process claimed that the PD plan was there, during my observation it was not found even in one school.

7.2.4.2 Identifying teachers' PD needs

Teachers' responses show that 50% of the teachers felt that a needs analysis was conducted before PDPs were conducted in their schools while 20.25% teachers felt that a needs analysis was not conducted. The mean score of 3.30 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that a needs analysis was rarely or sometimes conducted before PDPs were conducted. The Pearson chi-square p-values of 0.83332 (post level), 0.88021 (post level), 0.39508 (experience), 0.56035 (qualification) and 0.14800 (age) show no statistical difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.18 presents gender differences.

Table 7.18 Gender and needs analysis

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	14.69%	30.76%	54.55%
Female	25.81%	28.74%	45.45%

Chi-square   6.200187   df=2   p=.04504

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.04504 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (25.81%) than male teachers (14.69%) indicated that a needs analysis was not conducted before PDPs. More males (54.55) than females (45.45%) suggested that needs analyses were conducted before PDPs. The possible reason might be that the majority of PL1 teachers in this study were females who have experienced no PD needs analysis from SMTs, which were dominated by male teachers.

Research findings show that 62.5% of the teachers indicated that class visits were conducted to develop teachers, while 16.75% teachers indicated that class visits were not conducted. There were 20.75% teachers uncertain. The mean score of 3.52 is greater than 3.49, indicating that class visits were conducted to identify teachers' development areas. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.82445 (age), 0.33708 (qualification), 0.77486 (experience), 0.73739 (post level) and 0.41091 (type of employment) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.19 presents gender differences.

Table 7.19 Gender and class visits

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	11.78%	22.72%	65.50%
Female	21.72%	18.78%	59.50%

Chi-square   6.101693   df=2   p=.04732

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.04732 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (21.72%) than male teachers (11.78%) indicated that class visits were not conducted to identify areas of development. More males (65.50%) than females (59.50%) suggested that class visits were conducted to identify teachers' PD needs. The possible reason might be that most PL1 teachers were females who were in need of development for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS.

Qualitative research findings show that learners' results were used to find teachers' development needs. Teachers mentioned that the needs analysis was done by HODs. HODs analyzed what types of questions were mostly difficult for learners. Thereafter, HODs had to develop teachers in those areas. Empangeni School C Teacher Two stated:

> *Yes, needs analysis is conducted. Learners' results are the only strategy used as a PD needs analysis. HODs are responsible to analyse learners' results.*

The latter comments are supported by Ilembe School B Teacher One:

> *Our teachers are followed by the department officials since we are the underperforming school. Therefore, SMTs and our ward manager are closely monitoring us to improve results.*

However, Teacher Two of the same school disagreed that there was a PD needs analysis in their school. She further stated that their school was underperforming (47% in 2011) because PD needs analysis was never conducted. She pointed out that PDPs were not provided in

their school since the HOD was overloaded. However, during my observation I found that the same HOD that she was protecting was the highest when it came to teacher absenteeism in the school. The question is how could teachers be developed if the HOD was always absent from the school since principals rely on HODs to identify teachers' shortcomings in their subjects?

Further research findings indicate that although mentoring was provided by HODs and senior teachers in a few schools, the main method for conducting PDPs in schools was staff meetings by principals. The findings further reveal that even school meetings were few and therefore meetings for teachers' development were impossible in some schools. Teachers complained about these types of methods for development since they did not meet their own individual needs. They only served the purpose of dissemination of information which did not specifically develop them in their subjects. These findings are similar to Quan-Balfour's (2007) argument that teachers' PDPs in South Africa are too general. The following comments by Umzinyathi School B Teacher Two stated:

> *Only meetings are conducted for teacher development purposes in our school. There is no individual teacher development considered in my schools. Only group development is available, which does not meet our development needs.*

Teachers stated their dissatisfaction about class visits that were sometimes conducted by SMTs. Teachers mentioned that class visits were undemocratic and biased because some of the staff members were not visited. This is supported by Umzinyathi Schools A Teacher Two:

> *Class visits are sometimes conducted with those individuals that are not in the principals' heart. These visits are not democratic because only targeted people are visited. Only people who are not on good terms with the principal are visited to find mistakes with them. There is no feedback provided after class visits.*

Although very few class visits were conducted to identify development needs, findings show that they were undemocratic. The aim was not to identify areas of development but was to judge teachers since teachers were not informed before visits were conducted. Teachers indicated that class visits were just surprises to them, which did not make them welcome these visits. This means that the few class visits conducted with individual teachers were not for development purposes but the aim was to threaten teachers who were not on good terms with principals or the SMTs.

7.2.5 How is work-integrated professional development conducted?

It is therefore vital to know how the teachers' WIPD is conducted for effective grades 10-12 NCS implementation. Table 7.20 presents data analysis on how WIPD is conducted.

Table 7.20 How is WIPD conducted?

Item	Percentage						Mean	Std.Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5	Total	5	
5.1 Principals are grades 10-12 NCS experts	16	28.75	22.75	26.5	6	100	2.78	1.18
5.2 HODs conduct content-based workshops to develop teachers	9	20.25	24.5	40.75	5.5	100	3.14	1.08
5.3 Subject advisers engage teachers in district workshops	3	7.25	11.75	60.25	17.75	100	3.83	0.91
5.4 District PDPs meet teachers' needs	6.5	13.75	29.75	44.5	5.5	100	3.29	0.99
5.5 Ongoing class visits are conducted by the SMTs	5	13.75	15	56.5	9.75	100	3.52	1.01
5.6 Subject advisers monitor teachers' progress in their schools	3.75	8.5	14.25	56.5	17	100	3.75	0.96

Responses show that in item 5.3, item 5.5 and item 5.6 teachers were positive. On the other hand, the mean scores in item 5.1, item 5.2 and item 5.4 suggest that teachers were uncertain about how WIPD was conducted.

7.2.5.1 Principals' curriculum instructional leadership

Results show that teachers' WIPDPs were inadequately provided in schools since there were 44.75% teachers who viewed that principals were not the grades 10-12 NCS experts while 32.5% of the teachers thought that principals were the grades 10-12 NCS experts. There were 22.75% teachers who were uncertain. The mean score of 2.78 is greater than 2.49 but less than 3.50, suggesting that principals were not the grades 10-12 NCS experts. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.41849 (age), 0.95777 (qualification) and 0.16367 (experience) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%). Table 7.21 presents gender differences.

Table 7.21 Gender and principals' curriculum competence

Gender	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Male	36.03%	24.31%	39.66%
Female	53.47%	21.19%	25.34%

Chi-square   12.89417   df=2   p=.00159

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.00159 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More female teachers (53.47%) than male teachers (36.03%) indicated that principals were not the grades 10-12 NCS experts. More males (39.66%) than females (25.34%) suggested that principals were grades 10-12 experts. The possible reason might be that most principals were male teachers and therefore other male teachers did not want to expose their lack of expertise regarding curriculum matters. Table 7.22 presents type of employment differences.

Table 7.22 Type of employment and principals' curriculum competence

Type of employment	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Permanent	50.29%	25.70%	24.01%
Temporary	39.21%	19.80%	40.99%

Chi-square   12.12286 df=2   p=.00233

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.00233 was smaller than 0.05 (5%). More permanent teachers (50.29%) than temporary teachers (39.21%) suggested that principals were lacking the grades 10-12 NCS expertise. More temporary teachers (40.99%) compared to permanent teachers (24.01%) indicated that principals were the grades 10-12 NCS specialists. The difference might be caused by that permanent teachers were more aware of the principals' shortcomings than temporary teachers. Table 7.23 presents post level difference.

Table 7.23 Post level and principals' curriculum competence

Post level	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Teacher/PL1	37.60%	22.80%	39.60%
SMT	51.90%	22.70%	25.40%

Chi-square   6.427513   df=2   p=.04021

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows a significant difference since the p-value of 0.04021 was less than 0.05 (5%). There were more SMTs (51.90%) compared to PL1 teachers (37.60%) who indicated that principals lacked the grades 10-12 NCS expertise. More PL1 teachers (39.60%) compared to SMTs (25.40%) indicated that SMTs have the grades 10-12 NCS expertise. The possible reason might be that since principals were the members of the SMTs they were honest in exposing their inadequate competence regarding the grades 10-12 NCS.

Qualitative research findings show that principals were not instructional leaders. Teachers mentioned that principals have little curriculum expertise. The problem raised by all interviewed principals was that they were not invited during the grades 10-12 NCS workshops. They were only invited during teacher OBE orientation workshops. Principals complained that lacking curriculum knowledge was not good for them and also for their schools. The insufficient knowledge they have about the curriculum was the one they get from teachers. However, the DoE (in Hlongwane, 2008:4) provides one of the core duties of principals is to give guidance, supervise and offer professional advice on the work and performances of all teachers in the schools. Ilembe School A principal complained:

> We know very little about the grades 10-12 NCS. We are not developed in curriculum matters. We only get insufficient curriculum information from heads of department and post level one teachers. We don't know what is happening in the new curriculum. At the same time, we have to supervise and monitor the grades 10-12 NCS implementation process. Our department is not consistent.

Thus, the question one could ask is how can principals supervise the curriculum they know nothing about? The latter might be one of the reasons why RSSs in KZN underperform in matriculation examinations. Teachers pointed out that their principals have to be instructional leaders. This is because the role of the principal as an instructional leader helps the school to maintain a focus on why the school exists, and that is to help all learners learn (Blasé, Blasé & Phillips, 2010; Smylie, 2010). Teachers stated that since their principals possess insufficient competence in terms of the current curriculum changes their schools cannot improve. Lunenburg (2010:1) argues that principals are required to be instruction-oriented. They must focus on learning, provide instructional support; and align curriculum, instruction and assessment (Lunenburg, 2010:1). The principal has an important role to play in providing teachers with training, teaching tools and support they need to help all learners reach high performance levels (Lunenburg, 2010:4). However, the comments by Ilembe School C Teacher One showed the opposite:

> Principals have no curriculum knowledge. They know nothing regarding the grades 10-12 NCS. They are told by teachers how the new curriculum has to be implemented in classrooms.

Teachers mentioned that principals' lack of the grades 10-12 NCS expertise was one of the reasons why the new curriculum was ineffectively implemented in RSSs. This has resulted in principals failing to support teachers in the grades 10-12 NCS implementation. Some

teachers, particularly PL1 teachers, indicated that principals' lack of the grades 10-12 NCS expertise has resulted in them putting all the grades 10-12 NCS implementation responsibilities on HODs.

7.2.5.2 Monitoring of curriculum implementation

Teachers' responses show that 66.25% of the teachers viewed that ongoing class visits were conducted by SMTs while 18.75% teachers indicated that there were no continuous class visits conducted. The mean score of 3.52 in greater than 3.49, suggesting that ongoing class visits were conducted by SMTs. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.10563 (gender), 0.81283 (age), 0.63161 (experience), 0.27823 (qualification), 0.94830 (post level) and 0.67716 (type of employment) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

Qualitative research findings indicate that continuous class visits were not conducted. Teachers pointed out that class visits were supposed to be conducted during IQMS, but there was no time for continuous class visits. Moreover, teachers pointed out that even in those schools that were still conducting IQMS, continuous class visits were not conducted. Continuous class visits were not conducted to identify and address teachers' development needs. The reason raised by teachers why continuous class visits were not conducted was that HODs were overloaded. HODs have no time to conduct teachers' continuous class visits since they also have their own full teaching workload to be covered. Umzinyathi School C HOD supported this:

> *To be fair to you, we have no time to conduct continuous class visits. As HODs, we are overloaded. We have our own teaching workload. On top of that, we are required to supervise teachers and learners' work. It is therefore impossible to do everything accordingly.*

Research findings indicate that continuous class visits were not possible in RSSs since some HODs who were responsible were lacking leadership expertise, content expertise and facilitation skills. Another cause for not conducting continuous class visits emanated from the fact that the PD plan was not available and therefore there was no effective and clear planned strategy to develop teachers by their SMT members or HODs.

Furthermore, teachers' responses show that 73.5% of the teachers indicated that subject advisers monitored teachers' work, while only 12.25% of the teachers viewed that subject advisers did not monitor teachers' work. The mean score of 3.75 is greater than 3.49, suggesting that subject advisers were monitoring teachers' work. The Pearson's chi-square p-values of 0.77606 (gender), 0.783767 (type of employment), 0.78410 (post level), 0.85560 (qualification), 0.96272 (experience) and 0.85478 (age) show no significant difference since they were greater than 0.05 (5%).

