

1-1-2003

# Determining support for new teachers in Namibian schools.

Michael K. Tjivikua

*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1)

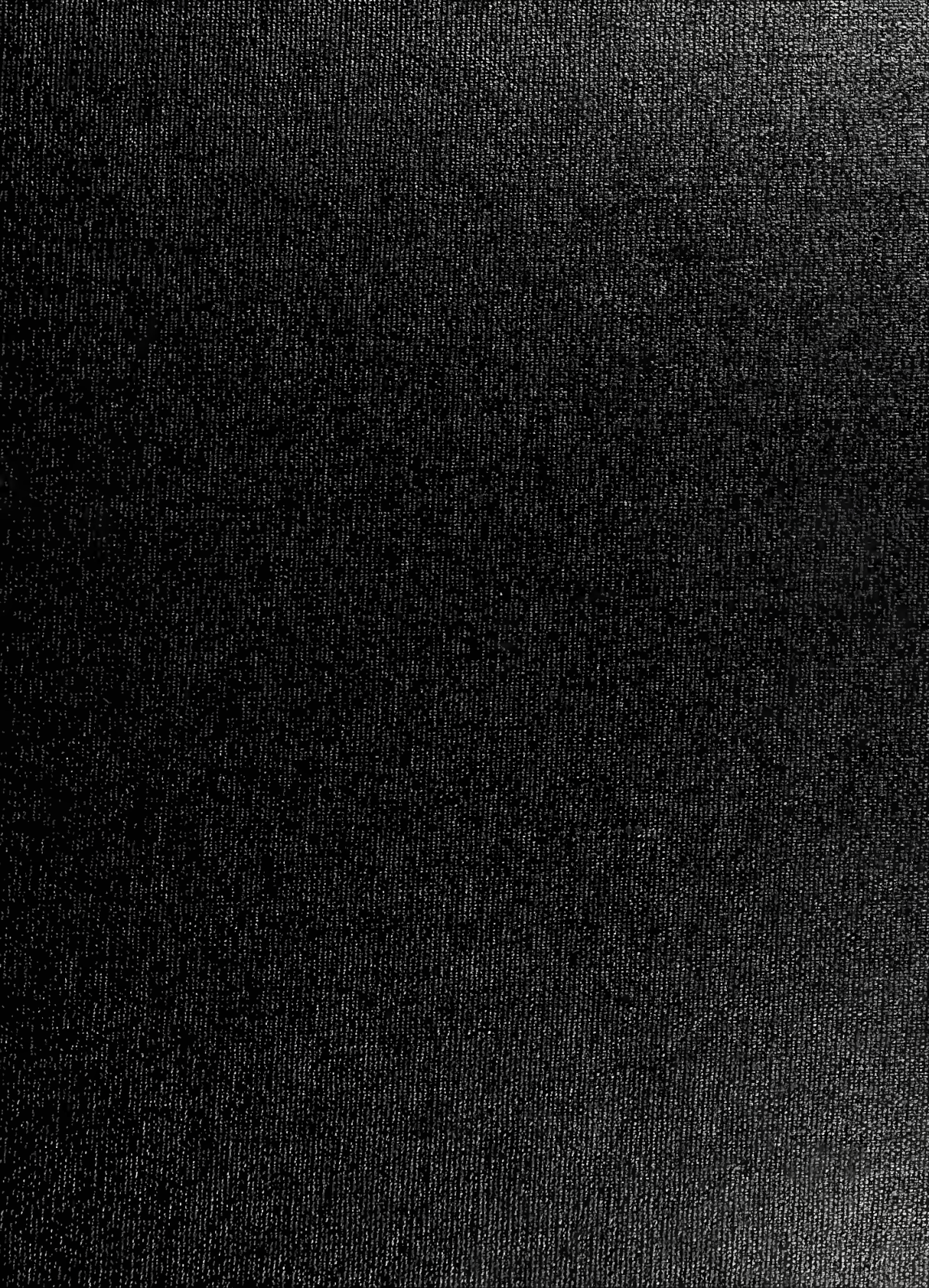
---

## Recommended Citation

Tjivikua, Michael K., "Determining support for new teachers in Namibian schools." (2003). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 2357.

[https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1/2357](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/2357)

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@library.umass.edu](mailto:scholarworks@library.umass.edu).



DETERMINING SUPPORT FOR NEW TEACHERS IN NAMIBIAN SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

by

MICHAEL K. TJIVIKUA

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 2003

School of Education

© Copyright by Michael K. Tjivikua 2003

All Rights Reserved


DETERMINING SUPPORT FOR NEW TEACHERS IN NAMIBIAN SCHOOLS

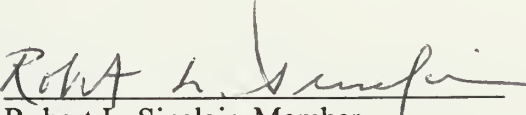
A Dissertation Presented

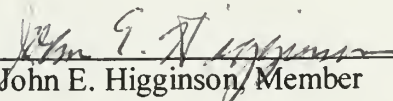
by

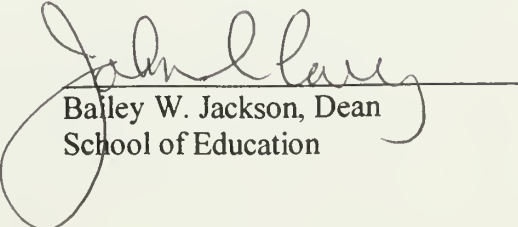
MICHAEL K. TJIVIKUA

Approved as to style and content by:

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
David R. Evans, Chair

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Robert L. Sinclair, Member

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
John E. Higginson, Member

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Bailey W. Jackson, Dean  
School of Education

## DEDICATION

To the long, long line of ancestors, and the living memory of my beloved father F. H. Tjivikua, a dedicated pioneer educator.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to first of all state my thankfulness and appreciation to the living spirits of my ancestors and the Almighty Creator for carrying me through my entire education career. To get this far, I was driven and inspired by their invisible presence and countless blessings.

I would like to thank the chairperson of my committee, Professor David R. Evans who did not hesitate to encourage me through rough times to achieve the highest level of excellence in this field. I am indebted to your support throughout my presence at the center. Your clear and concise comments were always enriching, thought provoking and enriched my academic endeavors. It is invaluable.

Professor Robert L. Sinclair for having played a critical role in the progress of my graduate studies. Your persistence to succeed has motivated me to bring quality to this and other work. Your creative and engaging activities have also added treasured experience to my revitalized approaches to teaching and learning.

Professor John E. Higginson who always reminded me of the rich past in order to reach destiny with a vision.

Professors Robert Miltz, Gretchen Rossman, Ash Hartwell, Sally Habana-Hafner, & George Urch at the Center for International Education.

Mary D. Lugton, whose precision, comments, editing and rich experience has constantly challenged me and made this work the best it can be under difficult circumstances. You have been an inspiring force. Phoebe McKinney whose ideas

always arrived at the right time. Your commitment and unwavering support was a driving force.

Sabuur-Abdul-Kareem constantly persevered through hard time to render unwavering academic and moral support. You have been a source of energy and a true symbol of a dedicated friend.

Colin S. Cavell who helped raised my consciousness to develop new ideas and theories. Your unswerving dedication and encouragement helped me through the course of my studies. Sam Ntuli for the statistical help, and the Africa-America Institute for their sponsorship.

Ann Sinclair and her husband for their unconditional support and insights in trying times. Bill Lindeke and Tara Elysa for their unconditional assistance and constant encouragement.

Anna Donovan, Barbara Gravin-Wilbur and all my many friends at the Center. G. Hungerford for thorough ideas, editing and readiness for lively discussions. Thondup Tsering, Martha Ntiforo, Shuli Xu and the many colleagues at NCEL for their fruitful ideas about school reform. Peg Louraine for the much needed technical assistance.

Dr. Mose and Sandy Tjitendero for showing the way, motivating and seeing me through. Latoya, Mbakondja and Taku for the love, patience and shared commitments. My beloved mother and grandmother, and the entire family for the love, unconditional support, understanding and encouragement.



## ABSTRACT

### DETERMINING SUPPORT FOR NEW TEACHERS IN NAMIBIAN SCHOOLS

MAY 2003

MICHAEL K. TJIVIKUA, B.S., LINCOLN UNIVERSITY – PA

M.Ed, UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Ed.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor David R. Evans

This study examined the effectiveness of a national support program in Namibia designed to help new teachers improve teaching and enhance student learning. The support activities currently undertaken are short-lived and not effective, therefore not providing teachers with the continual support needed to strengthen and augment their repertoires.

The study also examined problems experienced by new teachers in their initial years of teaching. A major problem affecting teachers' competencies in Namibia is the availability of teaching and learning resources. Another impediment perplexing teachers is learner discipline. Teachers need the appropriate skills to be able to adequately deal with these and other problems, so as to create a nurturing environment for teaching and learning.

Based on the recommendations teachers made, a national support program for helping teachers deal effectively with aspects of teaching and learning was advanced. Teachers recommended that the support program incorporate induction and mentoring sessions for new teachers. They also strongly recommended that the program effectively deal with competencies in curriculum and instruction. Teachers reiterated

the need for access to knowledge, provision of sufficient teaching and learning resources, and opportunities for further education.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	v
ABSTRACT .....	vi
LIST OF TABLES .....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xiii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY .....	1
Introduction .....	1
Statement of the Problem .....	1
Purpose of the Study .....	3
Definition of Terms .....	4
Significance of the Study .....	8
Approach to the Study .....	9
Limitations of the Study .....	9
Review of Literature .....	10
Chapter Overview .....	10
2. EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA .....	12
Introduction .....	12
Political Context .....	12
Education in Early Namibia .....	15
Apartheid Education in Namibia .....	16
Namibian Schools Under Apartheid .....	21
Education and Independence .....	25
Language Policy .....	27
Higher Education .....	30
Teacher Education .....	32
The BETD .....	34
Summary .....	37

3.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE .....	38
	Introduction .....	38
	The Demand for New Teachers .....	39
	Attrition .....	43
	Retention .....	45
	Problems New Teachers Experience .....	47
	Support Programs for New Teachers .....	55
	Induction .....	55
	Induction and Mentoring Goals .....	57
	Mentoring .....	58
	Caveats .....	62
	Examples of Induction and Mentoring Initiatives .....	63
	Other Promising Teacher Support Activities .....	67
	Summary .....	70
4.	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	72
	Introduction .....	72
	Research Approach .....	72
	Schools Surveyed .....	72
	Subjects .....	80
	Instruments .....	84
	Data Collection .....	85
	Data Analysis .....	86
	Research Questions .....	87
	Research Question 1 .....	87
	Research Question 2 .....	88
	Research Question 3 .....	89
	Research Question 4 .....	89
	Summary .....	90
5.	RESEARCH FINDINGS .....	91
	Introduction .....	91
	Findings .....	91

	The Existing Support Program .....	91
	Support Received by New Teachers .....	99
	Problems New Teachers Face .....	104
	Improving the National Support Program .....	120
	Summary .....	127
6.	SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	128
	Introduction .....	128
	Purpose .....	128
	Major Findings .....	128
	Major Finding #1: The National Support Program .....	129
	Major Finding #2: Helpfulness of the Program .....	129
	Major Finding #3: Problems Experienced .....	130
	Recommendations for the National Support Program .....	132
	Induction and Mentoring .....	133
	Implementation .....	135
	Implications .....	137
	Curriculum Support .....	138
	Further Education .....	139
	Suggestions for Further Research .....	141
	Summary .....	143
APPENDICES		
A.	SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE .....	145
B.	PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM .....	156
C.	PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH LETTER .....	159
D.	DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS IN NAMIBIA - 1995 .....	161
	BIBLIOGRAPHY .....	163

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. School Enrollment Data Between 1920 and 1966 .....	22
2. Data of Schools Surveyed in 2001 .....	73

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Location of Participants .....	81
2. Qualifications of Participants .....	81
3. Teaching Experience of Participants * Teachers Interviewed .....	82
4. Teacher Induction .....	95
5. Support Teacher .....	96
6. H/IGCSE Curriculum Support .....	97
7. Availability of Resources .....	105
8. Availability of Resources by Experience .....	108
9. Classroom Management/Discipline Issues .....	109
10. Classroom Management/Discipline Issues by Experience .....	110
11. Learner-Centered Curriculum .....	112
12. Learner-Centered Curriculum by Experience .....	113
13. H/IGCSE Curriculum .....	114
14. H/IGCSE Curriculum by Experience .....	115

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

#### Introduction

This chapter consists of eight interrelated parts. They are: statement of the problem, purpose of the study, definition of terms, significance of the study, approach to the research, limitations of the study, review of literature, and a chapter overview.

#### Statement of the Problem

Over the past two decades, education systems around the world experienced considerable growth. This growth is a result of many factors. For example, nations experienced population booms and changes in political systems. These phenomena influenced perceptions about the importance of education, particularly the need for well educated citizens who form human resource cadres that will serve as engines for necessary social and economic development. With this awakening, people all across the cultural, class, and national divides, emphasized and demanded to partake in this intellectual endeavor of education reform for their individual and national benefits.

As a result of the impact of these changes, education systems were forced to expand and accommodate an influx of learners throughout the school cycle. With an increase in demand for schooling, compounded with a lack of educators, new teachers had to be hired to serve more learners. As a remedy to supplying new teachers, 'fast track' programs and emergency teaching credentials were created. These emergency teacher training programs are mediocre in quality as they produce teachers who are



unable to meet the challenges of sometimes complex and harsh school environments. Poor planning and the lack of expertise, resources and commitment toward providing professional support for new teachers exacerbated the conditions to a greater degree, thereby curtailing the effectiveness of these professionals.

Due to the lack of support from the education systems, new teachers who are unable to endure and face up to the challenges in schools as a result of poor training, sometimes opt to leave when other employment opportunities arrive. Without a high degree of retention, sustainability is never achieved and crucial systemic and learning problems are not alleviated nor solved.

Educational reforms have placed extraordinary demands on teachers in Namibia. Corporal punishment was outlawed, school terms were changed, a new curriculum was introduced, classroom practice was mandated to be learner centered, continuous assessment became an added dimension, a new language of instruction came into being, parents were to play a greater role, while the school system experienced an unprecedented influx of learners way beyond its pre-independence capacity. Though these changes were brought about with good intentions, teachers received little or no support to become knowledgeable about the new requirements in order to implement them with a high degree of success.

Teacher support activities currently undertaken in Namibia are not implemented in a coherent and sustainable manner to help new teachers become effective educators. In addition, they are not properly assisted with the academic, professional and personal development support that may help and improve their teaching skills to enhance student learning during their initial years of teaching. The degree to which new teachers are

supported can positively effect on their performance. Hence, this support from a national program intended to help new teachers can have sanguine effects on learning activities in the classroom, and ultimately improve teaching and increase student learning.

### Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study is to determine the effectiveness of a national support program in Namibia to help new secondary school teachers succeed during the initial five years of teaching, and the extent to which the Ministry of Education and Culture's existing professional development activities are designed to meet the specific needs of new teachers. The purpose of the study consists of four parts. First, the existence of a national program intended to support new teachers in secondary schools will be examined. Second, problems new teachers experience during their initial years of teaching will be detailed. Third, new teachers' perceptions regarding the usefulness of this national support program will be reported. **Fourth**, a national support program for helping new teachers improve teaching skills and enhance student learning will be advanced.

Specifically, the four inter-related research questions that will guide this study are:

1. What is the national program currently in place for supporting new teachers in Namibian secondary schools so that they may learn skills to improve teaching and enhance student learning?
2. What kind of support for improving teaching and learning did new teachers receive during their initial years of teaching?
3. What problems do these new teachers experience that they would like to be assisted with to become more competent in their teaching?
4. In what ways can the national support program be improved in order to better meet the needs of beginning teachers?

### Definition of Terms

Following are definitions of the key terms that are central to this research. Other terms that need definition are addressed when they arise in the context of the dissertation.

Apartheid - A *de jure* system of segregation, literally meaning “apart-ness.” This policy was “legalized” when the Afrikaner National Party came to power in 1948. Under this system of segregation, separation and discrimination, the populations of South African and Namibia were categorized in four different racial groups, i.e. Africans (Blacks), Coloreds, Indians and Whites. According to the socio-economic development plan of apartheid, it was mandated that whites receive preferential treatment in terms of resource allocation and other privileges in society. Coloreds and Indians, and Africans were considered second and third class citizens respectively,

hence their treatment and degrees of deprivation. Further divisions based on tribal and ethnic backgrounds were later instituted.

National Support Program – The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, Volume 2 (1993, p. 2371) defines program as “a plan or outline of (especially intended) activities; a planned series of activities or events.” In the context of this study, it is a formerly approved and institutionalized national plan to help teachers in Namibian schools succeed in their teaching endeavors. The enhancement of teaching repertoires, skills, knowledge and other necessary teaching dispositions should be an integral part of a professional development program. It may also include a wide range of activities such as workshops, teacher centers, assistance in upgrading qualifications, support in curriculum (understanding and implementing the stipulated frameworks), and explaining official policies and procedures.

New teachers – Foster (1997) distinguishes between three different types of teachers as regards their experience, a) elders – those with considerably longer years of service and experience and are about to or have retired, b) veterans – those whose years of experience have helped them become proficient educators and can usefully guide the new teachers, c) novices – the new entrants who are beginning to experience life in the teaching career and are sometimes learning by doing. This is also the group of teachers who are most in need of support and may also be apprehensive about their new roles. These are recent graduates of teacher colleges or the university who have been teaching for no more than five years.

Problems New Teachers Experience – New teachers experience a set of unique challenges while acclimatizing to a particular school and taking on their role to help

students learn. Curriculum and instruction problems are most evident. Curriculum problems include deciding what to teach, having proper materials available to promote learning, and suggestions for evaluating the progress of learners. Instructional problems include helping to create learning materials to implement learning activities, maintaining discipline, and supervision of teaching to foster improvement of learning. New teachers are also more likely to be isolated by their more experienced colleagues and thus become distant from the circulation of vital information and important collegial contacts.

Secondary Schools – Namibia’s school cycle is divided as follows:

Grade 1 to 4 – Junior Primary

Grade 5 to 7 – Senior Primary

Grade 8 to 10 – Junior Secondary

Grade 11 to 12 – Senior Secondary.

Combined schools offer a mixture of primary and secondary school grades. The primary school years are “provided free of charge” and the Namibian constitution makes a further provision that “children shall not be allowed to leave school until they have completed their primary education or have attained the age of sixteen (16) years” (p. 12-13). Inspired by the theme of ‘Education for All’ a basic education cycle is designated from Grade 1 to 10 forming the category under which most learners fall.