During my visits to schools to deliver and collect questionnaires, I have never met even a single subject adviser or ward manager in schools to ensure that teachers' work was monitored. Even in nine observed schools, I did not meet any DoE officials. However, in interviews teachers asserted that the subject advisers monitored teachers' work. However, teachers mentioned that the subject advisers' visits to schools were found to be insufficient and ineffective. Even teacher trade unions did not prevent them from visiting schools. Research findings show that subject advisers' visits to schools have very little impact on teachers' development since they were not really subject experts. As Motshekga (2009:8) asserts, teachers do not perceive subject advisers as effective PD facilitators and they only see their role primarily as technicists who always demand unnecessary tasks and 'box ticking.' Teachers pointed out that subject advisers were still learning like teachers. Research findings also indicate that, in some cases, even if teachers were in need of assistance their subject advisers were not interested in visiting schools because of the bad condition of roads. Ilembe School B Teacher One complained:

> *My school is an underperforming school in terms of matriculation results. My subject, which is English was among the subjects that were failed by learners in the matriculation examinations. But now is the beginning of the third term; my subject adviser has never came to assist me. If these learners fail English, subject advisers are going to make a lot of noise.*

Another issue raised by teachers was the shortage of subject advisers. Teachers indicated that subject advisers have to visit many schools in the district but you can find that there were only one or two subject advisers for each subject for the entire district. That indicated that subject advisers were overloaded. Consequently, their visits to schools became ineffective. These findings link up with Motshekga's (2009:8) view that subject advisers are few in South African school districts. In addition, teachers complained about the long distances travelled by subject advisers to schools. Teachers pointed out that subject advisers' failure to visit

schools was caused by the bad condition of roads and the long distances they have to travel to schools. Umzinyathi School C Teacher Two supported this:

> *I think one of the reasons why subject advisers are reluctant to visit schools is the long distance and bad condition of roads. The distance from Dundee to Matimatolo is too long. These subject advisers have to drive more than two hours per single journey because of the bad condition of roads. On top of that, they have to visit many schools in one visit in the area.*

Research findings indicate that the bad condition of roads and long distances were some of the stumbling-blocks for subject advisers to visit schools. For instance, Ilembe district was situated in Durban. In some instances subject advisers from Ilembe district have to travel 170 km to schools at Ntunjambili ward at Maphumulo circuit. Empangeni district was in Empangeni. Subject advisers from Empangeni district have to travel 150 km to reach the furthest schools under Samungu ward at Eshowe circuit. Umzinyathi district was situated in Dundee. Subject advisers from Dundee have to travel more than 170 km to reach Matimatolo schools at Umvoti circuit. These were very long distances. Subject advisers reached schools tired. They have to visit more than one school in the area in one visit. One could not expect high quality curriculum support in such a situation.

7.3 CORRELATIONS OF ITEMS

7.3.1 Cronbach's alpha correlations

Cronbach's alpha correlation was used to measure internal reliability of each set of items. Table 7.24 provides Cronbach's alpha correlations.

Table 7.24 Cronbach's alpha correlations of sub-sections

Item	D1_AVE	D2_AVE	D3_AVE	D4_AVE	D5_AVE
D1_AVE	1.00				
D2_AVE	0.54	1.00			
D3_AVE	0.62	0.51	1.00		
D4_AVE	0.58	0.45	0.64	1.00	
D5_AVE	0.46	0.43	0.46	0.54	1.00

The Cronbach's alpha measures the internal reliability of each set of items. The 0.7 and above alpha is seen as accepted. A score is calculated for each set of items, namely, averages of the responses to items in the set. The scores are called D1_AVE, D2_AVE, D3_AVE,

D4_AVE and D5_AVE. Therefore, there were strong positive relationships among the five constructs.

The Cronbach's alpha of D2_AVE and D1_AVE in Table 7.24 is 0.54, indicating strong positive significant correlation. This shows that there was a strong positive relationship between PDP theories items and IQMS items. The Cronbach's alpha of D3_AVE and D1_AVE is 0.62, showing a strong positive significant correlation. This suggests that there was strong positive relationship between current PD strategies items and PD theories items. The Cronbach's alpha of D3_AVE and D2_AVE is 0.51, indicating a strong, positive significant correlation. This suggests that there was a strong, positive relationship between current PD strategies items and IQMS items. The Cronbach's alpha of D4_AVE and D1_AVE is 0.58, showing a strong, positive, significant correlation. This suggests that there was strong positive relationship between PD plan items and PD theories items. The Cronbach's alpha of D4_AVE and D2_AVE is 0.45, showing a moderate to strong, positive, significant correlation. This suggests that there was a moderate to strong positive correlation between PD plan items and IQMS items. The Cronbach's alpha of D4_AVE and D3_AVE is 0.64, indicating a strong, positive, significant correlation. It therefore suggests that there was strong positive relationship between PD plan items and current PD strategies items.

The Cronbach's alpha of D5_AVE and D1_AVE in Table 7.24 is 0.46, showing a moderate to strong, positive, significant correlation. It therefore suggests that there was moderate to strong positive relationship between how PDPs are conducted items and PDP theories items. The Cronbach's alpha of D5_AVE and D2_AVE is 0.43, showing a moderate to strong, positive, significant correlation. This means that there was moderate to strong positive relationship between how PDPs are conducted items and IQMS items. The Cronbach's alpha of D5_AVE and D3_AVE is 0.46, showing a moderate to strong, positive correlation. It therefore suggests that there was a moderate to strong relationship between how PDPs are conducted items and current PD strategies items. The Cronbach's alpha of D5_AVE and D4_AVE is 54, indicating a strong, positive, significant correlation. This shows that there was a strong positive relationship between how PDPs are conducted items and PD plan items.

7.3.2 Spearman's correlations of items

The Spearman's rank order correlation was used to test the relationship between items of this chapter. Table 7.25 presents the Spearman's' correlations of PD items.

Table 7.25 Spearman's correlations of PD items

	D1_1	D1_2	D1_3	D1_4	D1_5	D1_6	D1_7	D2_1	D2_2	D2_3
D1_1	1.000									
D1_2	0.47	1.000								
D1_3	0.562*	0.662*	1.000							
D1_4	0.329*	0.482*	0.544*	1.000						
D1_5	0.388*	0.509*	0.594*	0.572*	1.000					
D1_6	0.344*	0.395*	0.511*	0.484*	0.561*	1.000				
D1_7	0.426*	0.498*	0.575*	0.549*	0.640*	0.572*	1.000			
D2_1	0.131*	0.080	0.146*	0.166*	0.139*	0.188*	0.170*	1.000		
D2_2	0.397*	0.379*	0.413*	0.333*	0.389*	0.347*	0.430*	0.249*	1.000	
D2_3	-0.107*	-0.021	0.058	0.099*	0.056	0.074	0.019	0.145*	-0.025	1.000
D2_4	-0.177*	-0.033	0.006	0.040	0.025	0.075	-0.018	0.196*	-0.093	0.424*
D2_5	0.343*	0.317*	0.464*	0.383*	0.422*	0.360*	0.446*	0.223*	0.579*	0.099*
D2_6	0.396*	0.403*	0.465*	0.354*	0.405*	0.376*	0.466*	0.199*	0.650*	0.063
D2_7	0.499*	0.427*	0.517*	0.322*	0.437*	0.367*	0.476*	0.175*	0.568*	0.035
D3_1	0.302*	0.324*	0.369*	0.327*	0.287*	0.297*	0.327*	0.141*	0.334*	0.082
D3_2	0.344*	0.343*	0.380*	0.350*	0.367*	0.281*	0.337*	0.127*	0.291*	0.074
D3_3	0.298*	0.277*	0.341*	0.330*	0.268*	0.380*	0.378*	0.106*	0.301*	0.094
D3_4	0.168*	0.266*	0.224*	0.175*	0.188*	0.193*	0.174*	0.065	0.228*	0.086
D3_5	0.183*	0.231*	0.311*	0.232*	0.300*	0.274*	0.306*	0.094	0.224*	0.045

D3_6	0.266*	0.376*	0.373*	0.331*	0.357*	0.323*	0.336*	0.156*	0.228*	-0.003
D3_7	0.248*	0.2.98*	0.360*	0.265*	0.344*	0.418*	0.407*	0.159*	0.331*	0.001
D3_8	O.299*	0.298*	0.306*	0.237*	0.350*	0.333*	0.249*	0.143*	0.322*	0.025
D4-1	0.287*	0.296*	0.305*	0.304*	0.331*	0.259*	0.318*	0.214*	0.376*	0.013
D4_2	0.277*	0.345*	0.338*	0.339*	0.360*	0.362*	0.416*	0.197*	0.399*	-0.042
D4_3	0.351*	0.342*	0.459*	0.405*	0.504*	0.379*	0.346*	0.123*	0.411*	-0.010
D3_4	0.329*	0.321*	0.416*	0.339*	0.341*	0.301*	0.399*	0.107*	0.356*	-0.047
D4_5	0.343*	0.338*	0.362*	0.262*	0.317*	0.302*	0.356*	0.106*	0.365*	-0.050
D4_6	0.305*	0.305*	0.336*	0.266*	0.305*	0.317*	0.293*	0.145*	0.293*	0.004
D4_7	0.332*	0.368*	0.391*	0.332*	0.360*	0.403*	0.375*	0.146*	0.352*	0.038
D5_1	0.204*	0.210*	0.214*	0.229*	0.189*	0.156*	0.275*	0.204*	0.337*	-0.021
D5_2	0.350*	0.296*	0.311*	0.302*	0.250*	0.240*	0.245*	0.316*	0.450*	-0.007
D5_3	0.233*	0.177*	0.171*	0.007	0.091	0.169*	0.143*	0.082	0.170*	-0.010
D5_4	0.371*	0.289*	0.349*	0.193*	0.252*	0.209*	0.324*	0.158*	0.410*	-0.061
D5_5	0.305*	0.240*	0.308*	0.236*	0.278*	0.272*	0.320*	0.048	0.387*	-0.120*
D5_6	0.262*	0.178*	0.193*	0.098*	0.181*	0.260*	0.181*	0.104*	0.205*	-0.082
	D2_4	**D2_5**	**D2_6**	**D2_7**	**D3_1**	**D3_2**	**D3_3**	**D3_4**	**D3_5**	**D3_6**
D2_4	1.000									
D2_5	0.036	1.000								
D2_6	-0.214*	0.745*	1.000							
D2_7	-0.015	0.680*	0.723*	1.000						
D3_1	0.073	0.386*	0.3348	0.369*	1.000					
D3_2	-0.081	0.348*	0.3358*	0.271*	0.471*	1.000				
D3_3	0.031	0.354*	0.396*	0.393*	0.361*	0.558*	1.000			
D3_4	-0.007	0.177*	0.236*	0.207*	0.246*	0.391*	0.334*	1.000		
D3_5	0.053	0.237*	0.273*	0.348*	0.244*	0.236*	0.292*	0.162*	1.000	
D3_6	-0014	0.331*	0.372*	0.412*	0.251*	0.371*	0.447*	0.334*	0.389*	1.000
D3_7	0.020	0.318*	0.360*	0.417*	0.298*	0.361*	0.432*	0.242*	0.363*	0.550*
D3_8	0.003	0.268*	0.300*	0.344*	0.237*	0.412*	0.378*	0.345*	0.254*	0.495*
D4_1	-0.040	0.354*	0.355*	0.408*	0.333*	0.377*	0.373*	0.169*	0.263*	0.453*
D4_2	-0.027	0.338*	0.379*	0.351*	0.296*	0.358*	0.370*	0.184*	0.339*	0.389*
D4_3	-0.051	0.376*	0.393*	0.407*	0.341*	0.382*	0.379*	0.244*	0.347*	0.416*
D4_4	0.001	0.394*	0.396*	0.467*	0.343*	0.359*	0.353*	0.195*	0.360*	0.470*
D4_5	-0.059	0.344*	0.377*	0.403*	0.347*	0.328*	0.290*	0.274*	0.250*	0.347*
D4_6	-0.002	0.270*	0.300*	0.325*	0.289*	0.284*	0.343*	0.251*	0.249*	0.441*

	D3_7	D3_8	D4_1	D4_2	D4_3	D4_4	D4_5	D4_6	D4_7	D5_1
D4_7	-0.005	0.310*	0.380*	0.360*	0.364*	0.370*	0.361*	0.211*	0.293*	0.355*
D5_1	-0.011	0.245*	0.251*	0.269*	0.178*	0.127*	0.111*	0.091	0.125*	0.130*
D5_2	-0.060	0.328*	0.397*	0.433*	0.258*	0.250*	0.271*	0.119*	0.228*	0.346*
D5_3	-0.060	0.110*	0.155*	0.177*	0.095	0.263*	0.168*	0.249*	0.064	0.171*
D5_4	-0.014	0.358*	0.421*	0.428*	0.277*	0.285*	0.237*	0.179*	0.286*	0.294*
D5_5	-0.066	0.353*	0.334*	0.400*	0.200*	0.228*	0.234*	0.053	0.226*	0.194*
D5_6	-0.047	0.188*	0.204*	0.225*	0.041	0.157*	0.178*	0.179*	0.103*	0.240*
	D3_7	**D3_8**	**D4_1**	**D4_2**	**D4_3**	**D4_4**	**D4_5**	**D4_6**	**D4_7**	**D5_1**
D3-7	1.000									
D3_8	0.391*	1.000								
D4_1	0.361*	0.363*	1.000							
D4_2	0.455*	0.340*	6328	1.000						
D4_3	0.473*	0.335*	0.618*	0.6468	1.00					
D4_4	0.397*	0.304*	0.552*	0.549*	0.627*	1.000				
D4_5	0.323*	0.382*	0.471*	0.506*	0.513*	0.652*	1.000			
D4_6	0.359*	0.405*	0.401*	0.402*	0.384*	0.497*	0.556*	1.000		
D4_7	0.388*	0.410*	0.565*	0.566*	0.564*	0.573*	0.632*	0.575	1.000	
D5_1	0.188*	0.099*	0.222*	0.266*	0.276*	0.255*	0.187*	0.174*	0.247*	1.000
D5_2	0.343*	0.242*	0.398*	0.404*	0.77*	0.410*	0.336*	0.339*	0.344*	0.507*
D5_3	0.226*	0.317*	0.224*	0.196*	0.194*	0.099*	0.222*	0.163*	0.220*	0.1798
D5_4	0.373*	0.255*	0.367*	0.403*	0.439*	0.425*	0.346*	0.290*	0.255*	0.376*
D5_5	0.318*	0.269*	0.275*	0.310*	0.363*	0.377*	0.490*	0.368*	0.414*	0.329*
D5_6	0.253*	0.332*	0.188*	0.237*	0.218	0.194*	0.224*	0.265*	0.255*	0.177*
	D5_2	**D5_3**	**D5_4**	**D5_5**	**D5_6**					
D5_2	1.000									
D5_3	0.229*	1.000								
D5_4	0.525*	0.399*	1.000							
D5_5	0.516*	0.281*	0.472*	1.000						
D5_6	0.334*	0.536*	0.411*	0.474*	1.000					

The marked (*) correlations are significant at p<.05000

Teachers' ratings show a very high correlation between sub-section items. There was a high statistical significant relationship among items. This shows that items in this chapter influenced teachers' levels of PD in KZN rural secondary schools. However, D2_3 (friendship and hatred influence the scoring process in IQMS) did not correlate with D3 items

and D4 items. This indicates that there was no relationship between friendship and hatred influencing the scoring process in IQMS and, current PD strategies and PD plan. Research findings show that D2_4 did not correlate with D3 items, D4 items and D5 items. This suggests that there was no relationship between D2_3 (IQMS focuses more on salary progression than teacher development) and current PD strategies, the PD plan and how PDPs are conducted. There was a positive, strong, statistically significant correlation between the PD plan items and current PD strategies items. This shows that the PD plan influenced the current PD strategies. The null hypothesis was rejected that the PD plan does not influence current PD strategies.

7.4 SUMMARY

Research findings show that cascade model, mentoring, clusters, and subject content-based PDPs were available in RSSs. Cascade model was the dominant PDP during district-based PD and school meetings. The study also indicates that there were differences between some of the biographical variables and PD. However, findings in this chapter reveal that teachers were not sufficiently developed in the grades 10-12 NCS. SMTs were not developing teachers since they were also inadequately developed. They lacked content and facilitation skills. HODs have also insufficiently developed teachers. This is because HODs had their own teaching workload since some RSSs at Empangeni and Ilembe districts were small in terms of PPN. In addition, some HODs in RSSs managed and supervised more than one subject department, making it difficult for them to develop teachers accordingly. Findings also show that principals have inadequate curriculum expertise and therefore they failed to develop teachers in their subjects. The PD plan was not found in RSSs and that might be one of the reasons why teachers were inadequately developed. Moreover, IQMS was found to be ineffective in RSSs. It was not developing teachers. IQMS scores were fabricated. It also created conflict among teachers since it involved money. Principals were using IQMS to fight their battles with their rival teachers; as a result, teachers did not support IQMS as an effective teachers' WIPD.

CHAPTER EIGHT

**CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The development of the conclusions and recommendations in this chapter is based on the theories presented and discussed in the literature review in Chapter Two and Chapter Three. Furthermore, conclusions and recommendations of this study are formulated from the three broad areas: educational challenges, job satisfaction and WIPDPs. Moreover, findings of empirical study in Chapter Five, Chapter Six and Chapter Seven are combined with the theories of the literature review to develop conclusions and recommendations of this study.

8.2 EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES IN RSSs

Rural school learners learn under harsh conditions (Banks & Banks, 2010; Nieto & Bode, 2010). These conditions in the South African context cause them to perform worse than former Model C learners in their subjects. Rural school learners need to be highly considered by the national DoE in order to address their specific educational needs. The latter situation has an impact on teachers' job satisfaction levels. Figure 8.1 shows the proposed elements to be addressed by the DoE to improve RSSTs and learners' performance in their subjects.

Figure 8.1 Elements of educational challenges in RSSs
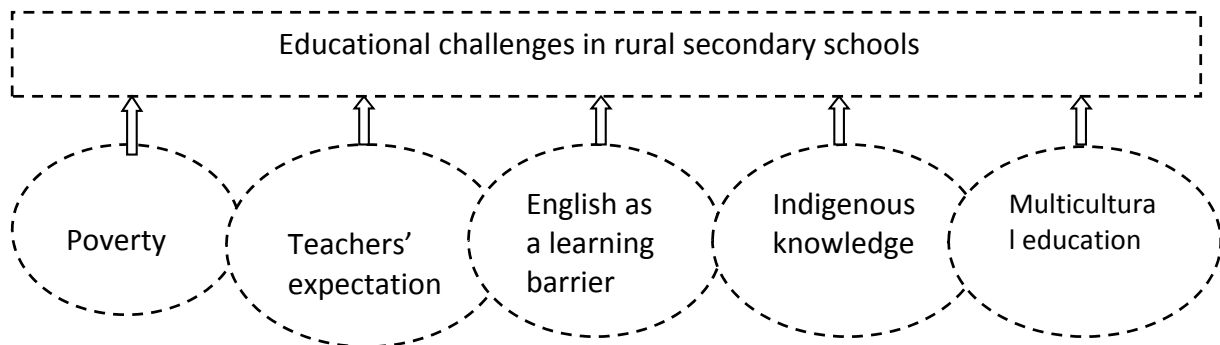
8.2.1 Poverty in RSSs

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that poverty is one of the barriers to rural learners' performance (Mazibuko, 2007; Cronje, 2008; Nieto & Bode, 2010). Empirical findings also show that learners from poor families such as single parent, grandparent and child-headed households came to school hungry and unable to concentrate in the class (79%). Most of these rural households were dependent on social grants for living which were also

insufficient to cater for their needs. Some learners were coming to school with broken shoes and tattered and torn uniforms; as a result, their confidence was low in their classes. On the positive side, empirical research findings show that the school feeding scheme was trying to address the poverty and hunger problems in rural schools. However, there was still more to be done since food in schools was only available to learners from half past ten in the morning. Therefore, learners who came to schools in the morning already hungry, had to remain hungry until half past ten in the morning. Therefore, in the true sense, this food did not help learners to learn effectively since more difficult and challenging school subjects were offered during the first, second and the third periods which were before half past ten in the morning. This study therefore proposes that soup and two slices of bread must be served before classes begin to assist those rural learners who come to school already hungry.

8.2.2 Teachers' expectations of rural learners

There is a general notion that rural learners are not expected to perform at the highest level. It therefore surprises if the RSS learner gets distinctions in grade twelve examinations. The latter is supported by the literature study in Chapter Two that rural learners are not expected to achieve good results (Sleeter & Grant, 2009; Nieto & Bode 2010). However, empirical findings indicate that RSSTs were expecting these learners to perform at a possible highest level despite bad conditions for teaching and learning in RSSs (48%). Teachers did not undermine RSS learners' potential. However, the poor performance for underprivileged learners in South Africa is also caused by the low expectations by the officials that serve them such as the reckless comments by the current National Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, when stating that the passing standard of 30% stays to allow slow learners to exit the system with dignity (Jansen, 2013:15). Jansen (2013:15) criticizes that a 30% pass does not offer dignity to learners, it offers a dead end street to the children of the poor - no job, no further education and no skills. This negative attitude towards poor learners by the current National Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, has to be condemned publicly. Motshekga must be reminded that all learners have the potential to perform at the highest level as long as learning opportunities are provided equally irrespective of learners' geographical settings and social class. The latter is in line with one of the CAPS principles that stipulates that our curriculum has to ensure that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population (DBE, 2011b: 4).

There is a need to change the perception that stigmatizes disadvantaged rural children as slow learners. The fact is that rural learners are not mentally disturbed by nature, but they are suffering the consequences of the apartheid regime when rural areas and their schools were under-developed, under-resourced and totally neglected. The DoE officials should be aware that if rural learners are treated fairly by providing them with sufficient infrastructure and resources as former urban and Model C school learners, they will also do better in their subjects. In order for RSS learners to show good performance the issue of resources such as material resources, financial resources and human resources in rural areas needs urgent attention. Learners' support materials need to be provided in rural schools. Textbooks ordered must reach schools before schools open for the first term. Those people and companies who fail to deliver resources to school in time must be held responsible and charged. Their agreement with the government must be terminated immediately. Norms and standards funds should be used effectively by principals to effectively support teaching and learning in RSSs.

8.2.3 English as a learning barrier

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that English contributes to learners' poor performance (Sleeter & Grant, 2009; Nieto & Bode, 2010; Singh, 2010). Similarly, empirical findings of this study indicate that English was one of the contributory factors for RSS learners' poor performance in KZN participating schools (74.75%). Learners were unable to understand their teachers and also failed to understand test and examination questions. The null hypothesis was also rejected that poverty does influence RSS learners' poor command of English. Poor command of English for RSS learners has a negative impact on their academic performance. Although a good command of English does not guarantee genius, in the South African context English is an important tool to make learning easier. In other words, I mean to say that people who are English speakers are not always clever or mentally intelligent, but their English competence makes their learning easier than non-English speakers. In order to provide more English opportunities to RSS learners, this study proposes that English debates should be conducted in schools. Story-telling and writing competitions should be conducted to promote English usage. Parents must be encouraged to buy radios for their children where they could switch on English station programmes. For those parents who are unable to buy radios for their children, donations should be asked from local business people and non-governmental organizations. Schools should also provide learners with English newspapers and magazines. Teachers who stay in towns should be asked to bring their old newspapers

and magazines to schools in order to give learners more English learning opportunities. Teachers must avoid code switching when it is not isiZulu period to give learners more English practice opportunities.

8.2.4 Indigenous knowledge

Rural communities are still preserving and protecting their traditions and customs; as a result they are dependent on their livestock and agricultural activities (Bealer et al. in Seroto, 2004: 22). Therefore, rural lifestyle is different from urban lifestyle since rural communities are dependent on their customs and traditions while urban communities are westernized. When teaching RSS learners, teachers have to introduce something new to learners' lifestyle since our education is still Eurocentric or Euro-based (Gorski, 2010; Singh, 2010; Ramoupi, 2011; Themane & Mamabolo, 2011). In urban areas learners learn about things that are more related to their way of life. As the literature study in Chapter Two indicates, rural learners are unable to relate what they learn in school to their experiences (Themane & Mamabolo, 2011: 10). Empirical findings also reveal that indigenous knowledge was inadequately considered in the grades 10-12 NCS. Empangeni School B Teacher Two asserted:

> *African knowledge is not promoted; only Western culture is promoted in our curriculum.*

Rural life was not attended to when the new curriculum was developed; as a result RSS learners' academic performance was poor in grade twelve final examinations. In order for the grades 10-12 NCS to address equality, it must not be urban-based or Euro-centred but it must consider the realities and diversity of the South African society as a whole. It is a fact that South Africa is a developing country; as a result, there are many people living in rural areas and their curriculum needs have to be catered for. To make education equal to all learners, no learners should be disadvantaged at the expense of the others. Rurality should be considered when developing the new curriculum in order to provide rural learners equal learning opportunities.

8.2.5 Multicultural education in RSSs

Multicultural education focuses on providing equal education opportunities to all our learners. This shows that the curriculum that is offered to learners must be antibiased and antiracist (Gorski, 2010; Nieto and Bode, 2010). Furthermore, multicultural education encourages that all learners, irrespective of race, colour, religion, geographical settings and

social-class, must be provided with equal education opportunities. Unfortunately, the literature study in Chapter Two shows that the quality of education in rural schools is poor because in high poverty schools, particularly RSSs, teachers may be new, uncertified, unprepared and inexperience (Darling-Hammond, 2004; Hu, 2008; Sleeter & Grant, 2009). Similarly, empirical findings of this study indicate that there were many unqualified and under-qualified teachers in RSSs (26%). The latter shows that rural learners' education has a lower quality compared to urban and former Model C school learners' education. This study proposes that the DoE should come up with effective strategies to attract highly qualified teachers in rural schools. These strategies should include among other things, offering rural school teachers a car subsidy in order to motivate them to stay in rural areas. Consequently, the quality of RSS education would be improved at a certain extent.

8.2.6 Biographical variables and educational challenges in RSSs

The Pearson's chi-square analysis shows that more males compared to females were able to conduct extra classes. The possible reason might be that males in KZN particularly Black teachers have fewer family responsibilities than female teachers, making males to be more available for extra classes than females. Another reason might be that, according to the Zulu culture, females in KZN rural areas are not allowed to arrive late from work by their spouses or parents or for those who are still living with their parents. The study proposes that spouses and parents for young teachers must be informed of the importance of extra classes in order to support their partners and children to provide more learning opportunities for RSS learners.