Bantu - Bantu means “person” in the Nguni languages of Southern Africa. In the writer’s language, *omundu* – singular; *ovandu* – plural. This word was misconstrued and misused by the Afrikaners who used it interchangeably with other pejorative terms in referring to the Africans.

Bantu Education - The inferior system of education designed by the apartheid government for the Africans as promulgated under the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) - The international version of the British GCSE. Currently, Cambridge University (England) administers the curriculum and external examinations in collaboration with the Ministry of Education Culture in Namibia. At the end of Grade 12, learners take the IGCSE external examinations to determine whether they have successfully completed the senior secondary school circle. The Higher International General Certificate of Secondary Education (HIGCSE) is an advanced version of the IGCSE.

Windhoek Education Region – Namibia is a unitary state divided into 13 political regions.<sup>1</sup> The Ministry of Education decided to group these regions into 6 education regions for efficiency and planning purposes (MEC, 1993).<sup>2</sup> The Windhoek education region consists of three political regions of Khomas, Otjozondjupa and Omaheke which are located in central, north-central and eastern Namibia respectively. Historically, the Windhoek area located in Khomas, has been highly advantaged (due to its proximity to the capital) in terms of staffing, financial allocations, and teaching and learning resources. Otjozondjupa and Omaheke are largely rural with few semi-urban towns. The latter regions are also sparsely populated with long distances between schools. Since 1990, the Windhoek education region has consistently hosted 17 percent of the total learner population with 20 percent of the teaching force (MEC, 1999, pp. 11-12). The region also undoubtedly has some of the best high schools that graduate

---

<sup>1</sup> The political regions are, Khomas, Karas, Hardap, Omaheke, Otjozondjupa, Erongo, Kunene, Omusati, Oshana, Otjikoto, Ohangwena, Okavango and Caprivi.

<sup>2</sup> The six education regions are Windhoek, Keetmanshoop, Khorixas, Ondangwa East and West, Rundu and Caprivi.

most of the learners that proceed to higher learning institutions. Because of the excellence of this school system, it was reasonable to assume that novice teachers would likely be receiving the most support from the government program for helping new teachers. This is why the Windhoek education region was selected for participation in the research.

### Significance of the Study

New teachers represent the changing population of professional educators in Namibia who will eventually become catalysts in conveying new academic knowledge to children and youth. In order to succeed, these novice teachers must be well supported by the education system in their initial years of teaching, because they are crucial in helping the increasing student population gain access to quality education and become successful learners.

This study is important because it focuses on the kinds of support that may help in strengthening and making the teaching skills of new teachers more effective, to help them succeed in the public school system and ultimately enhance student learning. The study examines the current teacher support policies and practices in the Namibian school system. It will propose new strategies that may enhance and strengthen the professional skills of teachers in such low resource contexts.

This study is also significant, because few studies focusing on support systems for new teachers have been carried out in Namibia. The present research will contribute to the advancement of efficient practices in the Namibian education sector particularly in teacher education and professional development.

Further, this study is significant because administrators, policy makers and politicians alike ought to be provided with research data on new teachers, the lack of opportunities for their development, the weaknesses of the existing support program, and how new teachers can best be supported by the system.

It is hoped that this study will create a greater understanding among those directly or indirectly involved in education. The study will help in advancing informed analysis of current and future problems in teaching and learning, and effective decisions about educational reform. Finally, the study is significant because it will advance a multi-pronged approach to mitigating teaching and learning problems and achieving better results in Namibian schools through a national support program for new teachers.

#### Approach to the Study

Three interrelated research steps were undertaken in this study. First, the researcher examined documentation describing the existing national support program. Second, the researcher conducted a survey among new secondary school teachers to a) determine the existence and effectiveness of this program, b) investigate the problems new teachers face, and c) elicit recommendations from teachers to make the national support program more effective. Third, the researcher conducted interviews with new teachers to gain additional information, which answers the major research objectives.

#### Limitations of the Study

In order to make the study manageable, it was necessary to make decisions that address some research questions and not others. Also, for the purpose of the study



particular data were collected and other data were intentionally omitted. The three major limitations are explained below. First, this study included only new teachers who had a minimum 6 months and a maximum of 5 years of teaching experience at the time of the study, for the specific reason that they are central to the study. Second, the research is limited to new teachers in secondary schools in the Namibian public school system. Third, the study is limited to the urban and rural schools of the Windhoek education region in Namibia.

### Review of Literature

The review of literature provides a conceptual platform for this investigation into how new teachers in Namibia may best be helped to succeed in their responsibilities for helping young people learn well. Specifically, the review of literature consists of three interrelated parts: a) the demand (including retention and attrition) for new teachers, b) problems new teachers experience, and c) specific programs of support designed to help new teachers enhance their teaching skills and improve student learning. The detailed review of literature for each of these three parts is reserved for Chapter 3.

### Chapter Overview

Chapter 2, Education in Namibia, discusses the history and educational developments in Namibia. It consists of the political context, education in early Namibia, apartheid education in Namibia, Namibian schools under apartheid and education and independence.

Chapter 3, Literature Review, centers on the literature review relevant to the nature of the problem and the purpose of the study. The literature sections include; the demand for new teachers, problems new teachers experience, and programs intended to help new teachers succeed.

Chapter 4, Research Methodology, discusses the methodology used to carry out the study. The sections to be included are the research approach, data collection, schools surveyed, instruments, subjects, data analysis and research questions.

Chapter 5, Research Findings, consists of the findings on the existing support program, support received by new teachers, problems new teachers face, and suggestions for improving the national support program.

Chapter 6, Summary and Recommendations, summarizes the study including the major findings. It further makes recommendations for a support program for new teachers and for further research.

## CHAPTER 2

### EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA

#### Introduction

No inquiry into education in Namibia will be complete unless its history is set in proper context. This chapter explores four parts of Namibian history and educational developments. It provides the political context, education in early Namibia, apartheid and Namibian schools, and education in independent Namibia.

#### Political Context

Namibia was first colonized by Germany in 1884. After a protracted war, 75 percent of the central and southern indigenous populations were exterminated by the German army (Drechler, 1980; Bridgman, 1981; & Katjavivi, 1990, p. 10). During the entire period of German colonization, 1884-1915, the Namibian people witnessed some of the worst brutality of that era through displacements, confiscation of land and property, and genocide perpetrated by the German army of occupation. The escalation of this brutal war almost decimated a people, their livelihood and their culture.<sup>1</sup> Consequently, part of the Herero people, were forced to settle in Botswana. This led to the intensification of the struggle by the Herero and Nama against the German army.

After Germany realized that it could not easily occupy and colonize Namibia without resistance, it issued an order for the annihilation of the Ovaherero people in 1904 under the command of General Von Trotha (Drechler, 1980, p. 132-166). The

---

<sup>1</sup> Comprehensive discussions about the history, anthropology and economic issues of Namibia are detailed in the following works: Lowenstein (1962); First (1963); Hahn, Vedder & Fourie (Eds.), (1966); Vedder (1966); Segal & First (Eds.) (1967); Marshall (1976); Winter (1977); Singham & Hune (1986).

impact of this war caused a deterioration of the living conditions of the people of Namibia to the extent that no traditional learning activities were taking place to benefit the psychological and social development needs of the majority of the people of Namibia. The German obsession with this war and their insatiable lust for land and economic resources had overridden the need for investing in the socio-economic advancement of the Namibian people. Except for German settler schools, no available records obtained by the researcher testify to the establishment of social and educational institutions by the colonial German regime for the advancement of the indigenous peoples of Namibia. Besides, the negative impact of the war halted the people's intellectual advancement and civilization, and their acute and rare burgeoning knowledge as their energies were solely concentrated on survival. In spite of this, the people of Namibia managed to retain their cultural heritage, indigenous knowledge and their awareness about human origin.

Namibia's colonial status was strongly objected at the international level. The League of Nations, which loosely assumed control over certain colonial territories, classified Namibia as a "C" class mandate, and this status was continued by its successor the United Nations. Under this mandate, Namibia was to remain indefinitely under the patronage of the United Nations. On December 17, 1920, the mandate was bestowed upon Britain and erroneously entrusted to South Africa to rule in the interest of the former. During this period, South Africa was a British colony and had invaded and colonized Namibia in 1915 with a military contingent. The mandate clearly stipulated that South Africa's obligation was "to promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being of the social progress of the inhabitants of the territory" (SWAPO,

1987, p. 15). Not surprisingly, however, South Africa failed rather significantly to live up to this obligation throughout her colonial occupation. With the “official” inception of *apartheid* in 1948, Namibia became subjected to these repugnant policies and practices. The ensuing years witnessed a brutal political and military repression, social and economic deprivation, and violation of the fundamental rights of the Namibian people by the unbridled apartheid policies of South Africa.

In 1966, the International Court of Justice ruled that South Africa’s occupation of Namibia was illegal. Consequently, the General Assembly of the United Nations ended that mandate by resolving that

South Africa has no other right to administer the Territory and henceforth South West Africa comes under the direct responsibility of the United Nations (Quoted in The Minority Rights Group Report No. 19, 1985, p. 9)

South Africa refused to leave the territory, but the illegal occupation did not go unchallenged as the Namibian people vehemently continued to fight for their emancipation and liberation. In 1989, the United Nations finally monitored Namibia’s first national elections for self-rule under Security Council Resolution 435. Independence was declared on March 21, 1990. A legitimate government was established under a constitution that mandates a bicameral parliament, and an executive and judiciary branches. Currently, the population of the country stands at 1.8 million with an annual growth rate of 2.7 percent and a density of 1.8 persons per square kilometer (The Namibian, March 3, 2002).

## Education in Early Namibia

Indigenous education in pre-colonial Namibia as in most of Africa emphasized indigenous knowledge, cultural attributes, human advancement, social values and social economic development. Brock-Utne (2000, p. 111-112) describes this form of education

as a system of linkages between general knowledge and practical life, education and production, education and social life, education and culture (through the use of mother tongue; the incorporation of cultural practices like games, dancing, music and sports; and the teaching of ethical values).

However, when missionaries arrived in Namibia, they introduced the European education format and deviated from long established dispositions of African education. Subsequently, this suppressed the Namibian people's own versions of education. Dating back to 1840, the Rhenish Mission Society had established its stations in Otjimbingue and moved to the central and east (Vedder, 1938). The Catholic Missions worked in Southern Namibia from 1888 until 1890 till they reached the central part. Finnish missionaries settled in the north and started their first school at Oniipa (MEC, 1992). The Augustineum High School, established by Dr. Heinrich Vedder with the assistance of Hugo Hahn from the Rhenish Mission was later taken over by the apartheid state. Other first mission schools in Namibia included Martin Luther High School near Otjimbingue, St. Paul's College, St. George's School and the Convent of the Holy Cross in Windhoek. The St. Joseph School at Dobra remained private under auspices of its patron, the Catholic Church.

Between 1840 and 1914 missionaries continued their efforts to establish for religious activities for the indigenous population and by 1915, 115 schools accommodating 5,490 learners were in operation (South West Africa Survey 1967, p.

109). These schools provided the rudimentary levels of education. Those Africans who did become “literate” were destined for priesthood. The main purpose of missionary education was to convert as many Africans as possible to Christianity, by primarily teaching them to read and write from the Bible and other holy books. Literacy efforts in this regard were mostly restricted to ecumenical and catechetical instructions.

Missionary education abandoned and neglected indigenous ways of education such as economics, politics, culture, folklore and the oral tradition, family organization, ways of knowing, and other African socio-cultural and education values.

Through the subsidies it provided, the South Africa government had taken control over the missionary schools in terms of determining the curriculum, teaching time, annual school terms, and the inevitable supervision by government inspectors. However, the missionaries continued to maintain local control over other aspects in the schools, particularly their orientation toward Christianity. The missionary and colonial government efforts in educating Africans primarily emphasized making the formal learning setting centers of de-culturalization with the clear intention of detaching them from their Africanhood. Diallo (1994, p. 49) argues that this type of education led to “the alienation of Africans from their cultural roots and local realities.” Halls (1990, p. 260) concurs that mission schools actually educated “the African away from his culture.”

### Apartheid Education in Namibia

In the early years of South African occupation, before the apartheid system was officially proclaimed, the ruling Afrikaner group introduced ‘Native Education’ through

the Education Proclamation Act (Proclamation 51 of 1921). This proclamation “had attempted to lay the basis for agreed principles of education for each group” i.e. along racial and tribal lines (As cited by O’Callaghan, 1977, p. 97).<sup>2</sup> The main purpose of Native Education was to diminish the social, economic and political role and influence of the Africans in governance. This legislation accentuated the differences between Africans and those of Asian and European backgrounds. It was further intended to marginalize Africans, thus rendering them ineffective in running their own state of affairs and making them perpetually dependent on the Afrikaner regime.

Dube (1985, p. 93) noted the manifold objectives of Native Education as intended to

- (a) handicap the African children with an inferior syllabus via the provision of inadequate learning conditions and poorly educated teachers;
- (b) limit the intellectual developments of the Africans through an inferior curriculum;
- (c) reinforce the existing belief of white superiority while simultaneously making African children believe that their low position in society were due to their inferior mental ability;
- (d) manifest the fact that by nature, African and European people have different destinies in their lives.

The ideas that gave birth to Native Education, were continued by the Afrikaner led Nationalist Party, when it came to power in 1948 in South Africa. Its driving force was the ideology of discrimination and segregation, known as *apartheid* in Afrikaans. Discrimination, separation and segregation along racial and tribal lines were the central tenets of this policy. Its main objective was to deny the full birthrights of indigenous peoples and those of non-European descent, and to develop and flourish to their

---

<sup>2</sup> O’Callaghan, Marion. (1977). *Namibia: The effects of apartheid on culture and education*. Paris: UNESCO.



maximum potential. Hence, it accentuated European superiority through political and economic means. Apartheid defined, restricted, reserved certain forms of labor and positions for people according to their racial and tribal background, to the extent that their conditions in society were manifested differently and never to equal that of the Afrikaners.

To utilize education in helping to solidify their grip on power and further foster apartheid for 'divide and rule,' the Afrikaner government, then known as the South African Union Government, established a commission for Native Education chaired by one Dr. W.W.M. Eiselen. O'Callaghan (1977, p. 99) reports the terms of reference of the Eiselen Commission as follows:

- (a) formulate principles and aims of education for natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes, and their needs under ever changing social conditions are taken into consideration;
- (b) the extent to which the existing primary secondary and vocational education systems for natives and the training of native teachers should be modified in respect to the proposed principles and aims, and to prepare natives more effectively for their future occupations;
- (c) the organization and administration of the various branches of native education;
- (d) the basis on which such education should be financed.

The commission presented its findings about the schools for Africans to the apartheid government in 1951 as follows:

- (a) they are providing education for a relatively small proportion of a backward population
- (b) the rate of elimination at an early stage is very high

- (c) the standards of achievement in the schools as measured by examination and achievement tests are low (pp. 99-101).

Of particular interest and primary importance were the recommendations that:

- A division of Bantu Affairs should be called into being, consisting of a Department of Bantu Administration, a Department of Bantu Technical Services, a Department of Bantu Education and a Bantu Development Authority
- In order to secure the active participation of the Bantu in the solution of local problems it is recommended that Bantu local authorities be set up in the reserves and in the urban areas. The intention is that these bodies should in course of time evolve into local government units charged with the administration of all local services, including education (p. 100).

With these recommendations, the Bantu Education Act of 1953 became law (p. 101).

Thus, *de jure* means of governing education according to racial segregation became formally institutionalized. Also, with the coming into effect of this law, the apartheid government usurped the powers of many missionary schools by requiring them to register and follow the prescribed guidelines of the apartheid curriculum. It was done with the cognizance and fear that independent schools could follow a curriculum that might be revolutionary, liberating, or at the very least, operate in contrast to what the apartheid thinkers deemed appropriate.

In 1958, the South African government established the Commission of Inquiry into non-European Education in South West Africa chaired by Dr. E. Van Zyl from South Africa. Its criteria were, *inter alia*:

- (a) the formulation of an efficacious system of education which will serve the interests of the native and Colored communities in South West Africa as two separate, independent racial groups, taking into consideration the historical developments of each racial group, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes, and their respective needs under the general, constantly changing social, economic and political conditions;

- (b) the extent to which the Union systems of non-European education may serve as a basis for the formulation of education systems for the non-European communities in South West Africa;
- (c) the control over, and the administration and financing of native and colored education in South West Africa (p. 104-105).

This commission concluded and recommended that:

- (a) each racial group receive a separate education;
- (b) a separate department for the education of Africans be established;
- (c) basic education be delivered in the mother tongue;
- (d) the European languages also be introduced at the basic education level to the Africans in order to enable them to communicate with the Europeans to aid in the workplace;
- (e) the South African system of education be used in Namibian schools (pp. 106-109).

The commission also discussed at length and mandated which schools each language group should attend and what languages were to be taught. Also, the department that presided over education for the Africans was to be further divided along tribal and linguistic affiliations. The coloreds were to receive their own department of education (pp. 109-110). The last of the apartheid commissions on education in colonial Namibia was one chaired by Odendaal. Created in 1962, the Odendaal Commission (p. 111) reconfirmed the recommendations of its predecessors but emphasized the teachings of Christianity from the Afrikaner perspective. Furthermore, the Odendaal Commission's recommendations regarding the deliberate establishment of clear geographical demarcations along tribal and racial lines did considerable damage to the Namibian people, especially the brutal implementation of force removals from our

ancestral land and the creation of homelands. This was a clear attempt by the South African regime to uproot and destroy African stability, unity and nationalism.

### Namibian Schools Under Apartheid

Throughout the colonial period, South Africa attempted to justify its colonial occupation by proclaiming that it had expanded the education system for the Africans significantly compared to other African states who were independent. However when close analysis is made, with the figures provided below, it is found that the education for indigenous peoples was irrelevant and marred with failure and drop-out rates compared to that of their white counterparts.

Between 1920 and 1966, the school system in colonial Namibia was reported as in Table 1.<sup>3</sup>

Besides the quantitative expansion of schools that South Africa insisted upon, funding for black and white schools was highly unequal. It follows that South Africa spent British Pounds 15.70 per white learner while British Pounds 2.80 were spent per black learner from 1920-1928 (Minority Rights Group Report No. 19, 1974, p. 13). This pattern continued throughout the 1930s, 1940s, 1950s and 1960s. In contrast to South Africa's claims of an enlarged education system, SWAPO (1981) outlined the conditions in the Namibian schools in the 1970's as follows:

Primary:

- 50 percent of the 167,000 primary school learners were in the first two grades;
- Very few proceeded beyond the primary school level.