Further findings indicate that there were more temporary teachers than permanent teachers who felt that RSS learners were lazy to learn and lacked critical thinking. A possible reason might be that permanent teachers who were more experienced teachers knew that when rural learners were provided sufficient opportunities to learn they excelled in matriculation examinations in previous years. This study proposes that temporary teachers must be provided with sufficient expertise relevant to rural areas so that they will effectively understand their learners' learning needs. SMTs and senior teachers should take the initiative to train temporary teachers about the actual learning needs of RSS learners.

In addition, more male teachers compared to female teachers indicated that English was a learning barrier for RSS learners. A possible reason might be that male teachers in rural

schools used to speak English with learners and among themselves while females were uncomfortable to communicate in English with learners and among themselves. This has resulted in female teachers noticing the negative impact of English less than male teachers. This study proposes that female teachers must be trained in their subject departments to use English when communicating with other teachers and during teaching and learning in their classrooms in order to be able to identify RSS learners' shortcomings in English.

8.3 JOB SATISFACTION NEEDS OF THE RSSTs

The conceptual framework from Chapter Two is used to develop conclusions and recommendations of this study regarding RSSTs' job satisfaction. Not all the components of Figure 8.2 will be presented in the conclusions and recommendations since some of the components are interconnected to each other. It is therefore proposed that the national DoE officials, KZNDoE officials, district officials, circuit office officials and SMTs have to consider the components of Figure 8.2 in order to improve RSSTs' job satisfaction levels.

Figure 8.2 Components of the proposed framework of RSSTs' job satisfaction

Needs from their job	Needs from school	Needs from the community
Constant curriculum changes	Pay/ salary	Education media centres
Possibility for growth	Resources	Illiterate parents
Empowerment	Safety and security	Impact of poverty
Learner-centred curriculum	Work-groups	Accommodation
Independence	Relationships with colleagues	Roads
Autonomy	School policies	Level of armed robbery
Status of teaching profession	Electricity	Level of crime
Work experience	Water	Level of substance/drug abuse
Recognition	Learner discipline	Parental involvement
Influence on others	Overcrowded classes	Distance to school
Esteem needs	Work overload	Tertiary institutions
Job advancement	Paperwork	Healthcare centres
Job itself	Information communication	Shopping centres
Achievement	technology	Transportation
Need for power	School libraries	Leisure activities
	School laboratories	Financial institutions

8.3.1 RSSTs' needs from their job

Figure 8.2 presents the needs that teachers are expecting their teaching job to provide to them. When these needs are insufficiently provided teachers will develop dissatisfaction towards their job (Herzberg, 2003; Maslow in Kroth, 2007). On the other hand, when these needs are sufficiently provided, teachers' job satisfaction levels will be improved (Herzberg,

2003; Champoux, 2006; ERG Theory, 2007; Maslow in Kroth 2007; Alderfer in Hansia, 2009). Therefore, there is a need to address all these components to improve RSSTs' levels of job satisfaction for the benefit of our learners.

8.3.1.1 Possibility to grow

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory presented and discussed in Chapter Two, all the workers need to grow in their job. This indicates that opportunities for growth should be sufficiently provided equally to teachers for their growth (Gorudzo-Kusereka, 2003; Envision Software, 2007). Empirical findings indicate that although growth opportunities were provided but they were reserved for individual teachers by the SMTs and or by the principals. This has caused teachers' job dissatisfaction. The comments by Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two supported this:

> *Yes I am insufficiently empowered to do my job. Sometimes if I come with suggestions or ideas they are ignored by the SMT members without reasons. I think being in post level one you have no opportunity to grow since what you suggest is ignored.*

When these opportunities were selective, teachers felt ill-treated in their schools and that has led to their job dissatisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected that WIPD does not determine teachers' levels of job satisfaction. This study therefore proposes that principals should be developed on how to lead using democratic principles. When principals are well developed on how to lead effectively they will be aware that any growth opportunity that is available in their schools should be provided to all teachers equally. Not even a single teacher should be disadvantaged when growth opportunities are available in their schools. Delegation of duty should be provided equally to all teachers irrespective of friendship, gender and relationship in order to enhance their professional growth and job satisfaction.

8.3.1.2 Empowerment

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that every teacher wants to make an input in whatever decision is taken in their job (Ngubane, 2005; Singh, 2010). Teachers are interested to influence others and to be involved when important school's decisions are taken (Ngubane, 2005:68). However, empirical findings show that teachers were not fully involved in decision-making processes. SMTs were making decisions without teachers' engagement. Umzinyathi School A Teacher Two stated the findings:

> *School decisions are made without us as post level one teachers. The school management team decides alone. For us is to implement decisions taken without our*

275

involvement. We are not considered all. Even if you raise an important idea, your idea is ignored because you are a post level one teacher.

Ideas from teachers were not attended to by the SMTs. This study proposes that in order to build better schools where all teachers can feel themselves accepted and appreciated, principals and the other SMT members must involve teachers in decision-making processes. Teachers should be empowered to be leaders in school committees. Teachers should be given opportunities to chair meetings. Delegation of management tasks should be provided to teachers for their professional growth. There should be no decision taken without teachers' involvement. By involving them in the process is to improve opportunities for collegiality.

8.3.1.3 Learner-centred curriculum

Teachers are currently involved in the learner-centred curriculum (Mbokodi, 2008:18). This means that teachers need to be developed in the learner-centred curriculum such as the grades 10-12 NCS (DoE, 2006; Mbokodi, 2008). When teachers are developed in such curriculum, there is a possibility for greater job satisfaction. The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that teachers are struggling to teach learner-centred curriculum (Madden in Mbingo, 2006:17-18). Empirical findings also indicate that teachers lacked expertise to teach learner-centred curriculum. One of the reasons is that they were inadequately developed by their schools and districts. This study proposes that before the new curriculum is introduced, there should be one teacher in each subject per school appointed to undergo an intensive training ranging from one year to two years. These teachers will therefore be called curriculum coordinators or curriculum specialists in their schools. They will be the only school-based specialists to conduct teachers' WIPD in curriculum matters in their schools since they will be possessing adequate and relevant curriculum knowledge and skills.

8.3.1.4 Status of teaching profession

The literature review in Chapter Two suggests that the status of teaching is low among the South African society (DoE, 2010). Teachers are no more respected as they were used to be in the past. Empirical findings show that Ilembe and Empangeni RSSTs were not respected. The status of teachers in the latter districts was low. The reasons were that RSSTs were also poor. They had no cars. They walked on foot to schools. Some RSSTs were smoking and drinking with learners and community members. However, at Umzinyathi, teachers were still respected since they were perceived as the torch bearers by the rural communities. This study

proposes that teachers' status needs to be preserved. The DoE must pay teachers accordingly to reinstate teachers' dignity. The SMTs must conduct awareness programmes dealing with teachers' code of conduct quarterly in order to train teachers on how to maintain their dignity. It is also the responsibility of the DoE to train rural communities to respect and protect their teachers since they are the torch bearers in their communities. Teachers bring light and development and therefore they need positive appreciation from the rural communities.

8.3.1.5 Biographical variables and WIPD

The study by Sargent and Hannum (2005) reveals that there was no significant relationship between gender equity and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the literature study in Chapter Two indicates that research has revealed contradictory evidence on relationship between job satisfaction and gender equity (Abd-El-Fattah, 2010). However, empirical findings indicate that there was statistical significant relationship between gender and teachers' WIPDPs. Female teachers were more dissatisfied than male teachers about their WIPDPs in rural areas. The findings are in line with Dehaloo (2010) findings that female teachers are more dissatisfied than male teachers. Possible reasons may be that there were few female teachers in management positions than male teachers. Consequently, teachers in management positions earn more money than PL1 teachers. As a result, a study by Bull (2005) in the Western Cape disadvantaged schools found that females were significant less satisfied with their income compared to male teachers. It is therefore proposed that there should be intensive programmes to prepare female teachers for leadership positions more particularly in rural areas where females are still not recognized to lead. This emanates from the fact that in the African culture particularly Zulu culture men are still uncomfortable to be led by women. The cause is that there is still a stereotype in rural communities that females are not good in leadership positions. Therefore, a school leadership course will make female teachers being accepted by male teachers and the community at large to lead.

8.3.2 Needs expected from the school

Schools should provide working conditions that are conducive to effective teaching and learning. These needs are identified as the hygiene factors in Herzberg's Two-Factor theory in Chapter Two. Therefore, if school conditions are not conducive to teaching and learning teachers will be dissatisfied with their job (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Maniram, 2007;

Herzberg in Saba, 2011). It is therefore important to improve working conditions in RSSs in order to make teachers happy in their job.

8.3.2.1 Resources

Resources are one of the key factors to make teaching and learning successful. Providing schools with sufficient resources will increase teachers' job satisfaction. When resources are insufficiently available teachers will be dissatisfied since their teaching job will be negatively affected. Empirical study reveals that RSSs have insufficient resources and therefore teachers were dissatisfied (74%). These findings confirm James' (2008:6) views that teaching in KZN rural schools is hampered by lack of equipment such as science kit, computers with internet, maps, textbooks, references and televisions with satellite dishes. In addition, the Daily Dispatch (in Gumbi 2009) points out that RSSs lack infrastructure and equipment. The null hypothesis was rejected that the wider school community does not determine the school working conditions. When recourses are insufficient, teachers struggle to teach. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the RSS principals and DoE officials to provide schools with resources they need. When textbooks and support materials are ordered principals and the DoE officials must ensure that school orders are delivered in time to give schools sufficient opportunities to provide good education for their learners. This is because in many cases textbooks and learner support materials ordered by schools are not delivered in time or sometimes they are not delivered at all. The latter must be avoided since it deprives RSS learners the sufficient opportunities to learn.

8.3.2.2 Relationship among teachers

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that the relationship among teachers determines their job satisfaction levels (Morrison, 2004; Singh & Manser, 2011). Good staff relationships are of great importance in a people-oriented enterprise such as an RSS (Maforah, 2004:28). Empirical findings show that there was a good relationship among teachers in the participating schools (69%). This indicates that RSSTs were satisfied regarding their relationship with their colleagues. These findings are in line with Morrison's (2005:6) findings that having more friends at work will make one's work more pleasant. Empirical findings further indicate that teachers even bought gifts for each other in the form of secret pals to extend their relationship. They held school closing parties together. It is therefore proposed that more projects and activities that involve all school teachers should be provided to create a good work relationship. Teachers' school choirs should be developed in

rural schools. To enhance teamwork, teachers' netball and soccer teams should be formed in all RSSs.

The only problem that RSSTs had was that of teachers who were coming from other fields to be teachers. Teachers who were coming from other fields did not know how to behave as a teacher. These teachers had criminal friends. They drank alcohol and smoked with community members and learners. These teachers did not want to accept advice from senior teachers; as a result, the relationship between them became sour. The SMTs have therefore a vital role to play in order to ensure that teachers who caused conflict among teachers are developed and exposed to the teachers' code of conduct rules stipulated in the SACE document.

8.3.2.3 Electricity supply in RSSs

Electricity is one of the key components to make teaching and learning easier and interesting. Schools without electricity are suffering when it comes to photocopying of handouts, question papers for tests and examinations. The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that electricity is still a problem in rural areas (Uhebgu in Mojapelo, 2008:2). However, empirical findings show that most schools in the participating districts were electrified (51%) but the poorest RSSs have no electricity. The latter situation needs urgent attention. Principals of RSSs without electricity have to report the matter to the relevant people such as the ward councillor, circuit ward manager and also to inkosi (chief) to speed up the supply of electricity in their schools in order to make teaching and learning easier and more interesting for both teachers and learners in order to improve RSS learners' performance.

8.3.2.4 Water supply in RSSs

Water is a source of life (Envision Software, 2007). A school without water cannot operate accordingly. Cleanliness in schools also depends on the availability of water in RSSs. The literature review in Chapter Two suggests that water should be sufficiently available in rural schools for effective teaching and learning (Envision Software, 2007; Maslow in Maforah, 2010). However, empirical findings reveal that water supply was a problem (72%). Schools were only relying on tanks to keep water. Unfortunately, tanks alone were unable to keep sufficient water during winter when there was no rainfall. To address this shortcoming, piped water supply needs urgent attention. The principals and the SGB should ask their ward

councillor to speed up the supply of piped water in their schools. Local amakhosi (chiefs) should also be consulted to assist in the matter since they have more powers and influence in rural communities.

8.3.2.5 Workload of the RSSTs

Teachers work under extremely difficult conditions in rural schools since they have to teach more subjects and more different grades. The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that RSSTs are overloaded since classrooms are overcrowded, and there is too much paperwork (Steyn & Van Wyk in Collins-Warfield, 2008; Singh, 2011). Moreover, Burger (2009:2) identifies causes of teacher dissatisfaction as intensification of workload due to policy changes and the requirements of the grades 10-12 NCS, including planning, preparation of reporting, recording and assessment. Empirical findings also indicate that teachers were frustrated teaching subjects they do not know such as mathematics literacy, technology and computer application technology in many grades (83.5%). This was caused by the fact that most of RSSs were small in terms of PPN. The null hypothesis was rejected that there is no relationship between the wider school community and teachers' experiences of job satisfaction. Consequently, there were few teachers teaching more school subjects. This has resulted in some teachers teaching subjects they do not know. When teachers teach subjects in which they have no expertise, one cannot expect good results from such schools. It is therefore the responsibility of the DoE to ensure that teachers are employed according to subject needs rather than enrolment figures since the focus is not to teach a number of learners in the school but to teach different subjects. Subject specialists need only to teach their specialized subjects. In order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in RSSs there should be no teacher standing in front of the learners without sufficient subject and content expertise. It is therefore the duty of the provincial and district officials to hire more teachers who are qualified in subjects they are hired to teach in order to produce expected results. This will ensure that RSS learners are not deprived their rights to quality education.

8.3.2.6 Paperwork

Since the introduction of OBE in South Africa, paperwork has been identified as one of the teachers' problems in our system of education. Angie Motshekga, the current National Minister of Education, promised to reduce paperwork when she took over the office (DoE). The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that paperwork is still a challenge to teachers (Chisholm et al., 2005; Petty, 2007; Masitsa, 2011). Empirical findings also show that

paperwork was a problem to teachers (87%). Teachers were spending most of their time on writing rather than teaching, which frustrated them. To improve teachers' job satisfaction in this area, teachers must be allowed to spend most of their time teaching their learners rather than writing, since paperwork consumes more of the learners' instructional time. Paperwork must be reduced so that teachers have sufficient time to interact with learners, which is the core-duty of the school.

8.3.2.7 Biographical variables and RSST experiences of job satisfaction

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that the length of service has no impact on teachers' job satisfaction (Michaelowa, 2002; Abd-El-Fattah, 2010). Abdullah's et al. (2010) research found that experienced teachers were more satisfied than others. On the other hand, Chen (2010) found that less-experienced teachers were more satisfied than senior teachers. Empirical findings show that the least experienced teachers (0-2 years experience) were the least satisfied about the SGB chairperson's influence during the teacher's promotion process. The possible reason might be that this group of teachers has never experienced the promotion process since they did not qualify for promotion positions. This study proposes that the teachers' promotion processes must be conducted by the district officials since the SGBs and principals are biased. The latter has caused more experienced teachers to be dissatisfied.

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that there is no clear-cut relationship between job satisfaction and age (Maforah, 2010). Moreover, Clayton et al. (2011) found no statistical difference between job satisfaction and various age groups. However, empirical findings show a significant difference among age groups. Young teachers (20-29 years) were the least satisfied group with the NPDE. These findings contradict Chen's (2010) findings that young teachers were more satisfied than senior teachers. This indicated that the levels of young teachers' job satisfaction in NPDE were low compared to senior teachers. The possible reason might be that old teachers have been helped by the NPDE to become qualified teachers while young teachers were struggling to complete it. It is therefore proposed that young teachers must be assisted by their senior teachers, HODs and SMTs to complete their NPDE studies to enhance their job satisfaction levels.

8.3.3 Needs expected from the wider rural community

The wider community of the school can play a vital role to teachers' level of job satisfaction. Some of the needs expected from the wider community of the school are community members' behaviour, level of crime, safety and security, parent involvement, infrastructure and distance from towns (Mbokodi, 2008; Dala, 2009; Gumbi, 2009; Makwabe, 2009; Masitsa, 2011; Mbokodi & Singh, 2011)). If the latter are positive, teachers will be happy teaching in such environment.

8.3.3.1 Availability of education media centres

The outdated notion of libraries needs to be seriously addressed in order to transform them into EMCs (Singh, 2010; Singh, 2011). The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that EMCs are developed in KZN especially to support learning for rural communities (Lubisi, 2005; MiET, 2005; Gendall, 2008). However, empirical findings indicate that EMCs were not available in the wider school communities (86%). Teachers were not aware of their existence. There is therefore a great need for the KZNDoE to develop sufficient EMCs in all rural communities. Cluster school principals must request these centres to be built in their wider school communities so that learners will be able to access them. There is also a need of a seminar or a conference where the idea of EMCs development in cluster schools will be disseminated to principals since there are still principals who are not aware of the existence of these EMCs.

8.3.3.2 Illiterate parents of rural areas

Parents are the key role players in terms of their children's education (CREATE, 2011:1). Parents are an important structure to support learners in their academic activities. However, in Chapter Two it was found that parents are ineffective to assist their children since all school subjects except isiZulu are taught and learned in English (Alexander, 2011:10). These parents are illiterate and therefore they are unable to assist their children because of English language as a barrier to them. Empirical study supports the literature review since the findings show that rural school parents disengaged themselves in their children's education because they were illiterate (88.5%). Therefore, for effective rural school learners' support, adult education should be provided to rural school parents and the wider community members. Moreover, RSS learners should be taught and encouraged not only to rely on their parents' assistance even if it is not available. Learners must be advised and encouraged to ask well educated community members for assistance. Furthermore, RSS learners have to form study groups in community halls, churches, nearby schools and or in house rooms if the space

for learning is conducive. In these groups they will be able to assist one another and share their experiences for effective learning.

8.3.3.3 Accommodation in rural areas

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that the nature of accommodation in rural areas determines the levels of teachers' job satisfaction (Urwick et al., 2005; Akyeampong & Stephens in Mulkeen et al., 2007). Empirical findings also indicate that teachers' accommodation in RSS cottages and rented rooms in rural areas were a disaster. Roofs were leaking. Some walls were falling. The buildings were dilapidated. In some cottages and rented huts there were no electricity and water. Teachers have to fetch water from the rivers. This situation caused teachers to be disrespected in rural communities. As a result, empirical findings show that teachers' property was stolen during their absence at night and in daylight since there was no security to look after their property. The null hypothesis was rejected that there is no relationship between poor school safety and bad unsafe teachers' accommodation. It is therefore the responsibility of the KZNDoE to speed up the process of building teachers' accommodation in rural areas as it was promised at the beginning of 2012. Security guards have to be employed to protect teachers in their rural cottages for twenty-four hours a day to ensure their safety. When decent and secured accommodation is available in rural areas, teachers will be able to stay there in order to reduce transport expenses. In doing that, teacher retention will be assured.

8.3.3.4 Condition of roads in rural areas

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that the condition of roads in rural areas is too bad (Urwick, Mapuru, & Nkhoboti, 2005; Newman, 2006; Akyeampong & Stephens in Mulkeen et al., 2007; Mulkeen & Crowe-Taft, 2010). Empirical findings support the literature study that the condition of roads in rural areas was very bad. These roads were bumpy causing damage to teachers' cars. During rainy days, roads were slippery, full of mud and that resulted in teachers being absent from school when it was raining. During dry season such as winter, roads were dusty, causing dirt to cars and teachers' clothes. It is therefore the responsibility of the rural local municipalities to improve the condition of roads. All roads to schools should be tarred to make education opportunities equal to every South African learner. If tarring of roads in rural areas will be too expensive, the only alternative is to fully service rural roads to schools monthly or after heavy rains to ensure that schools are easily accessible to teachers and learners.

8.3.3.5 Distance walked by learners

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that one of the challenges of rural schools is that they are difficult to access because of geographical isolation (Hammer et al., 2005; Vavi, 2011). Empirical findings also show that late coming was high in RSSs because of the long distance walked by learners on foot (93.5%). Learners arrived at school tired; as a result, they were unable to concentrate in the class. Some of the learners were unable to attend the first, second and sometimes even the third period because of the long distance they walked on foot. It was also difficult for some of the RSS learners to attend extra classes because of the long distance they have to walk. The only option to address this situation is to make decent roads accessible to everybody in South Africa. When roads are not available in the area, new roads need to be constructed to ensure that learning opportunities are provided equally to all KZN learners. Learner transport must be provided to all rural school learners in KZN. When good roads are available to all learners transport will be sufficient to transport learners to schools. Therefore, there is a great need for new decent roads to be constructed in rural areas.

8.3.3.6 Shopping centres in rural areas

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that shopping centres determine teachers' levels of job satisfaction (Urwick et al., 2005; Newman, 2006). Empirical findings indicate that teachers were dissatisfied because of insufficient availability of shopping centres in rural areas. Teachers have to spend a lot of money on transport to major towns if they want to buy something. To keep good teachers in rural areas, there should be at least one shopping centre in each rural village such as Keats Drift at Umsinga circuit (Umzinyathi), Samungu at Eshowe circuit (Empangeni) and Maphumulo at Maphumulo circuit (Ilembe). This will help teachers to save more money and consequently, good quality and well qualified teachers' retention will be improved. Teachers' stress will be relieved to a certain extent since they will have a place nearby to visit during their spare time. This is because many shopping centres comprised medical healthcare centres, doctors' surgeries and pharmacies, decent restaurants, clothing shops and banks. Therefore, some of the teachers' needs would be addressed to reduce teachers' job dissatisfaction levels which might lead to teacher turnover.

8.3.3.7 Level of crime in rural areas

The literature review in Chapter Two indicates that poverty in rural areas is associated with increased school crime (Mercy & Rosberg in Nickerson & Martens, 2008; Masitsa, 2011). Empirical findings concur with the literature review that the level of crime in rural areas was high. The following comments were made by Empangeni School A HOD:

> *School safety is not there. Siphila ngenkosi (We are still alive because of God). This school is totally isolated. The school has no neighbours. Even if we are attacked nobody will help us. Learners are also rude. They have criminal friends who steal school property during school holidays, weekends and after school hours.*

Teachers were not happy about learners' discipline since they smoked dagga inside the school premises. Learners came to school with dangerous weapons. Community members vandalized and stole school property. Faction fights in rural areas caused schools to close for several weeks and that disturbed effective teaching and learning in RSSs. Learners were hunted by gunmen during school hours causing some of the learners to drop out. This is an indication that safety and security are lacking in rural areas. To keep safety and security in rural areas, police stations or satellite stations need to be built or placed in every rural community village. Police officers must be available to schools all the time. They have to patrol schools during the day and at night. On the other hand, the DoE must ensure that there are two rural school security guards in each school. There should be a day shift security guard and a night shift security guard. Schools should not be left alone without security guards. This is because most of school property is stolen during the night since each RSS in KZN currently has only one day shift security guard.

8.3.3.8 Biographical variables and wider school community

The least qualified teachers (grade 12 and lower) and the new teachers (0-2 years experience) were the least dissatisfied groups with parents' level of education. The most dissatisfied group was the most qualified group of teachers holding degrees. A possible reason might be that the least qualified and new teachers were not fully aware of the parents' level of education and its impact on learners' performance. On the other hand, the most qualified group of teachers had the potential to be fully aware of the parents' level of education since most of them were permanent teachers. This study proposes that new and unqualified teachers must be trained on the importance of parents' involvement in their children's education. They must be aware that parents play an important role in learners' education.

The youngest, temporary, newest and the least qualified teachers were the least dissatisfied teachers while the middle-aged, permanent, most experienced and most qualified teachers were the most dissatisfied with the poor availability of shopping centres in rural areas. Possible reasons might be that the youngest, newest and the least qualified teachers were still learning the environment while the middle-aged, permanent, most qualified and most experienced teachers have vast expertise and information about rural areas and their challenges. This study proposes that to reduce job dissatisfaction levels of more experienced, qualified, permanent and elder teachers, infrastructure development programmes must be provided to rural communities by the national, provincial and the local governments.

The 0-2 years experience was the least dissatisfied group compared to more experienced groups with the distance walked by learners. The 20+ years of experience group was the most dissatisfied with the distance walked by RSS learners to school. A possible reason might be that the more and most experienced groups have more information about rural learners compared to the least experienced teachers. To reduce dissatisfaction levels of more experienced teachers more roads have to be constructed in rural areas. In addition, learner transport must be sufficiently and fairly provided to rural learners.

8.3.4 Grades 10-12 NCS implementation and job satisfaction

8.3.4.1 Teachers and the subjects they teach

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that teachers may resist change and to implement the changeable concepts of the curricula in terms of goals, content, the teaching and learning process, evaluation and resources, since change appears threatening therefore brings resistance (Kasapoglu, 2010; Singh, 2011). Empirical study shows that teachers were unable to teach new subjects such as technology, computer application technology and mathematics literacy. Teachers complained about the lack of support from their subject advisers. They stated that in many cases, they were reluctant to go to classrooms since they did not know what to say to learners. As a result, they stayed in staff rooms during the new subject periods since they had nothing to say to learners. By doing that, they were depriving RSS learners learning opportunities. The problem raised by teachers was that they were not developed in these new subjects since subject advisers were also inadequately developed in them. Subject advisers themselves knew nothing about these new subjects. It is therefore proposed that one subject teacher from each school should be given study leave ranging from

two to three years to study these new subjects. On their return, they would be responsible to develop other teachers in these new subjects since subject advisers are ineffective. In addition, subject advisers also have to be employed in terms of their subject specialization. There should be no subject advisers hired in subjects in which they have no expertise since those teachers who were promoted to subject adviser's level without relevant subject knowledge are of no use to teachers.