---

<sup>3</sup> Data as presented by the South African colonial administration in *South West Africa Survey 1967*. Department of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria and Cape Town., pp. 114-117.

Table 1

## School Enrollment Data Between 1920 and 1966

RACE	Year	Schools	Pupils	Average # of pupils per Teacher	Average # of pupils per School
White	1920	23	975	17.7	42.4
	1955	71	12,088	25.7	170.3
	1966	77	19,893	20.3	258.3
Coloreds	1920	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	1955	36	3,240	23	90
	1966	53	9,402	27	177
Indigenous Groups: South	1920	43	2,430	52	56.5
	1955	88	7,893	24	89.7
	1966	111	20,642	30	186.0
Indigenous Groups: North	1924	168	4,689	15.4	28
	1955	161	17,515	31.7	109
	1966	228	45,402	45.2	200

Secondary:

- Secondary school learners comprised only 6.3% from 34 schools;
- Only ten schools provided matriculation (Grade 12) classes;
- 74 Africans and 146 coloreds were studying for matriculation in 1976.

Also, less than a decade before independence UNIN (1984) documented that:

- 30 to 40 percent of school age going children did not attend classes;
- 60 to 70 percent of the teachers were unqualified, all of them serving under one or another black educational authority;
- Overall literacy rates were estimated at 30 to 40 percent.

Furthermore, Moleah (1983, p. 76) correctly describes the education situation:

African people have a very high drop out rate; 75 percent fail to complete the first three years of primary schooling, and 97.87 percent leave school before std. 6 (i.e. the end of elementary schooling). Only 1 percent of African pupils reach the first form of secondary school. The

number of African students who then go on to high school and of those who eventually matriculate, i.e. complete high school, is very, very small. Gross disparities exist in funding as only R68 was spent per black pupil in 1975, as compared to R614 per white pupil. Educational facilities for Africans are limited and very poor ... The schools are overcrowded with a very high teacher student ratio... African teachers are as a rule unqualified with almost one half not having completed secondary education (i.e. junior high school).

From 1977 to 1989, South Africa appointed successive Administrator Generals (AGs) for Namibia to be the head of its illegal occupation regime. They were given full power and control to administer education in Namibia. Under their reigns, two education acts, namely the National Education Act (1980) and the Tertiary Education Act (1980) were proclaimed. In addition, Proclamation AG8 of 1980 reaffirmed apartheid and further cemented segregation in the education sector by establishing eleven 'ethnic' administrations. Discrepancies and inequitable funding to these administrations were systemic with the administration of finances that resulted in the whites receiving far greater funding than the rest of the ethnic groups. In one instance, the administration for whites received ten fold the amount in contrast to that allocated to learners in other administrations. A striking example can be found as recently as the 1989/90 pre-independence budget allocation when South Africa spent R 3,213 per white learner compared to a mere R 329 for a learner in one of the black ethnic administrations (UNESCO, 2000). This under-funding created inefficient conditions in the Bantustan administered schools that hindered teaching and learning activities throughout the primary and secondary school cycles. In these predominantly black schools, high failure and dropout rates were rampant, and student teacher ratios were higher than those for whites. Schools under the non-white ethnic administrations also

lacked the proper infrastructure (classrooms, toilets, etc.), and were deprived of textbooks, and learning and instructional materials.

These circumstances in the schools designated for the Africans, were more severely impeded by the inferior curriculum offered them under the unfortunately well entrenched Bantu Education Act of 1953. Zungu (1977, p. 206) noted that this type of education was orchestrated to “subjugating the African people and making them into obedient, pliant, landless and right-less labor force.” Therefore, apartheid education and the schools established for the Africans alienated many for whom they were supposedly intended, because the a) contents of the learning materials were foreign and racist; b) the essential African cultural knowledge and languages were not appropriately validated; c) school settings were fundamentally established in contrast to the original African cultures and learning situations; and d) indoctrinatory teaching methods were out of sync with the African practices (Tjivikua, 2001a, p. 24).

The degrading conditions within the apartheid education system did not go unchallenged. Teachers, students and parents joined forces with the workers and the liberation movements to oppose colonialism and Bantu education (Ya-Otto, 1981). South African illegal occupation forces responded by arresting, detaining and torturing teachers and students who opposed colonialism and the inadequacy of the education system (Konig, 1982, p. 30-34). This reaction was due to the fact that South Africa perceived the political participation of teachers and students as a potentially destabilizing force and threat to the political apparatus of apartheid, and that the Africans had no legitimate right to protest injustices imposed upon them.

In spite of the repression, through their unions, teachers and students continued to protest the iniquities as they were conscious that those apartheid schools in which they worked and studies in, represented the very political system that oppressed and subjugated them. It was apparent that the Bantu education system that severely delayed and crippled the cognitive and intellectual progress of the African pupils, had to be eradicated along with other practices that represented the apartheid system.

### Education and Independence

Inevitably, at the eve of independence, a comprehensive overhaul of the system was required in order to make education relevant, acceptable and serve the needs of the people of Namibia. It seemed almost an impossible effort, considering that the education system in colonial Namibia was best exemplified by racism and resultant inequalities. In 1991, the World Bank (p. ii) stated that the

extreme inequality in income and access to public services is what the first administration of independent Namibia has inherited. Its main task will be to dismantle an economic and social system built on Apartheid.

Given the backdrop of these repressive apartheid policies prevalent for 75 years, the new government committed itself to making education a priority and to comprehensively overhauling the education system so that all citizens could benefit equally. Authorities had to rapidly confront systemic inequalities that continued to deprive the majority Africans of a quality life and education.

The first phase of change took place through supreme law of the land. The Namibian constitution outlaws all forms of discrimination based on “race, sex, color,



ethnic origin, religion, creed or social or economic status.” (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990, p. 8). Other abhorrent forms of oppression that occurred throughout the colonial period were also abolished and civil and human rights were confirmed and extended to all citizens. The constitution also spoke directly to the issue of education. Article 20 of the Namibian Constitution (p. 12)

- a) entrenched the right to education
- b) made primary education mandatory and free
- c) prohibits discrimination in learning institutions based on race, color or creed.

Also, corporal punishment was outlawed. The Ministry of Education introduced two separate policy documents to deal with the issue of discipline, i.e. the Namibian Education Code of Conduct for Schools (1990) and Discipline from Within: Alternatives to Corporal Punishment (1992). While these documents served an important purpose, the teachers who were expected to implement them received minimal training in handling matters pertaining to discipline.

In 1992, the Ministry of Education declared access, equity, quality and democracy as guiding principles in reconstructing the fragmented education sector. By providing universal primary education, the government also committed itself to the goals of ‘Education for All’ (MEC, 1993, pp. 32-42). In light of the new political environment and the efforts of the ministry aimed at ensuring that previously disadvantaged communities were provided equal access to schooling. The number of learners enrolled in Grade 1 increased by 12 percent nationally between 1990 and 1991 (MEC, 1995).

According to the Ministry of Education, a further gradual increase in learner enrollment was witnessed between 1990 (382 445 learners) and 1998 (497 418 learners), (MEC, 2002, p. 3). The gross net enrollment of the 7 to 13 year olds was measured at 95 percent (92.2% for boys and 97.4% for girls), (p. 3). Because “a backlog of learners who did not go to school before independence has largely been cleared,” a decrease in the enrolment of first graders was recorded in ensuing years while growth rates at the secondary schools were the greatest.

In previously neglected remote areas, for example, increases in learner enrolment between 1990 and 1998 varied from 49 percent for Ondangwa East education region, 18 percent for Ondangwa West education region, and 53 percent for Rundu education region respectively (p. 2). The ministry also noted positive trends, by recording higher retention rates of learners. There was also a decrease in the dropout rates, recorded at 12.5 percent in 1991 and 3.9 in 1997 (p. 9). As the education sector continued to expand, the ministry increased its budget from N\$533,875 for the 1990/91 financial year to N\$1,434,976 for the 1998/99 financial year (p. 9). Under this new approach for funding education, new infrastructure facilities were built for previously neglected areas. Learning materials received moderate funding.

### Language Policy

During the colonial era, German, Afrikaans,<sup>4</sup> and to a lesser extent English were three external languages introduced in Namibia. These languages were extensively used in the pre-independence colonial administrations, business and the media. In

---

<sup>4</sup> A derivative of the Dutch language. It became the medium of instruction for all state schools designated for the Africans, Afrikaners and Coloreds in Namibia.

addition, they served as media of instruction to the neglect and disadvantage of over twenty one indigenous languages and dialects of the people of Namibia. In this use, African languages were deemed inferior to the European languages. Consequently, in 1925 the Union of South Africa government declared English and Afrikaans as official languages throughout the colonial territories of South Africa and Namibia. In Namibia, German was recognized as an official language too. However, Afrikaans took on a much greater significance as the Afrikaners dominated the government and education.

Throughout the colonial occupation period by South Africa, Afrikaans was used as the medium of instruction in all government schools. Some missionary schools that remained independent instructed in English. Schools established for the German speakers continued with German as a medium of instruction. Predominantly African schools could only teach some indigenous languages at the primary school level while the secondary schools were taught in Afrikaans with the introduction of English as a second language and German offered as a subject. Namibians who had earlier studied in South Africa at independent schools and other institutions there, received their training in English.

At UNIN, English was a medium of instruction while French was taught as a subject. The Academy for Tertiary Education, however, used Afrikaans as a medium of instruction except for certain readings that could be obtained in English only. In 1990, the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, declared English as the official language (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia., 1990, p. 3). The constitution also encourages the use of indigenous languages as media of instruction to enhance teaching and learning.

In an attempt to address the linguistic needs, views and desires of the people of Namibia, the Ministry of Education and Culture held numerous consultations with stakeholders in order to formulate a language policy for Namibian schools (MEC, 1993). In June 1992, it resolved that the language policy for schools be implemented as follows:

- (a) indigenous languages be the medium of instruction at the Grade 1 to 3 levels;
- (b) indigenous languages be taught as subjects from Grade 1 to 12;
- (c) English be phased in at Grade 3 and 4 transition levels to senior primary;
- (d) English be the medium of instruction from Grade 4 onward.

Due to the long history of brutal repression by the colonial Afrikaners, Afrikaans was viewed as the language of the oppressor and could no longer be allowed to play a leading role in independent Namibia. However, it took on the role of just another indigenous language since it is the mother tongue of many indigenous Namibians. Namibia adopted the “English as an official language” policy for political, economic, and pedagogical considerations (UNIN, 1981). It was political, because choosing one of the indigenous languages would have defeated the purpose of unifying the nation positively and may have ultimately led to linguistic fragmentation. It was economic because, Afrikaans could not be used for trade and other purposes beyond Namibian and South African borders. For pedagogical reasons, it was perceived that Namibians would benefit from the abundance of literature in the English language.

While this policy may have served Namibia well in those regards, the challenge to safe-guard and promote indigenous languages at all levels in education and in all spheres of society must remain a high priority for the policy and other decision makers

in Namibian education. It is of utmost necessity and importance that children from their infancy, learn to speak, read and write their mother tongue, and be able to express and satisfy themselves culturally, spiritually, pedagogically and linguistically through their mother tongues. Mother tongue is *sine qua non* to the development of all intelligences within the human being. Namibia is challenged to promote the usage of all indigenous languages (Tjitendero, 1977). Education in the mother tongue can help facilitate teaching and learning activities and the need for their affirmation throughout the school cycle and college levels hold significant long-term benefits for their survival and advancement (Tjivikua, 2001b). In addition, indigenous Namibian languages ought to enjoy maximum usage on radio, television and the print media (Brock-Utne, 1997).

### Higher Education

Throughout the colonial period, the South African government did not consider higher education appropriate for black Namibians. However, white Namibians who had completed their secondary schooling were readily accommodated at whites only universities and colleges in South Africa. The few black Namibians who did proceed beyond high school went to institutions historically established for Africans only in South Africa under the apartheid laws. In the 1970s, about 134 Africans compared to 1,988 white Namibians attended universities or colleges in South Africa (SWAPO, 1981, p. 91). Others who sought refuge in exile, in neighboring countries or overseas, received their tertiary education there.

In 1976, the United Nations established the United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) in Lusaka, Zambia. UNIN was intended to provide Namibians with the type of

education they could not receive under apartheid. It also prepared Namibians to gain administrative and leadership skills in education, law, finance and other development fields. This move exposed the apartheid regime's neglect of the social and educational needs of the Namibian people.

In a drive to counter the advanced work of the United Nations, the South African colonial administration, under its appointed AG, brought into being the Academy for Tertiary Education in 1980. The Academy consisted of a Technicon, a teachers college, a university and a distance education unit. Thus, the Academy provided training primarily in education, commercial and secretarial subjects, and to a lesser degree, agriculture and nature conservation. University courses were linked to those of the University of South Africa. In 1989 the Academy recorded an enrollment of 1610 full time students and 867 part timers (UNAM, 1995).

After independence, the new government ordered a restructuring of the higher education sector to provide prospective students with relevant qualifications that matched the needs of the population and the development objectives of the country. The Presidential Commission on Higher Education was created in 1990. It *inter alia* proposed the establishment of a university and polytechnic. Consequently, a university was created under the University of Namibia Act of 1992 and the Polytechnic of Namibia Act followed in 1995.

By 1996, the University of Namibia's student enrolment grew to a total 3,560 and currently consists of 7 faculties (UNAM, 1996, p. 7). In the year 2002, full-time students totaled 4,629 (NAMPA, 2002, February 16). It enrolled 3,345 students in 1996 in her eight established schools and in 1998, the student population stood at 3498

(Polytechnic of Namibia, 1998, p. 4). Other tertiary institutions include six vocational training centers and three agricultural colleges located in different parts of the country (MEC, 1996, p. 27).

### Teacher Education

The origins of teacher education in Namibia began with missionary education. When missionaries started religious literacy programs, their formal schooling activities were limited to selecting the “fit learners” to become priests. These priests later took charge of rudimentary ecumenical literacy programs and a select few became teachers. These first teachers were trained at the Augustineum Training College based at Otjimbingue in west-central Namibia which later moving to Okahandja and eventually Windhoek. It was by far the most advanced formal institution in teacher training. The Catholic Diocese, African Methodist Church and Finnish missionaries were running independent schools and remained committed to religious education in Namibia. They also extended their schooling activities to cover teacher training.

When the Union of South Africa government took over the administration in Namibia, Namibian education also fell under its control. Until 1980, the Augustineum Training College and the Ongwediva Training College were the leading schools in teacher training. Since there were limited opportunities for higher learning in Namibia, many Namibians left to receive teacher training at independent schools in South Africa. Most were being qualified for primary schools, as during colonialism, secondary school teaching remained the exclusive domain of white teachers. Anyone with a standard 8 and/or standard 10 certificate was admitted to this teacher training program and could

graduate with a Primary Teacher Certificate. In the late 1970s, South Africa created the Junior Secondary Teacher Certificate and began allowing black Namibians to teach junior secondary classes (Grade 8-10) in Bantustan schools.

In 1980 when South Africa created the Academy for Tertiary Education, most of the teacher training activities were shifted there. Throughout the 1980s, the Academy offered a myriad of certificates and diplomas mostly to would be black Namibian teachers. Few were admitted to pursue the Bachelor of Education degree that was required to teach at the senior secondary level. As a result of prior neglect, the admission criteria and pre-requisites were a high bar for many black Namibians to attain. The Higher Education Diploma (HED) was offered as an alternative to the Bachelor degree after the Academy usurped all the teacher training activities from the Augustineum.

The Windhoek Onderwys Kollege fell under the statutes of the Academy but remained exclusively for whites. The Khomasdal Training College was for coloreds and Basters. The Ongwediva Training College, Rundu Training College and Caprivi Training College fell under the Bantustan administrations.

In the course of this study, it was discovered that the composition of teachers in the secondary schools of Namibia have changed dramatically since independence. This group of teachers used to be exclusively white with the exception of a few blacks even in schools designated for black learners under apartheid. In 2001, in all the former colored schools, the racial composition of teachers was almost evenly shared between black and colored teachers. In the schools originally established for blacks, the majority of the teachers were black with a good representation of colored teachers in many of



these schools. Besides, it was noted that in the formerly white schools, some of the white teachers have stayed on and now constitute a substantial percentage of the overall number of teachers in these schools.

It appears, however, that despite earlier restrictions for blacks to teach at secondary schools, they now constitute the overall majority at this level. Several reasons may have contributed to this. First, the system experienced a “flight” of white teachers who left the profession for lucrative positions elsewhere. Second, the expatriate white teachers from South Africa opted to leave after independence. Third, the former white schools, built normally larger for the white population they served before independence, have expanded by admitting more black learners. Hence, more black teachers who gained the required qualifications to teach at the secondary school level were hired.

### The BETD

Shortly after 1990, the new government resolved to consolidate the myriad of diplomas and certificates offered to would-be educators, and replaced them with the Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD) for primary and junior secondary school teachers. Four colleges were to begin qualifying teachers with these new credentials.<sup>5</sup> The University of Namibia followed suit by phasing out and eliminating unnecessary certificates and diplomas. It began qualifying prospective secondary school teachers with a four-year Bachelor of Education degree and a two-year Master of Education

---

<sup>5</sup> After independence, the Khomasdal Training College and the Windhoek Onderwys Kollege merged to form the Windhoek Teachers College. Ongwediva Training College was renamed Ongwediva Teachers College, Rundu Training College became Rundu Teachers College, and Caprivi Training College is now known as Caprivi Teachers College. These colleges are supplying basic education (Grade 1-10) teachers for the respective education regions.

degree and a Postgraduate Diploma in Education. A Bachelor of Education (Primary) and a doctoral degree have been proposed.

Namibian teachers were educated under dehumanizing and discriminatory conditions of the colonial apartheid regime. They were also socialized in an inferior education system to serve in inadequate education systems. Little opportunity existed for them to develop into full professionals (Calleweart, 1999, p. 234). Seemingly, the post-independence these efforts were to represent a break from the dogmatic, restrictive and oppressive colonial education previously imposed by the apartheid regime. In turn, better and more opportunities were created for Namibian teachers.

Starting in 1993, the BETD diplomas adopted a participatory, learner-centered, and social re-constructivist approach with a critical practitioner inquiry. According to Zeichner and Tabachnick (1999, p. 216) social re-constructivist teaching and learning are considered to be the means for promoting “greater equity, humanity, and social justice in the classroom, the school and the society.” This program serves as the vehicle for change in the philosophy, pedagogy, theory and practice of teacher education in Namibia. It is considered a drastic departure from the practices of the apartheid past that were colonial and dehumanizing in theory and practice.