8.3.4.2 Stress and pressures in teaching grades 10-12 NCS

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that research has shown the impact of EI in coping with stress at the workplace which consequently improves employees' job satisfaction (Shahzad & Begum, 2011:20). Furthermore, the literature study in Chapter Two indicates that it is the responsibility of the SMTs to provide emotional support since the ability to manage emotions helps RSSTs avoid being overwhelmed by negative effects and coping with stress (Mayor & Salovey in Ghoniem et al., 2011:32). Empirical findings indicate that RSSTs were able to cope with stress of working in rural areas. They managed to adjust to learners' way of life although working conditions were harsh. On the other hand, empirical findings indicate that SMTs have no programmes available to address teachers' stress. The SMTs did not provide counselling sessions to stressed teachers since they were also not developed in that area. Consequently, severely stressed teachers in the grades 10-12 NCS were taking long sick leave leaving learners alone or with substitute teachers, which was not good for learners. It is therefore proposed that stress coping programmes should be available in each school. Each school should have at least one qualified psychologist to deal with teachers' stress and pressures. Furthermore, all SMT members have to be trained in stress coping skills by the DoE officials in order to continuously assist stressed teachers.

8.3.4.3 Fear of failure

The literature study in Chapter Two shows that teachers who specialized in specific subjects such as those associated with the traditional curriculum are feeling despondent about teaching unknown subjects such as computer application technology, mathematics literacy and technology (Singh, 2011:376). Moreover, when RSSTs suffer from the fear of failure, they feel weak, deficient, and they are devoid of self-confidence and they go on working in a concern where they have little job satisfaction and at times they feel angry (Heering, 2011). Empirical study suggests that teachers were suffering from the fear of failure (75.5%). Teachers pointed out that they conducted extra classes because they fear failure. As a result,

some of the teachers were afraid of their learners writing external tests and examination papers since they have fear of failure. Teachers were not confident with the learners they were teaching because of lack of resources, poor command of English and RSS learners' demotivation to learning. The study proposes that career guidance programmes should be provided to RSS learners to arouse their interest to learning. RSS learners also need adequately resourced laboratories, libraries and EMCs to make education opportunities equal to every learner in South Africa.

8.3.4.4 Biographical variables and the grades 10-12 NCS
More female teachers compared to male teachers indicated that there were no counselling assistance sessions in their schools. More male teachers indicated that counseling sessions were conducted in their schools. A possible reason might be that female teachers needed more counselling assistance than males. Therefore, female teachers were more dissatisfied with the unavailability of counselling sessions than male teachers. To address the grades 10-12 NCS counselling needs for female teachers, SMTs should be developed by their districts in teacher counselling. Alternatively, each school should have at least one education psychologist.

More SMTs compared to PLI teachers felt despondent about teaching new subjects in the grades 10-12 NCS. Possible reasons might be that principals and deputy principals were not developed in grades 10-12 NCS. The other reason for their despondence might be that SMTs are accountable when their learners fail grade twelve NCS final examinations. This study proposes that, SMTs have to demand their grades 10-12 NCS workshops from their districts. If their district does not take their curriculum development seriously, they have to take further steps for their curriculum development.

The 0-2 years experience group was the least suffered from the fear of failure in the grades 10-12 NCS. The more experienced groups were suffering more from the fear of failure in the grades 10-12 NCS. A possible reason might be that more experienced groups were more criticized than the least experienced when learners fail the grades 10-12 NCS final examinations. To cater for the needs of more experienced teachers, more development workshops by well and sufficiently developed subject advisers have to be provided with a minimum of four times a year per subject.

8.4 RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' WIPDPs

The integrated WIPD for RSSTs in Figure 8.3 is adapted from the Chapter Three conceptual framework. A few components of the Chapter Three conceptual framework are changed in order to be more relevant to this chapter. It is therefore proposed that RSSs have to follow this proposed framework in Figure 8.3 when developing their teachers for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS.

Figure 8.3 Integrated WIPD strategies for RSSTs
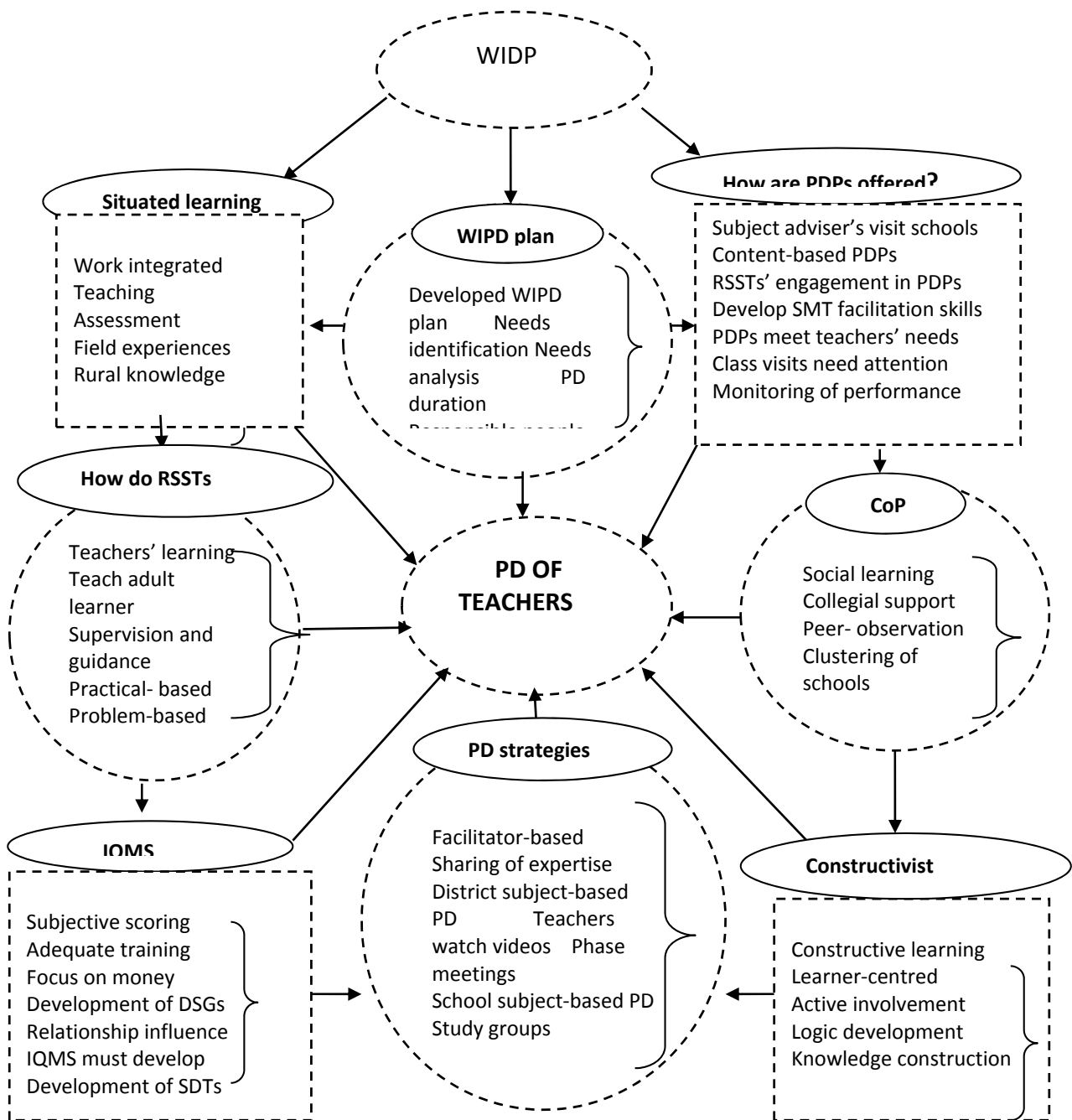
8.4.1 Situated learning PD

The situated learning PD includes acquiring expertise of actual teaching in RSSs, assessment of learners, field experiences and rural-based knowledge. Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009:3) point out that the content of PD is most useful when it focuses on the concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation and reflection. Empirical findings indicate that PDPs for teachers did not consider the rural context. PDPs were generic in nature failing to address teachers' specific development needs. This is one of the reasons why RSSTs were insufficiently developed. In order to develop RSSTs, the rural context under which they work should be the focus of the WIPDPs. This is to develop RSSTs to know that teaching in rural schools is not the same as teaching in urban schools. Another issue is to prepare RSSTs on how to teach learners with a poor command of English and who come from poverty-stricken communities.

8.4.2 PD plan in RSSs

The PD plan comprised the needs analysis, needs identification, duration of PD and responsible people to provide PD. The PD plan is a guide of when and how to develop teachers. Without a planned programme for RSSTs' development there will be no successful development of teachers. The literature review in Chapter Three indicates that the PD plan is not considered by PDP facilitators (Munonde, 2007:109). Empirical findings of this study concur that the PD plan was not available in RSSs. Teachers' PDPs were conducted only when the needs arose. The null hypothesis was rejected that PD plan does not influence PD strategies. If there is no plan to develop teachers one cannot expect effective development of teachers. It is therefore the responsibility of the SMTs to develop the PD plan since teachers have to be developed continuously in order to improve learners' results in the grades 10-12 NCS. All teachers' concerned should be actively involved during the development of the school DP plan. The plan should be included in the year plan of the school and its photocopies should be kept in teachers' personal/programme files. As Munonde (2007:112) points out, in effective schools the choice of teacher PDP is allocated in the overall policy of the schools.

8.4.3 How should PDPs be offered?

This includes subject advisers' visits to schools, content-based PDPs, RSS engagement in PDPs, skills of subject advisers, teachers' PD needs, class visits by the SMTs. The literature

study in Chapter Three indicates that subject advisers and SMTs are lacking facilitation skills and subject content expertise (Schreuder, 2008; Steyn, 2010b; Motshekga, 2009; Mestry et al., 2009). Furthermore, SMTs are not good facilitators (Munonde 2007; Hlongwane, 2008). Empirical study reveals the same findings that SMTs and subject advisers were not good WIPD facilitators. These findings concur with Malada's (2004) study that found that teachers were not satisfied with the PDPs they received from their schools. There is therefore a greater need for PD workshops for SMTs since currently there are no PDPs provided for them in order to manage and supervise the implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS. SMTs must receive curriculum support from ward managers and subject advisers since empirical findings have also indicated that principals have insufficient grades 10-12 NCS expertise. However, the DBE (2011c:43) points out that it is the core duty of the subject advisers to develop the SMT members on curriculum matters annually. When SMTs are sufficiently developed, it will be easier for them to develop teachers for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in their schools.

8.4.4 How do RSSTs learn?

This section deals with teaching adult learners, supervision and guidance, practical-based, problem-based and SRL. The literature review in Chapter Three indicates that teachers are interested in practical-based and problem-based learning (Oja in Trotter, 2006; Steyn, 2010; Dali, 2011). However, empirical findings in this study show that teachers' PDPs in RSSs did not provide sufficient opportunities for practical-based and problem-based learning in RSSs. Workshops and meetings were facilitator-based conducted through the cascade model of teacher development. It is therefore proposed that when PDPs are conducted, RSSTs should be given an opportunity to do practical activities in order to see whether they understand what is taught to them. PDPs must take a longer period of time ranging from five to ten days and be complemented with continuous PDPs when the new curriculum is introduced. This indicates that subject advisers have to visit schools regularly and conduct class visits to identify and address teachers' areas of development for effective implementation of the grades 10-12 NCS in RSSs.

8.4.5 CoP/clusters

CoP or clusters comprised of social learning, collegial support, peer observation, clustering of schools and networking. The literature review in Chapter Three indicates that clusters are

effective models to develop teachers since teachers form their groups to develop each other in curriculum matters (Wenger & Snyder, 2000; Hendricks, 2008; Hlongwane, 2008). Empirical findings also show that clusters were the most effective PD models used to develop RSSTs in the participating schools. In clusters, teachers were sharing information and their frustration. However, geographical isolation of schools was one of the barriers to clusters since it was difficult for teachers to reach venues where clusters' meetings were held. It is therefore proposed that for effective continuity of clusters, roads in rural areas should be tarred or serviced continuously in order to be easier for teachers to meet in clusters. RSS principals and their SMTs should give greater support to their schools to participate in clusters for effective development of RSSTs in order to implement the grades 10-12 NCS successfully.

8.4.6 IQMS in RSSs

The literature review in Chapter Three indicates that there is subjectivity in the IQMS scoring process (Lubisi, 2006; Biputh, 2008; Dhlamini, 2009); the focus is on money and the DSGs are not developed (Class Act, 2007, NEEDU, 2009); SMTs and SDTs are insufficiently developed (Somo, 2007; Hlongwane, 2008). The findings of the empirical study also indicate that SDTs, DSGs and SMTs were inadequately developed in IQMS. Furthermore, empirical findings also indicate that teachers were not developed in IQMS. RSSTs' areas of development were not attended to by their DSGs, SDTs, SMTs and their principals. Additionally, IQMS was causing conflicts among teachers since friendship was influencing the scoring process in the IQMS. In order for the IQMS to be an effective teachers' development programme, SMTs and SDTs should be provided intensive training ranging from five days to ten days followed by continuous development sessions. The money involved in the IQMS should not be received in terms of scoring a certain minimum score, but all teachers who take part in it should receive money. This will reduce the cheating of scores. Teachers will therefore realize that their development is more important rather than rushing pay progression without any development noticed. Scores should not determine pay progression but teachers' involvement and commitment in IQMS should be the determining factors for paying teachers.

8.4.7 PD strategies in RSSs

The literature study in Chapter Two indicates that unqualified and under-qualified teachers were registered NPDE students and qualified teachers were registered ACE students (Mkhize,

2009; DBE & HET, 2011). Empirical findings indicate that phase or subject meetings were sometimes ineffective since HODs were managing and supervising subjects outside of their specialization. These HODs were told by teachers how to teach those subjects. Staff meetings were also ineffective for teacher development because they were only a one man's show where only the principal was talking. As a result, they did not develop RSSTs. Further findings show that the NPDE was registered by unqualified and under-qualified RSSTs and ACE was registered by qualified RSSTs. The latter programmes have helped teachers to develop themselves in order to improve their teaching skills. These findings support Zuma's (2009:67) study in KZN that the NPDE has helped rural unqualified and under-qualified teachers in their teaching. In addition, DoE (in Aluko, 2009) points out that ACE is a professional qualification which enables teachers to develop the content competencies. The findings of empirical study further reveal that VBSRL was not conducted in RSSs since videos were not available and teachers were lacking technological expertise to use videos even if they could be available. Principals must provide teachers with opportunities for participation in school meetings to enhance their PD. In addition, it is therefore important for schools to develop teachers in VBSRL for effective teaching and learning in the grades 10-12 NCS. Principals must ensure that PD videos are available in school in order to develop teachers in innovative teaching methods to make their teaching and learning process more interesting to learners.

8.4.8 Principals' as instructional leaders

Principals are responsible and accountable for their schools' performance. School principals are therefore expected to possess curriculum expertise in order to supervise and monitor its implementation. The literature review in Chapter Three concurs that the principals' effective leadership involves a commitment to identifying the PD needs of the teachers and provides appropriate PDPs to meet these needs (Lee, 2005:46). Additionally, one of the core-duties of the principals is to give guidance, supervise and offer professional advice on the work and performance of teachers (DoE in Hlongwane, 2008:4). The DoE-SACE (2008:10) emphasizes that principals are responsible for the development of staff training programmes. However, empirical research findings show that RSS principals in KZN have inadequate grades 10-12 NCS knowledge (44.75%). These principals were taught by teachers on how to implement the grades 10-12 NCS. The following comments were made by Ilembe School C Teacher One:

Principals have no curriculum knowledge. They know nothing regarding the grades 10-12 NCS. They are told by teachers on how the new curriculum has to be implemented in classrooms.

If principals have insufficient knowledge of the grades 10-12 NCS, they are more unlikely to identify teachers' areas of development. The latter might be one of the possible reasons why the PD plan was not available in RSSs. This study therefore proposes that there should be principals' continuous curriculum management workshops that will equip them with relevant knowledge and skills in order to be able to manage the grades 10-12 NCS implementation with ease. Principals should be the first people to be developed when the new curriculum is introduced since they are accountable for their schools' performance in matriculation results.

8.4.9 Biographical variables and teachers' PD

The Pearson's chi-square analysis indicates that middle-aged teachers were the highest indicated that subjectivity influenced the scoring process in the IQMS. The youngest teachers (20-29 years old) were the most uncertain group. The 0-2 years experience group was the least group indicated that subjectivity influenced the scoring process in IQMS. A possible reason might be that elder groups were more aware that subjectivity influenced the scoring process in the IQMS. This study proposes that older teachers must set a good example to young and new teachers in their schools by avoiding cheating when awarding scores. If it is not stopped immediately, young and new teachers will perceive cheating of scores in the IQMS as an acceptable practice.

There were more female teachers than male teachers who indicated that the PD plan was not available. On the other hand, more male teachers than female teachers indicated that the PD plan was available. This is because male teachers were the majority members of the SMTs, and therefore, they were protecting themselves since not even a single school had the PD plan. It is therefore the responsibility of every school to develop the PD plan. All teachers should be involved during the process to ensure that their development needs are catered for.

More permanent teachers than temporary teachers indicated that videos were not used to develop teachers. Permanent teachers have to take the leading role by demanding videos from their principals since norms and standards funds do cater for these types of resources. Additionally, most experienced teachers were the biggest group who indicated that subject

meetings were held while the youngest group (20-29 years) was the least. The older teachers were protecting themselves since they were also responsible for developing teachers. This study proposes that young teachers have to seek development sessions themselves. They must ask these PDPs from their principals, deputy principals, HODs and senior teachers. This is to ensure that their professional growth is receiving greater consideration.

8.5 PROPOSED FUTURE RESEARCH AREAS

Research findings reveal that there were HODs who managed subjects that were outside their field of specialization. This area needs further research on how HODs of small RSSs manage to do their work effectively. The findings show that male teachers were dominating principals' positions. Research to investigate why female principals are fewer than male principals in RSSs is needed. Further research is also needed to investigate why RSS principals are not professionally developed in the grades 10-12 NCS. Poverty was found to be one of the major contributory factors to RSS learners' poor performance. Further research therefore needs to be conducted on how poverty can be managed in rural communities so that its negative effects on learners can be contained.

8.6 CONCLUSION

Poverty and English were some of the RSS learners' learning barriers. Teachers have expected their learners to perform at a possible highest level. The grades 10-12 NCS failed to cater for RSS learners' needs since indigenous knowledge was ignored. Teachers were dissatisfied with the availability of growth opportunities, resources, water, learning space, dilapidated buildings, safety and security, learner discipline, EMCs, too much paperwork, roads, accommodation and parents' involvement. Learners and teachers were travelling long distances to their schools. The latter is one of the reasons why RSSs in KZN are lagging behind compared to urban and former Model C schools. Teachers were suffering from a fear of failure in the grades 10-12 NCS. SMTs were unable to provide counselling sessions to stressed teachers. As a result, RSSTs were taking long sick leave.

Teachers were insufficiently developed in the grades 10-12 NCS. As a result, RSS learners in KZN were lagging behind regarding matriculation results. Some HODs were managing and supervising subjects which were outside of their specialization because of the small PPN in RSSs. Furthermore, RSS principals have inadequate curriculum expertise while they were responsible and accountable for their schools' performance in grade twelve examination

results. IQMS did not develop teachers since the focus was on the money involved with it. Teachers were only effectively developed in clusters, and in their qualification studies such as NPDE and ACE. Teachers' development needs were not addressed during district workshops since the workshops were only conducted through the cascade model of teacher development. Teachers were not provided opportunities to communicate with their PD facilitators. They were only the recipients of information.

The importance of this study was that it investigated rural schools which were insufficiently researched in South Africa regarding teachers' job satisfaction and WIPD. This study focused on rural schools to inform the national DoE, KZNDoE and all stakeholders about the conditions under which RSSTs are working. The study has also contributed to the exiting knowledge in that it investigated RSSTs' levels of job satisfaction regarding the wider school community. This study found that the wider school community was the highest regarding teachers' job dissatisfaction. The latter findings clearly support the alternative hypothesis that there is a relationship between the wider school community and the teachers' experiences of job satisfaction. The study also investigated the RSSTs' job satisfaction levels regarding the new subjects such as computer application technology, mathematics literacy and technology. The study also investigated PD theories such as problem-based and practical-based PDPs in RSSs.

This study therefore concludes that RSSTs should not always be blamed for the poor performance of their schools as if they are mediocre but the blame must also go the government and DoE officials for failing the KZN rural communities and their children. Teachers were doing everything in their power to teach their learners despite the bad conditions under which they were working. It is therefore the responsibility of the government to develop rural infrastructure such as decent roads, electricity, water, internet connectivity, EMCs and public libraries. In addition, the DoE should ensure that every school has a sufficiently equipped library, additional classrooms, learner computers, science laboratories, decent and secured teacher accommodation and conducive classrooms for effective learning and teaching in RSSs. Moreover, deserving teachers should be promoted to management positions such as principal, deputy principal, HOD and subject adviser. Nepotism and cadre deployment must be condemned since the practice is disrupting our education and that has led to good deserving teachers' dissatisfaction in RSSs.

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311

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: APPROVAL LETTER FROM KZNDoE

kzn education

Department:
Education
KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwer   Tel: 033 341 8610   Ref: 2/4/8/191

Mr BT Hlongwane
50 Geranium Street
Stanger manor
STANGER
4450

Dear Mr Hlongwane

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **Rural Secondary School Teacher's Experiences of Job Satisfaction and Their Expectations of Support to Develop their Professional Competencies as Curriculum Workers**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 May 2012 to 30 August 2013.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg. 3200.

Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education

2012/06/11
Date

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.

APPENDIX B: ETHICS APPROVAL LETTR FROM NMMU

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
for tomorrow

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Tel . +27 (0)41 504 2125

Fax. +27 (0)41 504 9383

3 September 2012

Mr B.T. Hlongwane / Prof P Singh

Education Faculty

NMMU

Dear Mr Hlongwane / Prof Singh

RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND THEIR EXPECTATIONS OF SUPPORT TO DEVELOP THEIR COMPETENCIES AS CURRICULUM WORKERS

Your above-entitled application for ethics approval was approved by the Faculty Research, Technology and Innovation Committee of Education (ERTIC) meeting on 16 August 2012.

We take pleasure in informing you that the application was approved by the Committee.

The ethics clearance reference number is **H12-EDU-ERE-016**.

We wish you well with the project. Please inform your co-investigators of the outcome, and convey our best wishes.

Yours sincerely

Ms J Elliott-Gentry
Secretary: ERTI

APPENDIX C: A LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

<div align="right">

50 Geranium Street

Stanger Manor

Stanger

4450

07 May 2012

Phone: 0848364159

Email: bhlongwane1@vodamail.co.za

</div>

Dear Respondent,

Kindly complete the attached questionnaire on **teachers' job satisfaction and professional development**. One of the objectives of this study is to investigate rural secondary school teachers' levels of job satisfaction regarding grades 10-12 NCS and working conditions. Another objective of this study is to explore teachers' professional development programmes (PDPs) provided in developing teachers as curriculum workers. Job satisfaction means to be happy in your job. An improved teachers' job satisfaction is crucial if meaningful development in schools is to take place. Therefore, teachers' job satisfaction is determined among other things by interpersonal relationships among teachers, learners and parents, opportunities for career progression, the working environment, workload and learning outcomes. Furthermore, PD refers to all activities in which teachers engaged during the course of their career which are designed to improve their teaching knowledge and skills. This is because teachers' quality is the key to the success of education reform. It is therefore believed that satisfied and adequately developed teachers are the key to successful implementation of grades 10-12 NCS.

Kindly note that your participation is totally voluntary and you are not required to disclose your name on the questionnaire. This implies that confidentiality and anonymity are ensured regarding your participation. It should not take you more that fifteen minutes to complete this questionnaire. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Boy Thembinkosi Hlongwane (Mr)

APPENDIX D: RESEARCH STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE MAKE SURE THAT YOU ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS.
SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please place an X in the block that is most applicable to you.

(Do not write your name on this questionnaire)

1. Gender	Male	Female			
2. Age	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
3. Highest qualification	Grade 12 or lower	Teaching Certificate	Diploma	FDE/ACE /HDE	BEd
	Honours	MEd	PhD/DEd		
4. Current post level	Teacher	HOD	Deputy Principal	Principal	Other (specify):
5. Years of teaching experience	0-2	3-4	5-9	10-19	20+
6. Type of employment	Permanent	Temporary	Other (specify)		

SECTION B: MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION
1. Teachers' expectations of rural secondary school learners

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.1. Teachers understand learners' traditional cultures.					
1.2. Teachers hold low expectations for rural learners.					
1.3. Rural learners are able to attend extra classes.					
1.4. Rural Black learners are easily educatable.					
1.5. Poverty contributes to learners' poor performance.					
1.6. Rural learners are lazy to learn.					
1.7. Rural learners fail to think critically.					

2. Bias and racism

Please indicate your agreement with the following statement:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1. English contributes to learners' poor performance.					
2.2. African indigenous knowledge is considered in grades 10-12 NCS.					
2.3. Learners from poor families are considered deficient by teachers.					
2.4. There is insufficient learning space in my school compared to urban schools.					