The BETD pre-service training consists of many components chief of which is the Education Theory and Practice (ETP), the learner centered education (LCE) approach, and critical inquiry. ETP offers the core subjects for three years. Assessment and evaluation practices are dealt with under ETP. A sub-component introduced in the BETD is continuous assessment. The learner-centered approach was seen as but one way to democratize the education process in Namibia and empower the participants.

Subscribing to the liberation learning theories of Freire (1971) even before independence, Namibia sought to part ways with the degrading practices of the past apartheid Bantu education system. For Namibia LCE introduced “participation, sharing, working, together, and research as central to the learner-centered philosophy” (Dahlstrom, 1999, p. 151).

The aspect of critical inquiry (CI) encompasses school based studies and action research. CI allows the teacher to critically analyze and understand the environment in which he/she operates. The teacher looks at the situation comprehensively, records critical incidents and constructs meaning out of the activities that occur on a daily basis, thereafter deliberating and reflecting collaboratively on what action to take on these matters in order to respond to student needs.

Out of the three year training for BETD, twenty one weeks are devoted to school based studies – three weeks in year 1, six weeks in year 2, thirteen weeks in year 3 (a full term). It is during this period when student teachers do practice teaching and engage in full-scale activities such as developing learning materials and take note of the progress of learners (Craig, Kraft & DuPlessis, 1998, p. 42).

BETD in-service training is offered to “unqualified” or “under-qualified” teachers for a period of four years. Teachers follow modules and submit assignments throughout the year. Face to face sessions are arranged one week during every school break, i.e. three times a year. Credit is given to teachers with certificates or diplomas of the colonial past. The BETD is now the “mainstay” diploma for all intending teachers of the basic education cycle (Grades 1-10). The BETD approach has been challenging, misunderstood and misconstrued by many, including teacher educators who themselves

were educated under the apartheid form of education but only received short-term training to operate under the new credentials.

### Summary

Missionaries formalized modern day education in Namibia. The German colonial regime uprooted the lives of indigenous peoples of Namibia and made no effort to invest in their education, except for the descendants of Germany. In implementing the apartheid doctrine of Bantu Education, the colonial South African government grossly neglected the majority indigenous African population by providing them with an education far inferior compared to that of their white counterparts. After attaining independence, the Namibian government introduced relevant changes to the system to improve the conditions for teaching and learning. The education system expanded considerably as basic education became compulsory. Discriminations of all forms in education were abolished. English became the official language and indigenous languages were being promoted. Teacher education was restructured, the curriculum became learner centered, corporal punishment was outlawed and institutions of higher education were established.

## CHAPTER 3

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

This chapter will review the literature relevant to the nature of the problem and the purpose of the study.

The review of literature provides a conceptual platform for this investigation into how new teachers in Namibia may be assisted to succeed in their responsibilities for helping young people learn well. Specifically, the review of literature consists of three interrelated parts. First, the demand (including attrition and retention) for new teachers in school systems is detailed. Every school year new teachers are needed to fill the vacuum left by teachers who dropped out of the profession. Due to population growth and increased desire and interest of parents as well as to meet the nations' human resource needs, these new teachers must cope with increasing numbers of learners. Second, the problems that new teachers experience in school systems, are identified and the relevance of these problems for Namibian teachers are inferred. It is important to identify these problems so that new ways of alleviating them can be designed and effective conditions for learning are created. New teachers are most vulnerable when they begin with their teaching careers. Their first teaching experiences can make or truncate their careers. Third, support programs for helping new teachers succeed are described. It is helpful to examine existing successful programs in education so that their gains and successes can guide the construction of more effective support programs for Namibia.

## The Demand for New Teachers

The demand for new teachers in underdeveloped countries is viewed against the backdrop of the stages of economic growth. Other factors influencing and facilitating the drive for new teachers is the social demand for education, as well as the need for manpower with higher levels of schooling. T.W. Schultz (1963, p. viii) envisioned the education of the populace as an “investment in human capital” that may yield tangible results for nations.

Efforts undertaken by nations to educate their citizenry were fostered by the desire to strive toward “civility” and “modernity” by linking the process of development to education (Fagerland & Saha, 1992). This motivation has had a significant impact on the way nations organized their education systems. Most underdeveloped countries emerging from colonialism and resulting oppression have greatly emphasized the need for educating their young generations and prepare them for leadership roles and work challenges. That consequently led to increased demand for education.

As a result of economic growth and development, skilled workers were highly needed and that essentially led to education being a necessary undertaking in terms of what Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985) label as the social, private and manpower demands for education. During the periods of independence and modernization, Coombs (1985) noted that the number of teachers in Africa between 1965 and 1980 increased by 159 percent at the primary level, 324 percent at the secondary level, and 395 percent in higher education while the number of qualified teachers also increased. However, amid this increase, teachers in the majority of these countries remain scarce

especially in areas that are hard to staff, and while trying to adjust classroom reality to policy changes as such as reduction in student teacher ratios.

In 1991 a study by UNESCO noted a number of factors influencing the demand and supply of teachers:

- (a) teacher demand in southern-Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab states increased considerably and the trends are expected to last for years into this new millennium;
- (b) the population growth rate in developing countries led to increase in enrolment rates. Most of these countries have large percentages of school age children in their general population.
- (c) as a consequence of increase in enrolments, more teachers were recruited to the profession. This led to a 57 percent increase of teachers worldwide between 1970 and 1988.

The shortage of teachers pervades even the most of advanced nations. In the United States, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) noted that

- 12 percent of new teachers start teaching without any formal teacher training;
- 14 percent of new teachers start teaching without having fully met state standards;
- more than 40 states allow school districts to hire teachers on emergency licenses who have not met these basic requirements;
- nearly one-fourth (23 percent) of all secondary teachers lacked a college minor in their main teaching field.

For a highly industrialized country, these figures and the assessment of the Commission are disturbing to educators and legislatures alike. While pressure is exerted on the education systems to foster the nation to become the leader in virtually all areas, provide high quality teaching and learning, meet high achievements and high standards,

these goals seem out of reach and unattainable. The fields of mathematics and science are challenged with the greatest shortages of teachers in a majority of the states, teachers for these subjects are hired without proper certification, and the numbers of new math and science teachers have declined (Darling-Hammond, Hudson, & Kirby, 1989).

In the United Kingdom, 8000 additional teaching positions were created between 2000 and 2001 in order to keep up with the growth in enrolment of learners. The need, however, prevails. The School Teachers' Review Body advanced reasons for anticipating more teachers, including the great desire to reduce the teacher student ratio, hence their activities that may lead to enhanced quality learning and teaching in the classrooms, and high entry qualification standards imposed prior to entering the profession (BBC, 2002, January 25).

In South Africa, between 1955 and 1968, the number of black learners increased by 137 percent whereas the number of teachers increased only by 87 percent. This was coupled by the high presence of unqualified or under-qualified teachers (Louw, 1988). In 2002, many qualified teachers in South Africa have left the profession since state sponsored apartheid ended in 1994 and a severe shortage is being experienced. Despite increased enrolments, the number of teachers between 1996 and 2002 dwindled from 370,599 to less than 350,000 (The Teacher, 2002, January 25).

In 1990, the supply and demand for teachers was highly uneven amongst the eleven ethnic administrations in Namibia. In its 1991 report on the status of higher education in Namibia, the Commission on Higher Education reported that there were over-supplies of teachers in the white and colored administrations while severe



shortages were being experienced in the black administrations (MEC, 1991, pp. 124-126). It further brought to light that there were uneven distributions of population growth rates in the different regions, affecting enrolment rates and the need for new and additional teachers. In 1996, the Ministry of Education and Culture observed that 33 percent of the teachers nationally, had no “formal teacher training qualification” while in the Kavango education region, this figures stood at 60 percent (pp. 16-19). The Ministry has emphasized repeatedly that it sought to provide a quality education and that teacher qualification is an integral part of that process. Consequently, these figures indicate that there is a greater need for qualified teachers especially in the remote and densely populated northern areas of the country.

By the beginning of the 2001 school year, 400 new teachers (using a learner teacher ratio of 35:1) were needed to fill positions in these most densely populated areas, Ondangwa East and West education region (The Namibian, January 31, 2001). Qualified teachers in the critical areas of technology, math and sciences continue to be scarce and remain significantly underrepresented. Current teacher output from the teacher colleges and the university is apparently unable to match the demand in these academic areas.

It goes without saying that the need for new teachers in Namibia is also partly necessitated by population expansion rated at 3.2 percent in 1991 (UNESCO, p. 104), and 2.7 percent in 1998 (UNESCO, p. 120) respectively. This adds to the persistent challenges of increasing enrolment rates and the corresponding need to continually increase financial and human resource investment in education. Most recently, the

attrition rate has been exacerbated by the HIV/AIDS epidemic which adds pressure to rethink teacher supply and demand in Namibia.

With the changing trends in the rapidly advancing and crucial areas of information technology and the sciences, countries are changing teaching requirements while qualified teachers are highly sought after as states struggle to stay abreast in these and other fields deemed to be of local, national and international importance.

### Attrition

UNESCO (1998, p. 41) defines teacher attrition as “the percentage of teachers who leave the profession each year.” It further notes that conditions contributing to attrition vary from personal to socio-economic to political changes in a particular setting. For example, when most countries in Africa were gaining their independence, many qualified teachers moved to jobs created in the administration of education. Changes in other world settings stimulated the flight of teachers to newly found better paying jobs.

Goodlad (1984, p. 172) identified “personal frustration and dissatisfaction in the teaching situation” as the number one problem that forces teachers to part ways with teaching. He further determined that the low financial compensation for teachers was another major reason for teacher attrition. Gordon and Maxey (2000) identified six conditions that overwhelm new teachers and contribute to their departure from the profession. They are difficult work assignment, unclear expectations, inadequate resources, isolation, role-conflict and reality shock.

Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) list several factors attributed to teacher attrition:

They are:

- (a) inadequate salaries as compared to other professions
- (b) poor working conditions, i.e. lack of housing and inadequate instructional materials
- (c) lack of promotion and opportunities for professional development
- (d) lack of supervision and inefficient administrations

They also noted that teacher salaries in some countries in the 1980 were declining compared to those in the manufacturing industries. Teachers opt to leave the profession whenever they find better opportunities that can provide for a better living wage under harsh economic conditions (Coutinho, 1992, p. 48). It also deserves mention that in some societies, teaching as a profession is not appropriately recognized and appreciated, hence teachers do not enjoy the credibility and status they deserve. These are all factors that demoralize teachers in the most serious way.

In the United States, it is estimated that nearly 30 percent of neophytes in the teaching profession quit in their first five years of teaching (Halford, 1998). In the Commonwealth of Massachusetts for example, the teachers association estimated that

- almost 60 percent of Massachusetts teachers will leave the profession over the next 10 years
- 40-50 percent beginning teachers drop out of teaching within the first seven years of teaching
- the cost of recruiting, hiring and training a new teacher is burdensome to a school

- of those who stay, many will have such negative initial experiences that they may never reach their full potential as educators(Massachusetts Teachers Association, 2001, p. i).

In some parts of the world, a new and major factor that has exacerbated attrition of teachers is the HIV/AIDS epidemic. This crisis has reached epidemic proportions in sub-Saharan Africa. It appears that 50 percent of student teacher graduates destined for schools die each year in Zambia from HIV/AIDS related illnesses (Sunday Times, 2001, October 17). In South Africa HIV/AIDS related deaths in teaching profession amounted to greater than 40 percent between June 2000 and May 2001 according to the South African Democratic Teachers Union (Sunday Times, 2001, November 04).

Since this epidemic, Namibia's life expectancy has been drastically reduced. In 2000, N\$50.7 million was spent on AIDS orphans in Namibia (The Namibian, 2000, May 9). The cost and impact on education has yet to be carefully calculated. New approaches for teacher retention to match the unexpected changes in demographics inflicted by the devastating disease on the profession also have to be re-examined. In 2002, it was estimated that between 2002 and 2010 Namibia could lose 20 percent (3360 teachers) of the overall teaching force (The Namibian, 2002, March 08).

### Retention

Retention of experienced teachers is absolutely essential to maintain stability in the school systems as the exodus takes with it years of expertise that would have benefited schools and future generations of learners. School systems find it difficult to recruit and retain teachers while other professions are paying employees much higher

salaries. The average pay differential between teaching and other professions has led many analysts and educators to suggest a more flexible approach for teacher remuneration be adopted, such as to pay more to those educators

- in shortage fields of math and science
- willing to work in hard to staff schools
- who graduate from better colleges or with higher test scores; and
- who perform better in the classroom or who demonstrate greater knowledge and skills (Olson, 2000, p. 34).

In the US, many districts have now instituted the necessary measures and eased the pre-requisites on certification in order to more easily recruit and retain teachers for subjects that experience grave shortage. Additionally, professional development opportunities for teachers are proving to be just about the right incentives that aid teachers' hopes of remaining in teaching (Recruiting New Teachers, 1998)

The UK government has further recognized as indispensable the need to create conducive environments for teachers in its schools, cut the 'red tape' and provide the necessary in-service training for teachers (BBC, 2002, January 25). In 2001, the UK spent 33 million pounds on recruitment and retention incentives for teachers that included "additional salaries, travel subsidies and childcare support" (BBC, 2001, February 04).

Most recently, the UK has also been aggressively recruiting a group of the best teachers from around the world to fill spaces left vacant by her native teachers who felt that either their efforts in the classroom nor their profession in general were properly recognized by their government. Ironically, many of these teachers come from the very

countries with which the UK is collaborating in trying to upgrade their own education systems (BBC, 2002, April 01). This post-colonial “plundering” of other countries’ teachers exacerbates already grave and desperate situations where planners are struggling to retain competent teachers. Most of these countries are still classified as ‘developing’ and in many cases the cost of training and replacement of teachers can be prohibitive.

Retaining teachers with qualifications in the remote areas remains another great challenge for Namibia and other developing countries. In 1996, the MEC noted that efforts to draw qualified teachers to rural areas were being obstructed by the lack of incentives, such as an attractive compensation and proper accommodation for working in harsh and remote areas. Learner teacher ratios remain high in these areas and “regional disparities” prevail (p. 16). In the Kavango education region, 60 percent of the teachers were unqualified. The number of qualified teachers for this region continued to decline in the first half of the 1990s (MEC, 1996, p. 19).

### Problems New Teachers Experience

The intricacies of teaching and learning require a number of special competencies on the part of educators so that they can carry out their duties proficiently and confidently, and contribute meaningfully to the achievement of their students. These competencies include not only a repertoire of teaching skills and a solid grounding in subject matter, but also knowledge of student development and the interpersonal skills to facilitate positive collegial relationships. When these competencies are lacking or underdeveloped, the success of the teacher, and the achievement of his/her students is negatively affected.

When embarking upon a professional career, the beginning teacher faces a set of unique challenges. These challenges pertain not only to professional, curriculum and instructional issues, but also to personal and interpersonal ones. The beginning teacher often has difficulty unraveling his/her roles and responsibilities, taking on a leadership role and establishing collegial relationships. In addition, personal challenges such as isolation from fellow teachers, lack of emotional support or encouragement from their more experienced colleagues.

There is a serious “missing link” between pre-service and in-service in the teaching profession as teachers in making the transition are not adequately supported. In addressing this vacuum, Hall (1982, p.53) noted that “teaching is one of very few professions in which the novice is expected to assume full responsibility from the first day on the job.” Once trained, incumbent teachers often work “without reinforcement, with little supervision from their ‘superiors’ or help from their peers, and with little motivation or opportunity to improve their teaching” (Shaeffer, 1993, p. 188). This picture is all too common in many systems of education that are devoid of even the most modest support mechanisms for teachers. In case of learner-centered reforms, this support and follow-up is vitally important, for in its absence, teachers will revert to traditional rote memorization and teacher-centered teaching.

Teachers are often pressured to provide a good education. Excellence, high performance and high standards are the common requirements for teachers but a serious shortcoming on the part of educational systems is their failure to extend appropriate support needed by teachers to renew and strengthen their performance in classrooms.

Joyce and Showers (1983, p. 25) blamed policy makers for being shortsighted about the support provided to teachers and stated that they

often behaved as though teaching skills were so easily acquired that a simple presentation, one-day workshop, or single videotaped demonstrations were sufficient to ensure successful classroom performance.

This represents great injustice to teaching and learning. Teacher training requires rigorousness and comprehensiveness much like other professions. The attention given to teachers in this regard is unsatisfactory for them to make significant changes that will help them structure the learning environment for academic success.

Goodlad (1984), and Wong and Wong (2000) both concluded that teachers enter the profession inadequately prepared and their repertoires are mostly reminiscent of the way they were taught in their earlier years of schooling, and skills they develop on the job. The pedagogical and methodological knowledge gained during teacher training have little bearing on their instructional strategies, styles or techniques, and how they handle the harsh realities of schools and classrooms that confront them. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1984) maintain that the way in which teachers are socialized in their student-teaching and first years of teaching, hold significant influence and can have a significant impact on how teachers perform within the profession.

In his ground-breaking study, Veenman (1984, p. 143) discovered that new teachers experience “reality shock” as a reaction to the unexpected difficulties and unpleasant encounters within schools and the profession in general. This reality shock problems, range from personal, psychological, professional, structural and bureaucratic hurdles. He further cited the problems of beginning teachers to enforce classroom discipline, motivate students, deal with individual differences among students, assess



student work, relationships with parents, organize of class-work, cope with insufficient materials and supplies, dealing with problems of individual students, and heavy teaching loads resulting in insufficient preparation time as added predicaments that are difficult to overcome. These early experiences can determine teacher effectiveness, overall progress and whether or not they will remain or quit teaching altogether.

New teachers face a set of unique and wide range problems different from those of their veteran counterparts. They often find themselves in strange and unfamiliar conditions that render minimal or no support. In situations where there are no officially promulgated district or state policies to induct and mentor new teachers, experienced teachers pay little attention to their new colleagues. Vittetoe (1977) noted that first year teachers fail because they are placed in locations that largely contrast with those in which they practiced. New teachers also find their new schools to be hostile environments that lack collegial contacts and effectively isolate them (Goodlad, 1984; Lieberman and Miller, 1984). Also when veteran teachers realize that new teachers have superior competencies, the former do not feel obligated to provide collaborative support to the novice (Ryan, 1986). These encounters can lead to negative experiences for new teachers. McDonald (1980, p. 5) commented that

for most teacher, the initial experiences of teaching are traumatic events out of which they emerge defeated, depressed, constrained or with a sense of efficacy, confidence and growing sureness in teaching skills.

While there are many legitimate demands from parents, society and the states for schools to mold learners in the most effective manner, the conditions under which many teachers operate leave much to be desired. Goodlad (1984) reported that teachers perceived lack of student interest, big schools, overcrowded classrooms, lack of parental

interest, bureaucracy, inadequate resources, and student misbehavior (especially among adolescents) as major problems that affect their performance. In addition, he also listed disrupting and school interference factors of abuse and use of alcohol and drugs as key problems teachers have to deal with on a daily basis. Lieberman and Miller (1984) concluded that the difficult culture of adolescents, lack of team work among teachers, and incessant bureaucracy cripple teacher performance and student learning.

Many teachers fail to understand the culture of young people, their behavior, language and basic needs. Gordon R.L. (1997) suggested that beginning teachers may be confronted with two “critical teaching behaviors” which are Social Insight and “Withitness” (p. 56). Gordon further defines social insight as “an understanding of what is taking place in the classroom.” The behavior and interaction of learners require special skills to deal with effectively. Classrooms are a complex set of learning environments and new teachers may not quite at the outset understand the nature of children’s behavior, communication and behavioral styles and the way learners view the world. “Withitness” is the experience teachers acquire and use to direct the classroom in a way that help learners discover meaningful ways to use the learning environment to their benefit.

Teachers from historically disadvantaged groups face unique obstacles. Gordon (2000, p. 20) discovered that in the United States “African American teachers feel the stigma of self-esteem of their profession far greater than any other racial group including whites.” This is clearly due to a lack of appreciation for diversity within the system. Minority teachers legitimately feel that their efforts are not fully recognized by the dominant group. Education systems and many schools fail to identify and deal with

the needs of minority teachers and learners alike but continue to judge them with the “dominant group’s perceptions of their own social reality” Ogbu and Gibson (1991, p. 6). On top of that, minority teachers and learners find few role models and peer mentors who are ready to guide them in the profession (Ogbu, 1990).

Teaching multiple grades, teaching more than one subject for multiple classes, overcrowded classrooms and dealing with intimidation amongst learners, are added problems for new and old teachers. The latter is a problem largely ignored by principals and policymakers alike even though it disrupts learner progress and class stability (Bray, 1987, UNESCO, 1998).

Working conditions within some school environments are extremely difficult and demand serious overhaul if teachers are to perform their duties effectively, and remain in the profession. In underdeveloped countries factors exacerbating the conditions of learning and teaching in schools which put serious constraints on the performance of teachers, have been identified as follows:

- lack of instructional materials
- poor maintenance of decrepit buildings
- lack of formal class space
- inadequate rewards for teachers
- absence of incentives for further development
- nonexistence of upward mobility possibilities, and
- lack of pedagogical support for teachers.

(Hurst and Rust, 1990, Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991, Coutinho, 1992,).

Rural posting may present new teachers with particularized set of challenges. Bray (1987, p. 56) also identifies rural posting as presenting a particular set of challenges for the new teacher in these settings. Rural areas lack health facilities, some teachers may be considered to be outsiders, are unfamiliar with the harsh conditions of rural settings, telecommunications are poor or non-existent, cultural and linguistic factors may be added obstacles, no chances of promotion due to invisibility with headquarters, and the entire situation seem a dead end to the teacher in question and his/her family. These problems prevent new teachers from being effective as they have not yet developed the competencies and the requisite skills.

The lack of basic amenities for schools (toilets, water and electricity), unavailability of learning materials, and lack of office space and equipment for teachers are added impediments especially in rural primary schools (UNESCO, 1998). New teachers in particular are greatly challenged by these unfamiliar and harsh conditions under which they are expected to produce good results of increased learner outcomes and therefore quality education. While assessing situations in “difficult education context,” UNESCO (1987) observed several problems associated with teaching. These are:

- lack of adequate academic preparation and appropriate training
- teacher preparation is irrelevant to those destined for rural areas
- for less developed countries, the lack of financial investments in education hamper progress
- teachers are underpaid, work under harsh situations and there are no good compensation packages

- teachers operate under educationally unacceptable conditions

In South Africa, the shortage and late arrival of textbooks and other learning materials, school amenities, absence of classrooms, and dilapidated buildings, were cited as problems that worsen teacher working conditions and student performance (The Teacher, 2002, January 25). It was further reported that in one of the provinces, roughly just 30 percent of the schools received their school supplies on time at the start of the 2002 new school calendar while the majority of schools received theirs in the last term. (SABCNEWS, 2002, January 16). One rural school (which is a common occurrence in developing countries) had “no electricity, telephones, water or proper sanitation” and one student has to share their “textbooks” with five other learners. (Mail and Guardian, 1999, October 26).

In a 1991 survey, UNESCO revealed that class size, language, lack of library resources, basic teaching equipments, and textbooks were the most significant issues negatively influencing teachers’ situations in Namibia. As this survey was carried out immediately after independence, it was a direct reflection of the abysmal conditions created by apartheid. The problems experienced by new teachers and the “unqualified” and “under-qualified” teachers especially in the former black administrations were more severe than their counterparts in the defunct white and colored administrations. In addition, Namibian teachers had to deal with a) a new medium of instruction; b) a new learner-centered curriculum at the primary and junior secondary levels; and c) a new series of senior secondary curricula.

## Support Programs for New Teachers

Over the past two decades, educators have re-examined and re-invented the way support is extended to new teachers. The old and traditional programs have been sidelined for new and fitting ones. The new programs have been implemented with high returns. Also, due to the high attrition rates of new teachers that vexed many school systems, particular attention and support is now being extended to help them improve and succeed in teaching and enhance student learning. Support to new teachers can be provided in a variety of ways. Henry (1989) suggests that support to teachers be given in the form of mentor support, peer support and university support. The specific programs of induction and mentoring have been shown to help reduce new teacher attrition and influenced positively the repertoires of teachers.

### Induction

Though there are many descriptions of induction. The common understanding defines it as “formal introduction to a new job” (Oxford Dictionary, 1995, p. 324). In teacher education, induction refers to the process through which support is extended to new teachers to help them deal with the overwhelming demands of the new job, reducing possible pitfalls and unhappiness (Bey, 1990).

Griffin (1986, p. 42) defines induction as

the provision of assistance for the beginning teacher, that person who is making the transition from ‘student teaching’ in a college or university to full time teacher in an elementary or secondary classroom.

In most cases, when teachers finish their pre-service training and step into the school environment, they are literally left on their own to “sink or swim” in unfamiliar

and sometimes difficult circumstances. Many education authorities that neglect new teacher support and development operate under the assumption that the pre-service programs provided enough skills and competencies among those former student teachers. As a result, they do not need any further development of skills, knowledge and nurturing. In some cases, even orientations that are designed to welcome new teachers to the profession are considered unnecessary and a waste of time and money. To the contrary, studies have shown that induction efforts are necessary in bridging the transition between pre-service and in-service training and teacher education (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986).

Induction and mentoring can be anticipated to help in assisting new teachers to:

- overcome major problems in the school context such as misplacement, overloads and overcrowded classes;
- develop into successful teachers those beginning teachers who enter the profession without the background, ability, and personal characteristics necessary to constitute the potential to be acceptable teachers;
- substantially influence the long range retention of teachers in the profession (Hulling-Austin, 1986, p. 5).

Induction programs can help new teachers deal more effectively with urgent aspects of learning, special student needs, instructional needs, grouping, student placement, retention problems, and parental demands (Bercik and Blair-Larsen, 1989). If appropriately administered to meet teachers' needs, induction also helps reduce the attrition rate and elevate teachers' abilities to deal with troublesome and unfamiliar areas. However, the beginning of a teaching career is one that exemplifies vulnerability and solid assistance must be accorded to new teachers during this period (Johnson and Ryan, 1983; Veenman, 1984).

Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998, p. 13) draw attention to the fact that there is need to institutionalize “comprehensive induction programs” to help new teachers succeed in their new tasks which include:

- Orientation to the school system, school, curriculum and community;
- Time to develop new skills;
- Mentors who are on-site, committed, and skilled;
- Sustained help in developing as competent person – not screening;
- Opportunities to talk with other novice teachers in a setting free of evaluation;
- Realistic assignments (type of classes and the number of extracurricular activities).

#### Induction and Mentoring Goals

In order for new teachers to accrue the maximum benefits from induction program, it is vital that goal be clearly stated and defined. Varah, Theune and Parker (1986, p. 31) proposed that induction programs goals be considered as follows:

- provide a planned first-year teaching experience that makes possible a broad variety of professional learning experiences;
- reach a level of professional skill and judgment that characterize a well-qualified career teacher;
- raise professional competency to a level distinctly above that of the beginning teacher holding a bachelor’s degree;
- re-examine numerous teaching techniques and instructional strategies;
- develop extensive professional understanding and familiarity within the inductee’s scope of certification;
- synthesize various learning theories and study their application to different types of teaching and learning situation.



With clearly established and defined goals, induction programs are better positioned to be effective. Huling-Austin (1986) suggests that having induction goals ultimately present us with the desired results of

- improved teaching performance
- increased the retention of promising beginning teachers during the induction years
- promoting the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers
- satisfying mandated requirements related to induction and certification

In addition to induction, new teachers can benefit from more extended, in-depth and prolonged support offered through a mentoring relationship.

### Mentoring

Mentoring is an exercise of continual professional support and development. In teaching, concerns of beginning teachers concerns must be addressed from the professional, instructional and personal perspective (Enz, 1990). This will help the new teacher grow in knowledge with regard to understanding structural issues (“the hierarchy, rules and regulations, duties”), ensuring proper classroom management, usage of materials, and addressing individual concerns of novices (p. 69).

Mentoring requires that a collegial relationship be established between the mentor and protégé. Gehrke (1988, p. 45) urged that the mentor protégé relationship not be static but must provide opportunities for growth in a mutually beneficial fashion while the habits of learning and improvement are embraced. This relationship grows gradually and in stages. Dortch (2000) provided five stages for establishing a

mentoring relationship, a) helping the mentee grow, b) expanding opportunities for the mentee, c) learning together, d) investing in the future of the mentee, and e) trusting each other.

During the mentoring relationship and process, protégés develop and learn risk-taking behaviors, communication skills, political skills and specific professional skills that ultimately helped them strengthen their skills, develop and survive the circumstances and culture of their organizations and professions (Bova and Phillips, 1984). In order for the mentoring process to be meaningful and have an efficacious impact, those involved “must respect each other and trust each other; their relationship must be informal, interactive, and enduring” (Gehrke and Kay, 1984, p. 23). The mutual cooperation and the willingness of the parties to continue with this cannot be overemphasized, if it occurs otherwise, the contacts can result in negative and regrettable circumstances and experiences.

A serious commitment and willingness to impart skills are needed on the part of the mentors. Rowley (1999) asserted that the mentor should be a *bona fide* person with a degree of excellence and must be committed to the role of mentoring, accepting of the beginning teacher, skilled at providing instructional support, effective in different interpersonal contexts, a model of a continuous learner, and communicate hope and optimism. In addition, teachers selected to be mentors must have the “demonstrated competency in the classroom, of their knowledge of the teaching, learning, and developmental processes, and of their ability to offer emphatic support to other adults” (Odell, 1986, p. 27). The mentor must also be a teacher who is knowledgeable, ready to

offer support and advise on a range of issues including personal matters, and deal effectively with counseling issues (Hoffman, et al, 1986).

Portner (2002, p. 8) suggest that mentors must undertake to a) building and maintaining relationships with mentees based on mutual trust, respect, confidentiality, and professionalism; b) gathering, diagnosing, and using data about mentees' ways of teaching and learning; c) coaching mentees in ways that help them fine-tune their professional skills, enhance their grasp of subject matter, understand how students learn, locate, and use resources and expand their repertoire of teaching modalities; and d) weaning mentees away from dependence by guiding them through the process of reflecting on decisions and actions for themselves, and by encouraging them to construct their own informed teaching and learning approaches.

Joyce and Showers (1980 and 1982) provided several strategies through which the mentor protégé relationship can be facilitated. These are

- presenting the conceptual underpinnings for the particular teaching method to be used
- expert monitoring of simulated practice
- coaching for the improvement/perfection of repertoire.

Denmark and Podsen (2000) identified seven traits a mentor should have in order to make the desired impact for the novice. Mentors must understand their role as mentors and be willing to acquire expertise in this regard, initiate the relationship, establish a climate of peer support, model reflective teaching practices, apply and share effective classroom management strategies, encourage and nurture an appreciation of diversity, and embrace mentoring as an investment in professional development.

Mentoring programs have proven to hold substantial benefits. They reduce attrition rates and provide sustainability for school systems while teachers benefit from many growth activities designed to familiarize them with their respective schools and communities, and learn instructional techniques to be effective in subject matter presentation (Wong, 2002). These in turn, raise teacher confidence and quality, and the benefits to learners are great. New teacher's successes depend a great deal on professional development activities such as mentoring that are based in schools, actively supported by the principals, policy makers and administrators, and nurtured by their colleagues (Johnson and Kardos, 2002).

Consideration must be given to how the mentoring process will be implemented. Portner (2001) maintains that there ought to be clear stipulations about the mentor protégé relationship, guidelines on what the particular school system expectations are and undertake to evaluate the program for purposes of enhancing it. Schaffer (1992, p. 189) observed that novices need "time to develop the complex repertoires of behavior necessary to succeed in classrooms even when provided with unusually high levels of support and direct feedback." Gray and Gray (1982, p. 42) believe that if mentoring is planned and systematically infused in a teacher support program, "it can meet the specific needs of beginning teachers and provide increased professional satisfaction to mentors."

Cognizant of the time needed and the complexity of interactions in the mentoring process, Stansbury and Zimmerman (2000) proposed between low intensity and high intensity strategies as levels of consideration when giving specific mentoring support to new teachers. Low intensity strategies involve the orientation of teachers,

matching beginning and veteran teachers, allocating appropriate workload to new teachers and promoting collegial collaboration. High intensity strategies encompass selecting and training effective support providers, allowing new teachers release time to attend training, and offering short courses that focus on specific classroom aspects such as discipline, assessment and subject specific teaching. Veteran teachers can also do evaluations that can help make improvements in teaching and learning.

### Caveats

Huling-Austin (1986, p. 5) argued that both induction and mentoring programs can be undermined by permitting imposed guidelines to dominate and by emphasizing the technical aspects of the program rather than the total professional advancement of the teacher. Furthermore, poorly planned, carelessly structured and haphazardly implemented induction and mentoring programs could ultimately create a slew of new problems for the teaching profession. Lawson (1992, p. 163) identifies issues such as trying to do too much, contriving collegiality, fostering competition among teachers, increasing custodial orientations among teachers and failing to accommodate personal-developmental needs of teachers as some of the problems planner need to be aware of. Gray and Gray (1982, p. 42) caution that induction and mentoring programs are not carefully planned and tailored to the needs of stakeholders, they are

likely to become just another educational bandwagon that only complicates teachers' lives and add to their frustration and sense of futility.

## Examples of Induction and Mentoring Initiatives

One of the first official induction initiative to support new teachers in the U.S. school systems dates back to 1971 when the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater piloted a teacher induction project working with local schools and the state's Department of Public Instruction (Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986). The results of this program, retaining teachers and improving instruction, prompted other states' institutions and school districts undertaking to replicate and support such programs of their own.

By 1987, 16 states in the U.S. had legislation calling for orientation programs for teachers in their first years of teaching (Zimpher, 1988, p. 53). In the year 2000, 28 states mandated or funded induction programs, while 19 enacted legislations to require districts to provide induction programs for new teachers (Education Week, 2000, January 13, p. 56).

### The California Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BSTA)

The BSTA was created to provide professional support to new teachers and falls under the auspices of the California Department of Education and the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing. It was created after needs assessments and research were conducted by the California New Teacher Project (CNTP). CNTP reported that it was important to have induction (and other "support") in order to help new teachers improve teaching skills, reduce attrition and ensure that they find the profession rewarding and worthwhile.

BSTA has 145 programs in which school districts participate along with colleges and universities. The California Formative Assessment and Support System for Teachers is used as a basis for identifying areas in which the new teachers need assistance while a mentor/protégé relationship is established between experienced and novice. Mentors and relevant administrators are trained in the process to provide the best possible support for new teachers.

BSTA aims at:

- inducting and mentoring new teachers in California
- increasing student learning through the novice teacher
- improving the skills understanding of novice teachers with regard to diversity (cultural, linguistic, and academic)
- increasing retention of new teachers
- providing a quality education by enhancing the skills of new teachers through professional development
- training experienced teachers to gain relevant skills to become mentors.

While California has spent a substantial amount of money (\$104.6 million in 2001 fiscal year) it has managed to retain 93 percent of her new teachers. In addition, BSTA has helped facilitate professional contacts between new and veteran teachers. It has also provided new teachers with the necessary skills, assistance and confidence required in challenging education environments where quality and increased learning are emphasized (Olebe, Jackson and Danielson, 1999). Of equal importance, the program has made a significant impact on student learning (in classrooms) as the quality of teaching improved and has proven that the process is mutually beneficial, to the learners, mentee's and mentors alike.

### Kentucky Teacher Internship Program (KTRIP)

The Kentucky Teacher Internship Program is mandated by state legislation. It aims at assisting new teachers find solid support within their work environment, improve their teaching skills, and develop into competent professional teachers (Brennan, Thames, and Roberts, 1999). A committee consisting of a mentor teacher, a university representative and the school principal, are actively involved with the inductees through conferences. Formative and summative evaluations to document progress and areas of further support are done. The committee identifies potential pitfalls and areas that new teachers feel should be strengthened. Inductee's keep a "Professional Growth Plan" and participate in a university program if he/she identifies the need to upgrade skills in a specific subject area. The program has helped new teachers meet the required state certification standards and has received good reviews on retention and their professional growth.

### Arizona Teacher Residency Program (ATRP)

The Arizona Teacher Residency Program is a collaborative effort between the Arizona State University, colleges and public school districts. The goals of this program are to a) to provide and increase collegial support to new teachers, b) provide an opportunity for improving teaching and professional development (Enz, Anderson, Weber, Lawhead, 1992, p. 97). Mentors are proposed by school administrators upon having shown willingness and flexibility to work with and learn from new teachers. Confidentiality between the mentors and inductees is very crucial in this program. Mentors are veteran teachers who received training in a variety of teaching, evaluation



and observation techniques. They provide relevant information on district policies, procedures and expectations to inductees. A mentor reviews the professional, personal, and instructional aspects of teaching with the inductee. Together they focus on teaching plans and materials, classroom procedures, and interpersonal skills, and are expected to pass thirty competencies in these areas as set out in the Arizona Teacher Residency Instrument.