SECTION C: TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

342

1. Teachers' experiences of job satisfaction in rural secondary schools

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.1 Teachers are happy to teach rural school learners.					
1.2 Teaching in rural areas is stressful.					
1.3 Work overload is a cause of stress.					
1.4 Too much paperwork is a cause for dissatisfaction.					
1.5 Large classes cause teachers' job dissatisfaction.					
1.6 Lack of support services causes job dissatisfaction.					
1.7 Dilapidated buildings negatively affect teachers' job satisfaction.					
1.8 Geographical isolation of schools contributes to teacher turnover.					
1.9 School governing body (SGB) chairperson has greater influence during the teacher promotion process.					
1.10 Trade unions recognize their members for promotions.					
1.11 Teachers choose to work in urban areas rather than rural areas.					
1.12 National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) helps teachers to apply for promotional posts.					
1.13 Teachers travel long distances to their schools.					

2. Work integrated professional development (WIPD) needs

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1 There is possibility for growth in my job.					
2.2 Teachers are empowered to participate in decision-making processes.					
2.3 Current professional development (PD) process satisfies teachers					
2.4 We have plenty of PD opportunities.					
2.5 My job is stimulating.					

3. Working conditions

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
3.1 There are few teaching and learning resources.					
3.2 Our school is not safe.					
3.3 There is a good relationship among colleagues.					
3.4 Electricity supply is a problem.					
3.5 Water supply is a problem.					
3.6 Learner behaviour is a problem.					
3.7 Learner-teacher ratio is high.					
3.8 There are inadequate ICT facilities.					
3.9 There are inadequate library facilities.					
3.10 There are inadequate laboratory facilities					
3.11 Classrooms are not conducive for learning and teaching.					

4. Needs expected from the wider community of the school

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
4.1 There are no education media centres in the school community.					
4.2 Parents' level of education is low.					
4.3 Condition of accommodation is bad.					
4.4 Condition of roads is bad.					
4.5 There is a high level of armed robbery.					
4.6 Learners walk long distances on foot.					
4.7 There are not enough healthcare centres.					
4.8 Shopping centres are not sufficient.					
4.9 Transportation is not sufficient.					
4.10 Leisure activities are inadequate.					

5. Job satisfaction and the new curriculum (grades 10-12 NCS)

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
5.1 Teachers know how to teach their subjects.					
5.2 Teachers were ready to implement grades 10-12 NCS.					
5.3 Teachers are able to cope with stress and pressures caused by grades 10-12 NCS implementation.					
5.4 School management teams offer counselling assistance for stressed teachers.					
5.5 Teachers feel despondent to teach new subjects.					
5.6 Teachers suffer from the fear of failure in grades 10-12 NCS.					
5.7 Teachers are able to use learner-centred teaching methods.					

SECTION D: PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (PD)

1. PD theories

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.1 Current PDPs such as IQMS and workshops help teachers to construct new knowledge.					
1.2 PDPs are learner-centred.					
1.3 PDPs are interesting.					
1.4 PDPs occur in a collegial environment.					
1.5 Practical-based learning is conducted in PDPs.					
1.6 Self-directed learning is promoted.					
1.7 Problem-based learning is provided in PDPs.					

2. Integrated quality management systems (IQMS) as a work integrated professional development (WIPD)

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1 There is subjectivity in the IQMS scoring process.					
2.2 SMTs are adequately developed in IQMS matters.					
2.3 IQMS as a WIPD focuses more on salary progression than teacher development.					
2.4. Friendship and hatred influence the scoring process in the WIPD (IQMS).					
2.5 The development support groups (DSGs) are adequately developed in IQMS activities.					
2.6 The school development teams (SDTs) are adequately developed in IQMS activities.					
2.7 IQMS has adequately developed teachers.					

3. Current PD strategies

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
3.1 PDPs are facilitator-based.					
3.2 There is sharing of expertise among teachers in PDPs.					
3.3 Senior teachers are used to develop novice teachers.					
3.4 Subject workshops are conducted at district level.					
3.5 Teachers use videos to develop themselves.					
3.6 Phase meetings are held to develop teachers.					
3.7 Teachers form study groups to develop each other.					
3.8 Schools use clusters to develop teachers.					

4. Teachers' PD plan

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
4. 1 Schools have teachers' PD plans.					
4.2 Needs assessment is conducted before PD is provided.					
4.3 PDPs meet teachers' needs.					
4.4 Meetings are conducted to identify teachers' PD needs.					
4.5 Class visits are conducted to identify teachers' PD needs.					
4.6 Learners' results are used to identify teachers' areas of development.					
4.7 Teachers are actively engaged in PD needs analysis.					

5. How is work-integrated professional development conducted?

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
5.1 Principals are grades 10-12 NCS experts.					
5.2 HODs conduct content-based workshops to develop teachers.					
5.3 Subject advisers engage teachers in district workshops.					
5.4 District PDPs meet teachers' needs.					
5.5 Ongoing class visits are conducted by the SMTs.					
5.6 Subject advisers monitor teachers' performance in their schools.					

APPENDIX E: RESEARCH INTERVIEW GUIDE

2. RESEARCH INTERVIEW GUIDE

Four main research questions are the focus of the semi-structured individual interviews. The **short hand guide** provided will support each question in order to help me with clues for probing questions.

Question 1

Area covered: Multicultural education

In order for the school to provide equal education opportunities for all learners, it needs to consider multiculturalism. How does your school address equality and bias? **Short hand guide:**

- Teachers' understanding of learners' traditional cultures
- Teachers' expectations of rural school learners
- The impact of poverty on learners' learning
- The problem of English
- Indigenous knowledge

Question 2

Experiences of rural secondary school teachers

There are many challenges that rural secondary school teachers face that can affect their job satisfaction. What are the challenges experienced by rural secondary school teachers?

Short hand guide:

- Dilapidated buildings
- Geographical isolation
- Role played by SGBs and trade unions during the promotion of teachers
- Teaching new subjects
- Fear of failure
- School safety
- Readiness to implement grades 10-12 NCS
- Continuous assessment in grades 10-12 NCS
- Dealing with stress and pressure

Question 3

Area covered: Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is considered to be one of the most important phenomena to make better schools. How satisfied are you regarding your job, PD provided and working conditions? **Short hand guide**:

- Opportunity for growth
- Empowerment
- The status of the teaching job
- Working conditions
- Classroom conditions
- Distance travelled by learners and teachers
- Conditions of roads and accommodation
- Workload
- Paperwork
- Parent involvement
- Availability of resources and facilities (buildings, water, electricity, toilets, teaching aids)
- Availability of healthcare centres, shopping centres, leisure activities and education media centres
- Relationship with colleagues

Question 4

Area covered: Work integrated professional development programmes (WIPDPS)

Professional development is one of the most important contributory factors in terms of pass rate particularly in grades 10-12 NCS. What are the teachers' experiences and expectations of the support provided to develop their competencies as curriculum workers? **Short hand guide**:

- Teacher PD plan
- WIPD needs analysis
- How is PD conducted?
- Continuous class visits
- IQMS and its impact on teachers' development
- Current PD strategies used by teachers themselves, SMTs and subject advisers

APPENDIX F: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

3. OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1. School background

1.1 Name of the school (the real name will not be used for analysis)

1.2 Number of learners

1.3 Number of teachers

1.4 Subject streams offered

1.5 Pass rate 2009, 2010, and 2011

1.6 Type of classrooms:

| Blocks | | Bricks | | Mud | | Other (specify) |

1.7 Isolation of schools from each other

1.8 Availability of public transport

1.9 The level of poverty

1.10 The nature of windows, walls, doors and roofs

1.11 Distance travelled by teachers and learners to schools

1.12 The nature of infrastructure in the community

2. Does the school have the following?

List	Yes	No	Conditions
2.1 Library			
2.2 Laboratory			
2.3 Accommodation			
2.4 Security guard			
2.5 School fence			
2.6 Water			
2.7 Electricity			
2.8 Road to school			
2.8 IQMS evidence of scoring sheets for 2011 evaluation			
2.9 Admin block			
2.9 Internet connectivity			

2.10 Minute book for phase meetings			
2.11 Professional development plan			
2.12 Toilets			
2. 13 Textbooks			
2. 14 Furniture			
2.15 Stationery			
2.16. ICT facilities (computers)			
2.17 Evidence of subject advisers' visits			
2. 18. Staffroom			
2.19 Availability of grades 10-12 subject statements			
2. 20 Evidence of development workshops held by the SMT			
2.21. Evidence of district's PD workshops attendance by teachers.			
22. Subject committees			
23. Evidence of ongoing class visits.			
24. Learner support materials			

3. Staffing matters

3.1 Teachers' programme files

3.2 Classroom size

3.3 Teacher-learner ratios

3.4 Staff turnover during 2009, 2010 and 2011

3.5 Class timetable

3.6 Composite time table

3.7 Punctuality

3.8 Level of absenteeism

3.9 Relationship among teachers

4. Teaching and learning

4.1 Does active learning take place?

4.2 The level of commitment of teachers and learners

4.3 Is the teaching learner-centred?

4.4 Are the classrooms conducive to learning and teaching?

4.5 Is there evidence for CASS records?

4.6 The extent of English usage by teachers.

4.7. The extent of English usage by learners.

4.8 Are the learners' exercise books (for Maths, English and isiZulu) marked?

5. Learners' issues

5.1 Learner cleanliness

5.2 Level of late coming

5.3. Discipline

5.4 Level of absenteeism

APPENDIX G: A LETTER TO PRINCIPALS
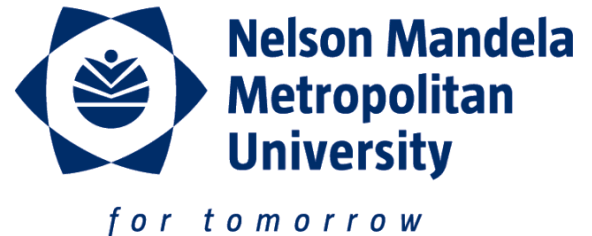
Rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers

Project Information Statement/Letter of Invitation to School Principals

My name is Boy Thembinkosi Hlongwane, and I am a PhD student at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU). I am conducting research on Curriculum Studies under the supervision of Professor Prakash Singh. The KZN Provincial Department of Education has given approval to approach schools for my research. A copy of their approval is contained with this letter. I invite you to consider taking part in this research. This study will meet the requirements of the Research Ethics Committee (Human) of the NMMU.

Aims of the Research

The research aims to:

- To investigate rural school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction;
- To investigate rural secondary school teachers experiences and expectations of professional development to develop their competencies as curriculum workers.

Significance of the Research Project

The research is significant in three ways:

1. It will provide information about rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction;
2. It will provide information about the relationship between rural secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and professional development;

3. It will provide information about the challenges of working conditions in rural secondary schools.

Benefits of the Research to Schools

1. Dissemination of results to schools, KZN Department of Education, and the broader public
2. The result will inform the Department of Education about the levels of rural secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and the nature of teachers' professional development.

Research Plan and Method

Mixed methods research will be used to collect data. Teachers will complete the structured questionnaires. Interviews and observation will also be used to collect data from teachers. Permission will be sought from the teachers prior to their participation in the research. Only those who consent will participate. I will distribute survey questionnaires to schools with the assistance of the circuit managers. I will interview teachers in their schools. Interviews will last for one hour to one hour thirty minutes. Observation will take only one school day. All information collected will be treated in strictest confidence and neither the school nor individual teacher will be identifiable in any reports that are written. Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. The role of the school is voluntary and the school principal may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty. The data that will be collected is not of sensitive nature. If a teacher requires support as a result of their participation in the survey steps can be taken to accommodate this.

School involvement

Once I have received your consent to approach teachers to participate in the study, I will

- arrange for informed consent to be obtained from teachers;
- arrange a time with your school for data collection to take place;
- obtain informed consent from participants.

Further information

Attached for your information are copies of the Participant Information Statement and Consent Form.

Invitation to Participate

If you would like your school to participate in this research, please complete and return the attached form.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.
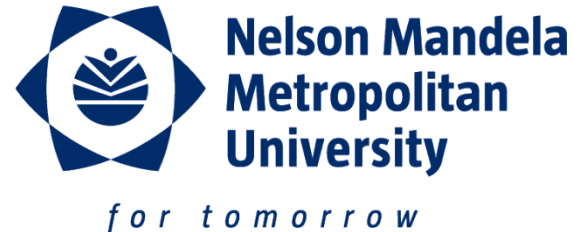
Boy Thembinkosi Hlongwane   Professor Prakash Singh

Researcher   **Supervisor**

NMMU   NMMU

APPENDIX H: SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CONSENT FORM

Rural secondary school teachers' experiences of job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers

School Principal Consent Form

I give consent for you to approach grades 10-12 teachers and management team members to participate in the rural secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and their expectations of support to develop their competencies as curriculum workers.

I have read the Project Information Statement explaining the purpose of the research project and understand that:

- The role of the school is voluntary.
- I may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty.
- Grades 10-12 teachers and school management team members will be invited to participate and permission will be sought from them.
- Only teachers who consent will participate in the project.
- All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence.
- The teachers' names will not be used and individual teachers will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- The school will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

- A report of the findings will be made available to the school.

- I may seek further information on the project from Boy Thembinkosi Hlongwane on 0848364159.

_____   _____

        Principal   Signature

_____

        Date

Please return to: 50 Geranium Street

                              Stanger Manor

                              Stanger

                              4450