### Connecticut Beginning Educator Support and Training (BEST)

Connecticut's commitment to helping new teachers succeed and become full professionals started in the 1980's and became a model for many states that realized the potential link of investing in teacher development, quality education, and student learning and achievement. The state's legislature passed the Education Enhancement Act of 1986, raising teaching standards and providing higher salaries for teachers.

BEST mandates that every new teacher receive mentoring from an experienced teacher or a team of supporters. The support new teachers receive is both a) on-site (school-based) where they are exposed to a variety of teaching techniques to gain mastery in teaching and instruction, and b) state supported, whereby new teachers attend statewide seminars about BEST Portfolio requirements, and the Connecticut Common Core of Teaching. Optional opportunity for graduate studies also exists for participants.

Every teacher in the state must fulfill a set of requirements in order to be eligible for a teaching certificate. BEST offers the opportunity for new hires to meet these requirements. The program is offered for three years. Teacher's assessments are based

on videotaped lessons and portfolios in discipline specific areas that are reviewed by mentors.

### Other Promising Teacher Support Activities

Schools in various settings have followed innovative ways that have proven to be beneficial to teachers. Some of the school settings and what goes on inside, are influenced by the social and cultural environments in which they are situated. In Japan, teachers benefit from continuing professional development activities by constantly collaborating with their colleagues to strengthen their teaching abilities and professional contact. Teachers work in teams throughout the year to plan the curriculum and critique each others work in collaborative ways (Sato and MacLaughlin, 1992). Japanese teachers adopt a team teaching approach by combining classes to allow teachers the flexibility to practice a variety of teaching methods that are helpful to them and fit their preferred approaches to benefit learners' styles, abilities and capabilities (OECD, 1998).

New teachers in Japan are given preferential treatment of reduced teaching duties. School based training is arranged twice a week with mentors, and new teachers observe other schools and teachers. Schools employing new teachers get an extra teacher to support them (Darling-Hammond, & Cobb, 1995).

China has reversed the number of unqualified teachers from a staggering 53 percent to 12 per percent in over a decade through in-service training. Primarily, the professional support to educators is given to new teachers, those teachers rendering support, and those who take up new teaching post (UNESCO, 1997). In New Zealand, teachers only become registered after two years of teaching experience. New teachers

attend a full-fledged support program for two years that include support from fellow educators, opportunities to observe experienced teachers, collegial contacts through meetings, and the employing schools' receive financial incentives (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1995).

Allen and Cosby (2001, p. 93) stress that besides the fact that teachers ought be well paid, they must be treated like professionals and must thus be empowered with "professional discretion," included in the decision making process, "supported for risk taking," provided with an attractive package to the profession, supported for furthering qualifications, "increased collegiality," and have programs that are "institutionalized." Barth (1990) draws attention to the fact that there ought to be increased contacts amongst teachers in schools to facilitate learning and professionalism. All this can help in realizing better results and increased learning in schools and greater job satisfaction and better performance of teachers.

An issue warranting close scrutiny is the appraisal practices in the workplace and needs to be re-examined as it is geared toward judging the performance of individuals in question. Efforts directed at helping workers improve are mired in ancient authoritarian ways of laying the "sword" on the victim and finding a replacement or reprimanding him/her for non-performance as defined by the bureaucrats. However, contemporary attempts of professional development have moved away from punishment to objectively assessing the performance of individuals.

Out of desperation to train Namibian teachers after independence, Dwight Allen (2001) devised the "2+2" format that can be considered in various workplaces to improve individual performances and the work environment with positive relations.

This format operates by facilitating feedback among colleagues, both “senior” and “junior” peers. Two “compliments” and two “suggestions” are forwarded to each person. Avoiding dogmatic supervision that create negative circumstances, this format is intended to help individuals make progress with their work and approach to doing things. It recognizes that the individual is not perfect and there is indeed room for improvement amid the challenges. 2+2 is a non-punitive, non-judgmental, non-evaluative, criticism free way of attaining progress. What is most powerful about it is that the negativity prevalent in the workplace between ‘seniors’ and ‘juniors’ are done away with. It unleashes a lot of potential from within human beings and liberates the energy while allowing for natural positive growth. Educators can use this approach to help in each other’s growth within their own contexts. New teachers in particular can benefit by gaining greater confidence and appreciation in a new challenging environment.

A variety of alternative models for supporting teachers have been viewed as helpful. Andrews, Housego and Thomas (1992) examine the “school based” models (on-service, on-the-spot, and on-site), which are apparently cost-effective, time saving and more practical as they are focused on specific tasks and are on location. Other models include but are not limited to distance education (Nielsen and Tatto, 1991; Perraton, 2000), cascade model (Dove, 1986; Tatto, 1997), mobile models (Thomas, 1993). Undertakings such as these have undoubtedly help raise the standards of teaching with impressive but varying results. However, they have not focused special attention to the new teachers and their specific circumstances.

In light of the many programs and efforts being undertaken, UNESCO (1997) proposes wholly encompassing programs of professional teacher development rather than “piece-meal” efforts that contradict each other. It further suggests that in considering teacher development strategies, the following must be considered:

- teacher education as a complex phenomena
- implementation of teacher centered needs and demands
- promotion of collegial work, such as the notion of teacher mentors
- search for modalities that are best suited for particular circumstances
- expose teachers to innovative strategies that may advance new knowledge and teaching methods.

Ultimately, the goal of professional development for teachers should be to imbue them with the necessary skills that can help them deal with their daily challenges more effectively. This will prove to be beneficial to the entire learning environment while teachers create effective conditions for students to increase their performance. Perhaps the most important and fundamental goals of supporting teachers are to “increase learning aptitude” (Joyce & Showers, 1983), and augmenting the “mastery of academic skills, information and concepts” (Joyce & Showers, 1988).

### Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to detail the demand for new teachers, problems new teachers experience, and programs that assist new teachers succeed in teaching. Due to population growth and the retirement of veteran teachers, new teachers are needed in many education systems. New dimensions have added to the attrition of

teachers while districts struggle to put incentives in place to retain their teachers and impart on them new knowledge and skills at all costs.

New and creative models for supporting new teachers have garnered a great deal of interest from educators. Induction and mentoring programs are now widely viewed as having positive impacts on retention, improved repertoire of new teachers and increased collegiality. If implemented cautiously, these programs can be cost effective and hold benefits that are widespread for learners, novice and veteran teachers. Serious commitments of time and finances are needed if the programs are expected to be sustainable and effective.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used to carry out the study in two parts. The first part includes the research design to garner the necessary data to answer each of the four questions that guide this study. The design includes the procedures for collecting data, schools surveyed, data analysis, instruments used to obtain the data, and the subjects of the study. The second part details the specific steps undertaken to answer the four research questions that guide the study.

#### Research Approach

##### Schools Surveyed

The schools visited by the researcher are located in urban and rural areas of Namibia of the Windhoek education region. Urban areas in Namibia are most densely populated. Schools in urban areas are also considered by policymakers and parents to deliver a better quality education than their rural counterparts. As a result, many parents even those in rural areas, prefer to enroll their children in schools located in urban centers. The researcher extended this study to include teachers in rural areas, to capture differences in schools and perceptions of teachers.

In 2001, there were only 36 secondary schools in the Windhoek education region offering secondary school grades. Teachers in these schools amounted to 1179. In order to have a diverse representation of the historical set up of Namibian schools

and its geography, a purposeful stratified sampling method was used (Borg and Gall, 1989, pp. 224-225). From the 36 secondary schools, 11 were chosen for the study. 8 of the schools were located in the urban areas of which 3 were previously designated for blacks, 3 fell under the administration for coloreds and 2 under the former white administration. The remaining 3 schools were rural. The schools were chosen because of their accessibility and the researcher's familiarity with the principals and/or teachers.

It deserves mention however, that schools in Namibia are no longer classified by their former colonial categories. This is due to the fact that the Namibian constitution prohibits discrimination by race, color or creed. All these schools are now part of one administration. In reversal of the past apartheid policies and practices, students can be admitted to any school regardless of their race, and teachers are deployed to schools based on the need for their services.

Table 2

Data of Schools Surveyed in 2001

Location	School	Number of New Teachers	Number of Teachers	Number of Learners	Teacher/ Student Ratio
Urban	A	8	49	1100	22
	B	10	39	964	25
	C	8	36	760	21
	E	6	34	878	26
	F	12	50	1430	29
	H	6	38	800	21
	I	9	35	651	19
	J	7	36	800	22
Rural	D	9	18	300	16
	G	16	40	985	25
	K	19	41	980	24
<b>Total</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>416</b>	<b>9648</b>	<b>23</b>



## Former Black Schools

### School A

Situated on the outskirts of this African township, it is one of Namibia's oldest schools. For many decades, the school served as the epicenter of learning and intellectual advancement for many black Namibians. Before independence, the overwhelming majority of the faculty were white with the exception of one or two black members. Corporal punishment was strictly adhered to and was even used to punish learners who skipped classes or earned failing grades on tests and examinations. Currently, the school's faculty is overwhelmingly black with some formerly classified as colored. The school has only one poorly equipped science laboratory to properly cater for all science grades and a great number of learners are sharing textbooks. There seems to be a lack of classroom space as some of the classes were held in large open halls meant for other functions. Former students and some of the parents spoken to expressed deep concern about the future of the school in terms of quality teaching and learning, i.e., putting more emphasis on academics, hence graduate a greater number of learners who meet colleges and universities' admission criteria. These concerns seem to be justified. At the moment, few if any of the grade 12 graduates qualify to enter higher learning institutions in the country. Teachers were cooperative but were found to be less enthusiastic than the other schools about participating in the research.

## School B

Established in the late 1980s, this school is located in a predominantly African township and had earlier gained a good reputation for discipline and emphasis on learning. Compared to its counterparts, the school was also praised for graduating a higher number of students who proceeded for higher learning institutions. More than 90 percent of the faculty was black including the principal. All participants were also black. The teachers and the deputy principal were very helpful in coordinating the sessions and collecting the questionnaires.

## School J

Learners from within the township walk every day to and from the school. Teachers were eager to participate in the research, give information about education in general and how they view the changes in curriculum and policy. The group session for filling out the questionnaires was held in a science room with diagrams, pictures, maps, and a periodic table all neatly displayed on the walls. An interview was held in her classroom, which boasted impressive learning aids capturing main subject themes.

## Former Colored Schools

### School C

Located in the middle of the formerly colored township, it was observed that this school hosted an almost equal number of colored teachers and students alike. Most of

the black learners came from the nearby African township and walk a few kilometers to and from school daily.

#### School E

Situated in the middle of the former colored township, the school had an experienced principal whose strong leadership is quite evident. He made a special effort to personally organize a session for the researcher to meet the new teachers. From observation, half of the teachers were black and the other half were formerly classified as coloreds. 90 percent of the participants and most of the learners were observed to be black. The group sessions were held in the library which seemed to be better stocked with resources than other schools but still need to be upgraded.

#### School F

With the largest student population and teacher student ratio of 1:29, this school has a well qualified cadre of new and old teachers alike. The principal was very helpful when he was informed what the research was about and quickly scheduled a time for a group session with the new teachers and the researcher. All but 2 of the participants were black. From observation, however, the faculty was evenly constituted of black and colored teachers. The principal's emphasis on discipline, school dress code, and tidiness of the school environment were very evident and reflected on the school premises.

## Former White Schools

### School H

Established in one of the prime areas of the capital, all but one of School H's new teachers were black. From observation, most of the teachers were white and the student population is now predominantly African. The principal took interest in the study and availed herself for an informal discussion with the researcher. Tidiness of the school environment, the dress code and discipline were highly emphasized. Interviews were held in a science laboratory with intact equipments and relevant materials exhibited in a striking manner.

### School I

Under apartheid, the residential area in which this school is situated used to be exclusive for whites. By any standards, the school is well maintained with an infrastructure set up by the apartheid administration. With the lowest student teacher ratio of 1:16, it is the smallest of the high schools in the survey in the urban areas. The small capacity of the school is attributed to the number of white learners anticipated during the apartheid era.

## Rural Schools

### School D

Located in a remote setting, it is one of the high schools in Namibia which had been reputed for excellence, as it consistently maintained a rigorous curriculum throughout the years. The principal quickly understood the purpose of the research and encouraged the teachers to participate. He also expressed interest in knowing the results and impact of the research. This principal was one of the few who initiated induction and support teacher activities for his new faculty. Extra-curricular activities form part of the daily program and study sessions are organized in the after school hours. Therefore, it is not surprising that this school is reputed to graduate a higher number of students than its counterparts who qualify for admissions at tertiary institutions.

### School G

The reception by the deputy principal was very positive and he took responsibility to have the questionnaires distributed to the target group within the faculty. In this part of the country, the school was one of the first established under the Bantustan policies of South Africa. At its inception in the early 1970s, all but one of the teachers were white. At the time of the study, the faculty were all African. A majority of learners from the near and distant rural primary schools make their way to this high school. While the school is a long distance away from the nearby urban area, the host town is accessible from the urban areas by a main tarred highway which detours here. Evidently, at the time of the study, this road was of good quality

considering the decades of under-development in the area. However, the primary schools in this same geographic area are accessible through graveled roads, hence their peripheral involvement in new developments in education. Teachers here were in dire need of teaching and learning resources. They emphasized strongly the need to have access to and knowledge of technology to enhance their teaching skills. Most of the inhabitants of the town and the surrounding villages are dependent on subsistence farming.

#### School K

With good leadership and motivated teachers, this school has maintained a good reputation of teaching, learning and discipline. Almost half of the teachers fell in the category of new teachers as defined by the researcher. From observation and learning from teachers, the principal has been very supportive of his staff and instrumental in providing special support to the new faculty. Hence, the principal is one of the few (among those schools chosen for the research), who inducts and assign mentors for new teachers. Interviews for the research were held in the library of the school, which obviously had some useful resources. However, this library is in serious need of investment to boost its resources to make an impact on teacher performance and student learning. The area in which the school is located is economically deprived, as no new major economic activities have occurred for a prolonged period to help augment the livelihood of the inhabitants.

## Subjects

This study utilized as subjects of its investigation, 110 new secondary school teachers in the Namibian public school system, with a range of 6 months (first year) to five years teaching experience. In order to ensure that the researcher had an accurate view of the national support program, it was necessary to have teachers in their initial years (Year 1-5) of teaching reflect on the existence and helpfulness of the national support program.

The researcher concluded that the exclusive category of starting teachers (for example those with one year experience only) do not have the accumulated knowledge to accurately report the way in which the national support program was helpful. This is due to the fact that they may not have had the continuous support to reflect on what they had experienced in their first year. It was judged that teachers in their first year of teaching with up to 5 years of experience could reflect better on the support they received and determine if it were helpful. By combining the reporting of teachers with 6 months (first year) to 5 years teaching experience, a more complete composite of the national support program could be determined.

Sixty percent of the teachers were located in the urban schools while 40 percent were from rural schools (Figure 1). The teachers are graduates of either the University of Namibia or the four teacher colleges in Namibia. The new teachers are recipients of various Bachelor's degrees, the Post-Graduate Diploma in Education, the Higher Education Diploma and the Basic Education Teachers Diploma (BETD) (Figure 2). 54 percent were women and 46 percent were male. Participating teachers started teaching between 1996 and 2001 (Figure 3).

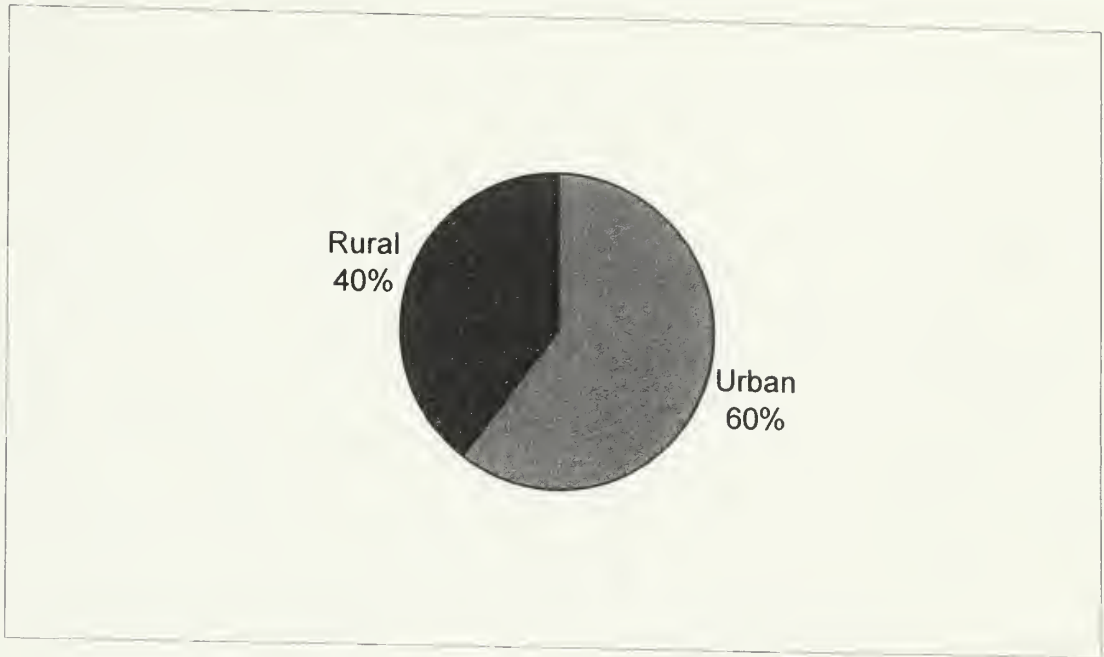


Figure 1: Location of Participants

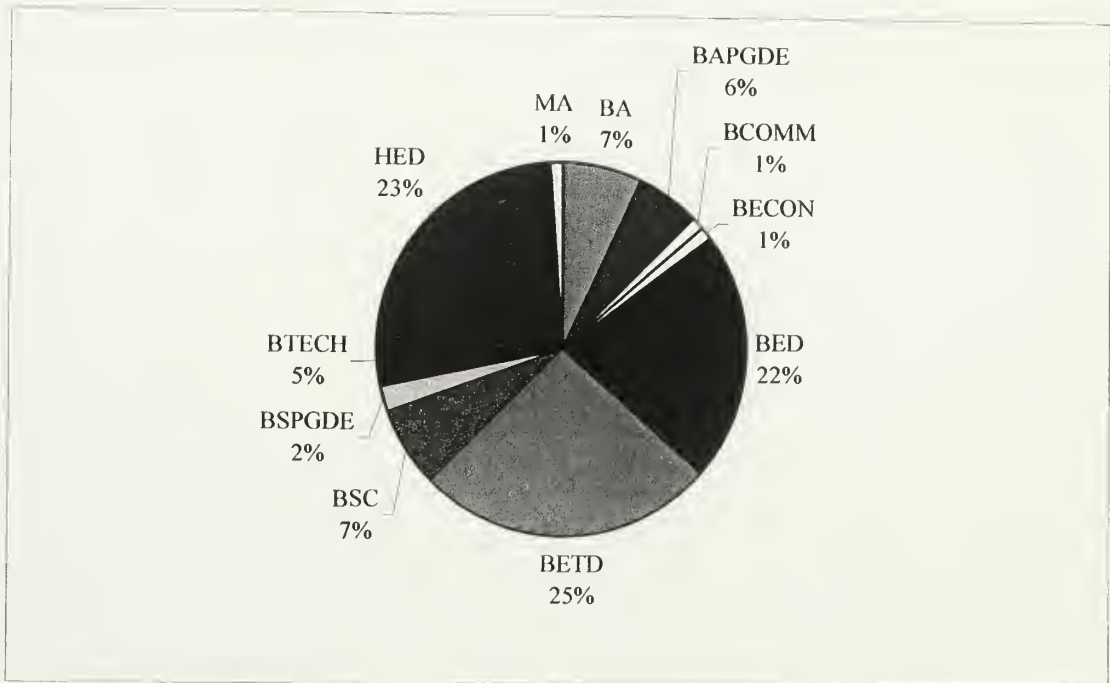


Figure 2: Qualifications of Participants



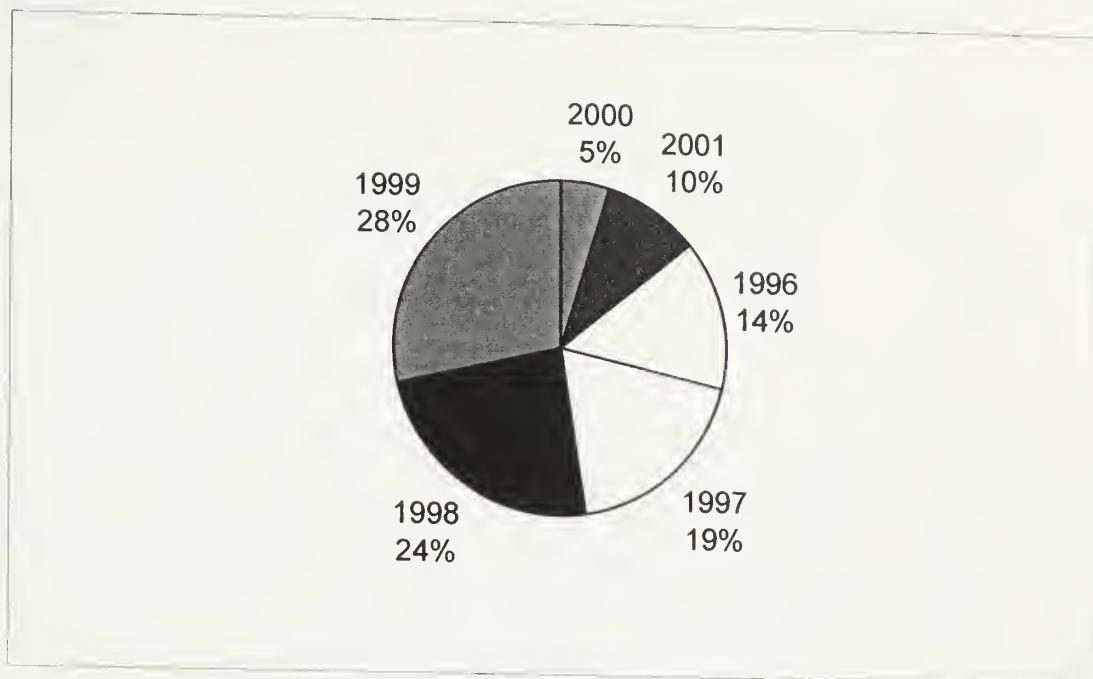


Figure 3: Teaching Experience of Participants \*Teachers Interviewed

Teacher 1. Teacher 1 started teaching at school F in 1998 after earning a Higher Education Diploma from the University of Namibia in 1997. He teaches mathematics and science to grades 11 and 12. At the time of the study, he was studying for a higher qualification with an institution in South Africa. Primarily, his concern is that of lack of opportunities further studies for teachers.

Teacher 2. Teacher 2 started teaching at school G in 1997 after earning a BETD in 1996. He teaches social sciences for grades 8 and 10. He eagerly wants to earn a higher qualification but that seems out of reach as he have to take leave without pay should he want to earn a Bachelors degree. The lack of teaching and learning resources, were his main concern.

Teacher 3. Teacher 3 is the holder of a Bachelors degree and a Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE). She started teaching in 1997 at school J. Her primary

concern was that teachers sometimes have to find all the information on policy, etc. by themselves and that there is no assistance available for teachers teaching specific grades.

Teacher 4. Teacher 4 teaches Life Science for 8, 9 and 10 since 2000 at school B. With a Bachelor of Education she was concerned about all the changes made in education without teachers getting a thorough explanation from the policy makers. She explained that this must be done in order to make teachers knowledgeable and give them much needed confidence.

Teacher 5. Teacher 5 earned a Bachelors degree and a PGDE at the University of Namibia. She started teaching Geography and History for grades 8 and 9 at school H in 1998. Her biggest expectation was that the more experienced teachers would not relay information to her when she started but managed to collect all the information on her own and that initially disappointed her.

Teacher 6. Teacher 6 is qualified with a Bachelors degree and PGDE. She started teaching Economics and Development Studies to grades 11 and 12 at school H in 1999. She expressed concern that the issues of discipline were not properly explained to teachers, as a result new teachers were not well prepared to deal with such issues.

Teacher 7. Teacher 7 started teaching in 2001 at school D. He was responsible for teaching Social Science to grades 10 and 11. His main concern was the lack of teaching and learning resources for learners. With the help of the principal who inducted him, he received sufficient support in most areas of teaching.

Teacher 8. Teacher 8 started teaching in 2001 at school K. He is qualified with a Bachelor of Arts and PGDE from the University of Namibia. He was one of the few teachers inducted by their principals and wished to have been properly prepared to handle issues of discipline with confidence. According to him, this issue was minimized by dealing with it through collaborative means teachers and principals put together.

Teacher 9. Teacher 9 qualified with a BETD and started teaching grades 9 and 10 at school K in 1999. At the time of the study, he was studying toward a Bachelors degree. The principal inducted him and continued to render support to him and his other new colleagues. He expressed a great need for increased teaching aids and learning materials.

Teacher 10. Teacher 10 earned a Bachelor of Science degree from the University of Namibia. She started teaching science course at school F in 2001. A big concern to her was that science laboratories needed a great deal of upgrading as this was a critical area in which learners were under-performing.

### Instruments

A survey was designed to collect the required data. The items on the survey were designed to obtain specific information about the five research questions. The Likert scale survey had closed questions, in which the subjects checked off the choice that best represented their viewpoints and experiences. Open-ended questions, in which the subject gave his/her opinion about the support program in his/her own words,

allowed the participants to express themselves more fully on issues of concern. These instruments were administered in person by the researcher at each participating school.

The researcher used two approaches to obtain information with the instruments. First, the principals of the schools were approached with the letter of permission from the Ministry of Education. After permission was granted by the principal, new teachers were asked to assemble during their break time to fill out the questionnaire handed out by the researcher. The researcher explained the purpose of the research and then allowed the participants to fill out the questionnaire. There was no restriction on how long they had to fill out the questionnaire. In cases where the researcher found it impossible to gather all the teachers at once, the questionnaires were handed to the principals or a designated teacher who then distributed and collected the responses on behalf of the researcher. Second, the interviews were held individually and privately during teachers' free time at the schools where teachers were located. The confidentiality rights of the participants were explained to the participants at all times during both the administration of the questionnaire and interview sessions.

### Data Collection

The researcher undertook two interrelated steps to collect the data. First, the researcher approached the Ministry of Education to obtain the relevant documents detailing the national support program. At the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED) which is responsible for professional development of teachers amongst other functions, the researcher was handed several documents for review. These documents included the Educator Development Support and individual reports by

participants who have worked on teacher development activities in the other education regions in Namibia.

Second, the researcher obtained the required permission from the Director: Windhoek Education Region in the Ministry of Education, to carry out the research in public schools located in this region. The researcher classified the schools as being rural or urban (Table 2). Thereafter, the principals of selected schools were contacted via telephone and in person to gain permission to conduct research in the schools. Demographic data on the schools, i.e., the number of faculty, number of new teachers, the student population and student/teacher ratios, were collected visits to the schools.

Third, survey questionnaires were administered by the researcher in person to sample population of new teachers who fit the definition of the study at each school. Fourth, the researcher conducted ten follow up interviews with individual teachers who filled out the questionnaire. All attempts were made to include new teachers from the participating schools as per the stratified sampling method described below. These interviews were facilitated to gain in-depth knowledge and to allow teachers to freely express themselves in their own words. Teachers were also asked to make recommendations on improving the national support program. Interviews lasted between 15 to 30 minutes and were audio recorded, transcribed, and analyzed per individual participant.

### Data Analysis

Three steps were undertaken to analyze the data. First, documents obtained were reviewed by the researcher and reported in Chapter 5 of this study. Additional

clarifications about the documents were sought by the researcher from an official at NIED. Second, the data obtained from the questionnaire were entered into an excel data base and disaggregated via the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) version 8.1. The Chi-square test was used to facilitate regression analysis on select variables where both predictive variables were found to be categorical. The Fisher's Exact Test was used if the expected cell count was less than five. Third, the open-ended questions were extracted directly and reported as expressed by teachers or in themes. Fourth, the researcher then analyzed the transcribed interviews. In order to be efficient, the researcher selected and reported the most compelling statements made by the individual participants which would support the research questions.

### Research Questions

The research design is organized and presented according to the research questions set forth in the purpose of the study. The steps taken to answer the research questions are detailed.

#### Research Question 1

What is the national program currently in place for supporting new teachers in Namibian secondary schools, so that they may learn skills to improve teaching and enhance student learning?

## Methodology

Three interrelated steps were undertaken to answer this question. First, the researcher analyzed the relevant policy document pertaining to teacher support, the Educator Development Support (EDS). Second, other relevant teacher support activities designed and implemented under the auspices of the Ministry of Education detailed in other reports were identified and analyzed. Third, participants of the study were asked to respond to a survey questionnaire (Appendix A, part 1). Part of the questionnaire seeks to determine the existence of a support program, as perceived by the new teachers. The researcher asked participants to respond to Likert scale open-ended items to indicate the answer that best represents their experience.

### Research Question 2

What kind of support for improving teaching and learning did new teachers receive during their initial years of teaching?

## Methodology

Two interrelated steps were undertaken to answer this question. First, the researcher administered a survey questionnaire, (Appendix A, part 1), and participants were asked to respond to Likert scale items, to represent their experiences and viewpoints. Second, the researcher held interviews with new teachers. The interviews were centered on capturing their perceptions of the existence of the support program in helping them improve teaching and enhancing student learning. The interviews were audio recorded, transcribed and analyzed separately.

### Research Question 3

What problems do these new teachers experience that they would like to be assisted with to improve their teaching skills?

#### Methodology

Two interrelated steps were undertaken to answer this question. First, the researcher administered a survey questionnaire, (Appendix A, part 2), and participants were asked to respond to Likert scale items, to represent their experience and viewpoint. Open-ended items provided the teachers with the opportunity to detail in writing some of the problems they experienced. Second, the researcher interviewed ten new teachers separately. The interviews discussed problems new teachers face and how they would like to be assisted in dealing with these issues. The discussions of each interview were audio recorded, transcribed, and analyzed separately.

### Research Question 4

In what ways can the national support program be improved in order to better meet the needs of beginning teachers?

#### Methodology

Two interrelated steps were undertaken to answer this question. First, the researcher administered a survey questionnaire, (Appendix A, part 3), and participants were asked to respond to Likert scale items to represent their experiences, viewpoints and suggest changes about the support program that may be helpful to them in



improving their teaching. Second, the researcher held interviews with new teachers. The interviews sought to gather data about how the current support program can be made more helpful to teachers. Data from the interviews were audio recorded, transcribed, and analyzed separately.

### Summary

This study was designed to garner the necessary information to answer the four research questions that guided the study. Permission was obtained from the education authority to collect the data needed for the research. The study utilized beginning and experienced teachers in 11 Namibian secondary schools. Data were collected by obtaining relevant documents on the teacher support program. A three-part survey questionnaire was also used to gather information from new teachers. 78 percent of the participants returned the questionnaire. Additionally, 10 interviews were held with select participants. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to disaggregate the data. The surveys that were not returned were those given to teachers to fill out outside of work on their own time because some could not attend the group sessions or some did not have enough time to fill out completely during the group sessions.

## CHAPTER 5

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### Introduction

This chapter describes the analysis of data and findings about the national support program and problems new teachers face. It also describes the features of a new national support program teachers recommended to help them improve teaching and enhance student learning.

#### Findings

The research findings are organized and presented according to the research questions set out in the purpose of the study.

#### The Existing Support Program

##### Research Question 1

What is the national program currently in place for supporting new teachers in Namibian secondary schools, so that they may learn skills to improve teaching and enhance student learning?

This question was analyzed in two parts. The first part examined the policy documents and the second part reported the findings of interviews and questionnaires.

## Part 1

The researcher analyzed the policy documents on teacher support issued by the Ministry of Education. The national support program for teachers entitled Educator Development and Support is now in its first phase of implementation (MEC, 1999). The division of Professional Development at the National Institute for Educational Development is charged with the responsibility of implementing this plan. The plan is divided in three phases.

Phase 1 (2000 to 2003). During this phase, it is envisaged that basic support tenets that will ensure the future success of this plan are implemented. These include gathering of information on teacher professional development in Namibia, promoting the resources to be used for the program, identifying permanent contact points in the education regions, appointing managers (key staff) to oversee the Educator Development Support (EDS) activities, and developing portfolios for these managers. It is proposed that teacher education colleges and other viable venues be identified to be used for EDS activities. The partnership between development agencies, NGOs, and other partners in education is supposed to be enhanced for effectiveness of EDS.

Phase 2 (2000-2007). In this phase, “upgrading of qualifications” is prioritized for teachers who do not yet have a teaching certificate. Apparently, a “minimum” standard for teaching, that being the completion of high school (grade 12) and a BETD (3 years), will be set. Boldly, the category of “unqualified” teachers shall be eliminated by the end of this phase. A basis for “continuing professional development” is supposed to be laid and linkages between the BETD (Preset and Inset) and the University of Namibia Center for External Studies (Unam-CES) have been established.

Phase 3 (2004-2010). Building on phase 2, an advanced “educator development support” program is envisioned to be fully operative providing a wide range of support based on the principles of “continuing professional development.” It is stated that “unqualified” teachers and “unqualified” school administrators are to be offered the option to fully “qualify” through the BETD at the Colleges of Education and UNAM-CES.

The latter’s support for new teachers over the past decade can best be described as sporadic and non-systematic. Prior to the design of this plan, teachers relied on loosely organized activities that were offered in the form of occasional supervision, workshops presented on short-term basis, individual visits to teacher resource centers, and efforts by teachers to upgrade their own qualifications.

An examination of other documents revealed that a support program has been instituted in the northern education regions of Namibia. The Basic Education Support (BES)<sup>1</sup> project has supported primary schools with technical expertise in the areas of supervision, materials development, English language skills, discipline and classroom management, curriculum and instructional skills, and building professional relationships amongst teachers (DuPlessis, 2000). This program has been reported to positively affect the classroom management skills and attitudes of teachers. Their teaching skills have improved and teachers are now able to better understand and implement the discipline policy (Carrigan, 2000). Although this program began five years before the design of the Educator Development Support, its effects on teachers are omitted here.

---

<sup>1</sup> BES project started in 1995 and is a collaboration between US Agency for International Development, the International Institute for Research and the National Institute for Educational Development. Peace Corps volunteer teacher trainers serve in four education regions (Ondangwa East and West, Kavango and Caprivi) and work closely with teachers and principals on issues of curriculum and instruction. By the end of 1999, 2151 teachers received in-service training under this program (DuPlessis, 2000).

The Ministry of Education does not recognize and incorporate the positive elements accomplished under BES. Such elements could well authenticate the future practices of support to teachers in Namibia and make EDS less theoretical and more practical.

## Part 2

The researcher analyzed the data provided by the respondents on the questionnaire. This section covers the specific factors the researcher looked at, which are induction, support teacher/mentor, curriculum support and teacher resource centers, and workshops arranged as part of the support program aimed at improving their teaching skills.

Information obtained and data analyzed indicate that the current support program is not specifically aimed at supporting new teachers but rather the entire cohort of the teaching profession. It lacks specific strategies in this approach. It does not help new teachers understand perennial policy and deal with classroom issues.

Induction. During the researcher's conversations with officials of the Ministry of Education, principals visited and new teachers, it appeared that the Ministry of Education has no formal induction program for new teachers in its professional development plan. Some schools have taken the initiative to start their own programs. Sixteen percent of new teachers responded that they had attended an induction session when they first started teaching, as opposed to the 84 percent who did not. Of the new teachers who had received some form of induction, most credited their school principals for having initiated those helpful induction activities. The researcher observed strong

leadership skills among those principals as well as concern about the progress and well-being of staff members, especially new teachers (see Figure 4).

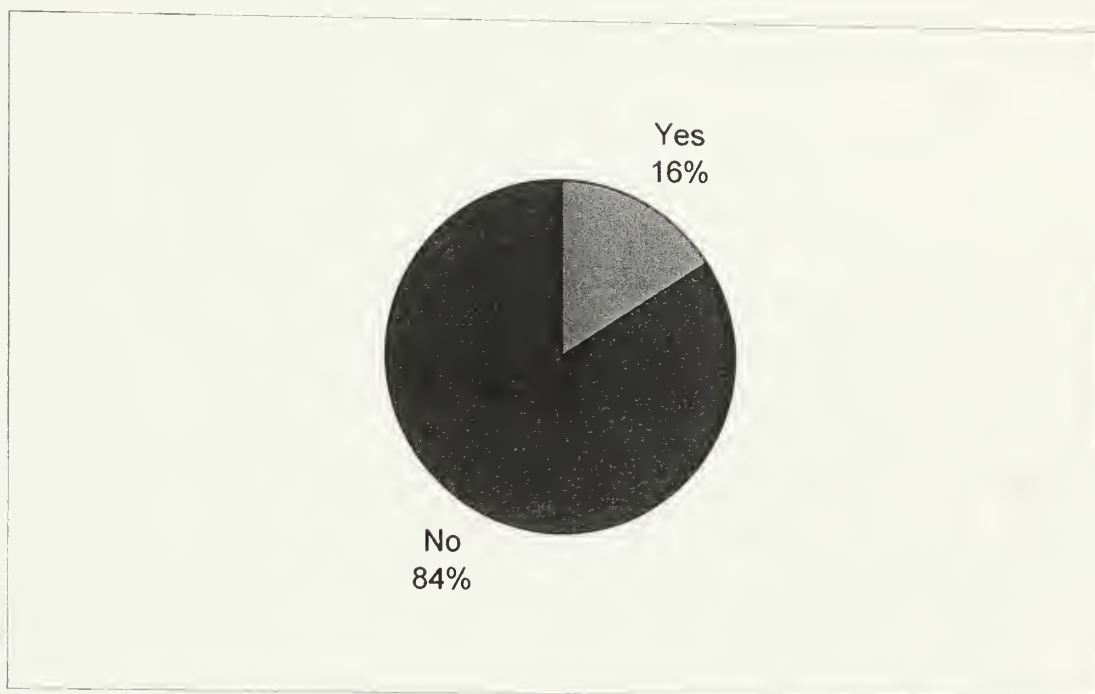


Figure 4: Teacher Induction

Support Teachers/Mentors. The Ministry of Education has no specific strategy for supporting teachers/mentors and does not officially assign veteran teachers to work with new teachers (Conversations with school principals and government officials and new teachers, May through August, 2001). However, more informal arrangements do exist. The researcher found that 35% of new teachers were assigned a support teacher while 65% were not assigned a support teacher. Once again, further analysis revealed that the principals played a key role in this specific support activity for new teachers.

Principals with strong leadership skills were more concerned about their new staff members and assigned veteran teachers to support their new colleagues. (See Figure 5.)

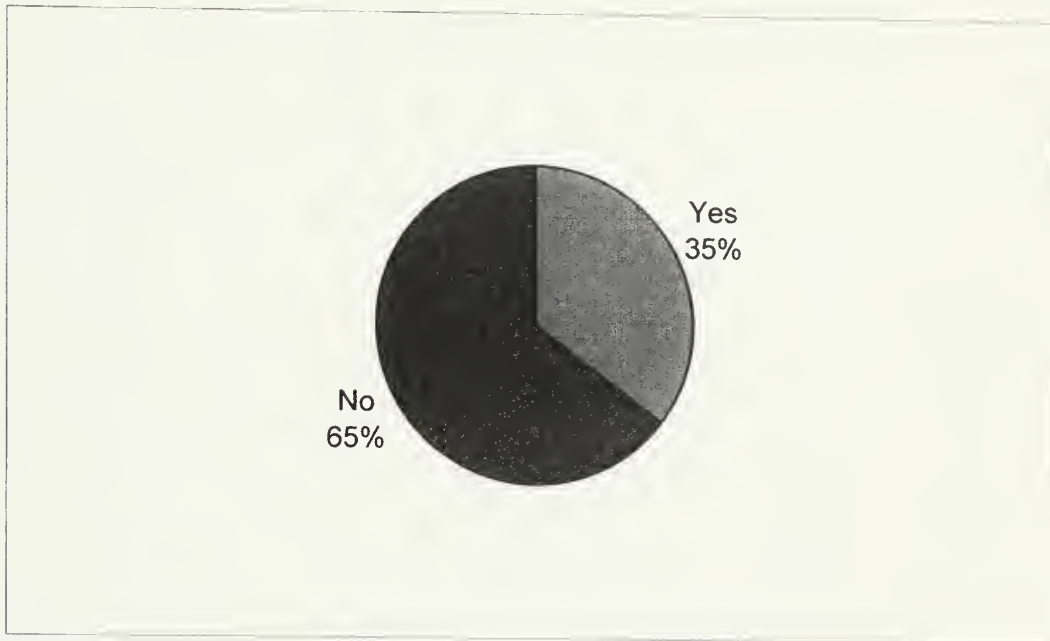


Figure 5: Support Teacher

Most new teachers were not assigned mentors, did not attend an induction program, and are receiving minimal support from the state after they start teaching. Still 63 percent of the respondents felt that the overall support they received from within the ranks of their colleagues was somewhat helpful. This is a clear indication that the experienced teachers are welcoming of their new colleagues but lack clear and official directives to offer the specific support needed by the new teachers.

Curriculum Support. The Ministry of Education had introduced a new curriculum, the Higher International General Certificate of Secondary Education (H/IGCSE). Still, many new teachers were not officially given the curriculum support

needed to carry out their teaching duties and make them more knowledgeable about this new curriculum to facilitate teaching and learning. 70 percent of new teachers did not receive support in teaching H/IGCSE curriculum (Figure 6). Indeed, numerous workshops were held to help new teachers understand the new H/IGCSE curriculum during the introductory period of this new effort. The University of Namibia and other organizations that are running independent projects extended their services to teachers to introduce this curriculum. Seemingly, these activities do not appear to have reached a sufficient number of teachers to be perceived as having been effective.

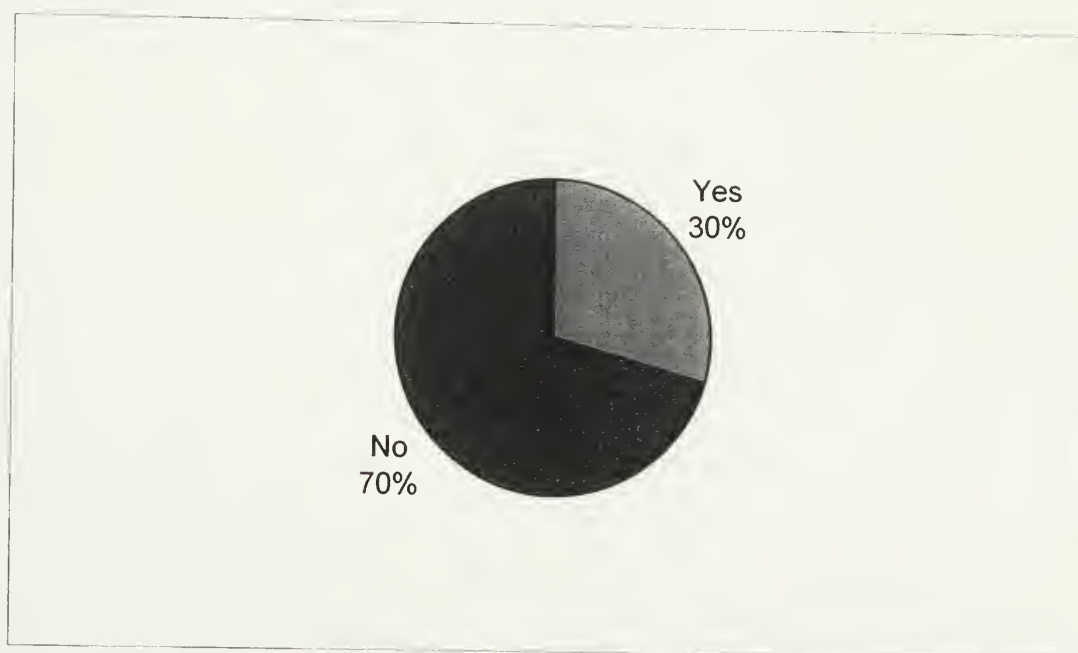


Figure 6: H/IGCSE Curriculum Support

Other Support. Workshops appear to be a major vehicle utilized by the Ministry of Education to help teachers. As part of its overall plan to enhance the professional development of its teaching force, the Ministry of Education offers a variety of



workshops on a regular basis. In fact, this appears to be one of the most widespread of activities that afford teachers an opportunity to refresh their knowledge and teaching skills. 60 percent of teachers indicated that they had attended at least one Ministry of Education sponsored workshop related to their teaching. These workshops were intended to give teachers new language skills, upgrade math and science skills, and provide other support in relatively short sessions. The P value for workshop attendance between the urban and rural teachers is shown as 0.1029 which indicates that there is no difference comparatively in the way this activity has reached out to teachers in both areas. In most cases, however, these workshops are held in urban areas and/or resource centers during school holidays. In the majority of cases when workshops are held during normal school terms, teachers are required to travel to where the workshops are being held. This causes reluctance on the part of the principals to release the teachers who might have benefited (Interviews with new teachers, 2001).

Another source for support is the Teacher Resource Centers. Shortly after independence, the government established several teacher resource centers (TRCs) around the country. These TRCs were intended to be an educational service to help teachers with acquiring teaching aids and other helpful resources for learning. 70 percent of the new teachers responded that they have been introduced to a TRC near their location. According to the research data of this study, 97 percent of these teachers found the resource centers to be somewhat helpful to very helpful to their teaching. In contrast to urban areas, there were no teacher resource centers in the visited rural areas. Teachers were only able to visit teacher resource centers they travel to the urban areas.

These resource centers can be particularly helpful in a country where teaching and learning resources are insufficient and can prove to be an effective tool. In comparing the introduction of new urban and rural teachers to the TRCs, the P value for chi-square is 0.87. This shows that there is no difference in exposure to the TRCs between urban and rural teachers at 95 percent confidence. Teachers in urban and rural areas are equally knowledgeable about the existence of these resource centers but are not equally likely to use them.

### Support Received by New Teachers

#### Research Question 2

What kind of support for improving teaching and learning did new teachers receive during their initial years of teaching? For Research Question 2, three related issues are discussed. They are: support received in general, support with discipline and other necessary support.

#### General Support

All the teachers interviewed and principals informally questioned were not aware of the existence of the Educator Development and Support program the ministry has initiated. This professional support program is in its first phase of implementation. The rudimentary knowledge teachers and principals have about this program, is testimony that the drafting of the document took place without full participation and consultation of the individuals it is going to impact. There is little doubt that it has not been circulated for teacher ideas and input.

It appeared that some schools initiated induction for new teachers. Most of the schools in this study did not have an induction program for their new teachers and the ministry does not have such plans in its program either. Specifically, the EDS does not stipulate strategies to help new teachers in their initial years of teaching. Almost all new teachers who were inducted credited this to the ingenuity of their principals. They found the induction to have been helpful in finding their “space” in the new settings. It appears that this is an activity that most new teachers would like to engage in and have instituted.

In some schools, new teachers are assigned a support teacher. New teachers can benefit from by being assisted by their veteran colleagues. There are already many activities and interactions that are taking place, but these are all at the initiative of individual schools. 35 percent of the respondents indicated that a support teacher was assigned to work with them. Of these, 53 percent found the support teacher to be very helpful and very knowledgeable. New teachers who were assigned a support teacher stipulated that their mentors were helpful in the following activities and tasks:

- lesson preparation, lesson presentation and syllabus interpretation
- constructing tests and examination questions
- approach to teaching H/GCSE curriculum
- classroom management and discipline
- creating and preparing own teaching aids
- specific areas of teaching such as mathematics and science.

The Ministry of Education can take these examples from schools that assigned support so that this activity can be formalized and developed with the assistance of teachers.

Since the introduction of the H/IGCSE curriculum, teachers, students, and the general public in Namibia have spoken openly that the ministry had to publicize the new curriculum. Also, the ministry had an obligation to comprehensively explain it for a broader understanding of teachers, parents and students. However, it appears that only a few teachers at the senior secondary schools attended workshops when the new curriculum was implemented. 70 percent of the respondents indicated that they did not receive any support in teaching the newly implemented H/IGCSE curriculum designed and administered by Cambridge University (Figure 6). In comparing rural and urban teachers on the support they received in this activity, the P value for the Chi-square is 0.28 which shows that there is no difference. Both rural and urban teachers equally did not benefit from curriculum support activities. The 30 percent that received support may also only indicate familiarity with it and not in-depth knowledge as such.

### Support with Discipline

The support program in place has not helped teachers with the issue of discipline. The biggest problem which perplexes all teachers in this study is that of learner discipline. Though quantitative data in this study indicate that teachers seem to be having control over their classroom, it is evident that most of the teachers are dismayed and discouraged by the disrespect and uncontrollable behavior that some learners display toward them. Since the constitution outlawed corporal punishment on which many teachers relied as a method to discipline learners, teachers were left wondering what to do with learners that violate the code of conduct. Though aware of the code of conduct, teachers were not given proper training in how to deal or structure

their school environments and classrooms against inappropriate behaviors exhibited by some of the learners. The lack of support for teachers in this regard has made the progress entirely ineffective.

Teachers surveyed were demoralized that substantive measures with regard to discipline are not appropriately implemented. They also lack the support needed in order to take appropriate action when learners misbehave or violate the code of conduct. It also deserves mention that most of Namibian teachers lack the ability to appropriately identify the needs of exceptional learners. Teachers therefore cannot deal effectively with the challenges they bring to the school, be it by gifted or challenged (mentally, physically or socially) learners.

#### Other Support

A majority of the teachers seem to have benefited from activities arranged in workshops. Sixty percent of the respondents indicated that they had attended workshops related to their teaching. Teachers that attended workshops, found them to have been helpful in:

- teaching the H/IGCSE curriculum
- addressing the syllabus and problems learners experience in the examination
- construction of tests and examination papers
- techniques in assessment
- lesson planning and preparation
- using teaching aids and media equipments
- subject knowledge and teaching methods

- constructing teaching aids the “easy way” and how to make a lesson exciting and interesting for learners
- learner centered teaching methods.

Teachers receive minimal assistance when trying to upgrade their qualifications. EDS support seems to be focused on the under-qualified and unqualified teachers only. 55 percent of the respondents indicated that they are upgrading their qualification. 44 of these teachers were upgrading qualifications through correspondence while 46 percent were doing it by distance learning. 98 percent of the respondents were found to be enthusiastic about attaining further qualifications. However, a recurring theme, which signifies their frustration with the system, is that they were not given sufficient “release time” and financial assistance for further studies. Currently, teachers are not fully benefiting from a study leave and there are no other attractive incentives and opportunities that can entice them to pursue another qualification except for a work grade promotion.

The teacher resource centers seem to be a very helpful tool for teachers in helping relevant materials and assistance in finding information pertaining to their subject matters, to help in improving their teaching and student learning. 70 of the respondents indicated that they have been introduced to TRCs situated nearby their teaching locations.

## Problems New Teachers Face

### Research Question 3

What problems do these new teachers experience that they would like to be assisted with to improve teaching and enhance student learning? For Research Question 3, five related issues are discussed. They are: availability of resources, classroom management/discipline issues, learner centered curriculum, the H/IGCSE curriculum, and additional and emerging problems.

In order to garner the perceptions of teachers by experience, the researcher divided the participants in this study in two groups, i.e. more experienced (Group 1) and less experienced (Group 2). Group 1 started teaching in 1996, 1997 and 1998, and made up 57 percent. Group 2 began their careers in 1999, 2000 and 2001, and made up 43 percent.

### Availability of Teaching and Learning Resources

The availability of teaching and learning resources is a major problem that interferes with the work of teachers on a daily basis. 74 percent of the teachers responded that the availability of teaching and learning resource and materials were a moderate to a major problem (Figure 7). This indicates then, that the extent of this problem is rather significant and severe, and deserves close attention and examination as it hinders the work of teachers in quest for quality teaching and learning.

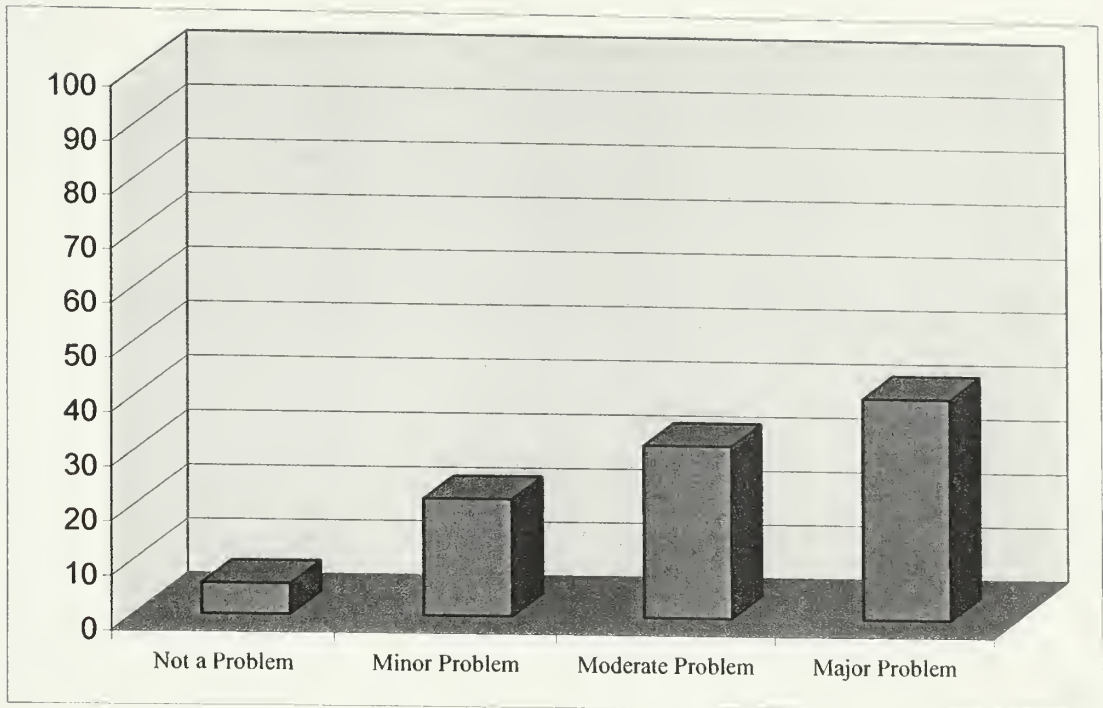


Figure 7: Availability of Resources

Historically, Namibia's education publishing industry has been well established (McCurry, 1997a, 1997b). However, the delivery of educational materials to schools continues to be totally inadequate even for urban areas that are easy to reach. Although this situation has improved somewhat since independence, many teachers and principals expressed that the abysmal delivery of textbooks, teaching and learning materials impedes their work greatly (Conversations with principals and teachers, May through August, 2001).

Besides the delivery issue, a close examination of the financial expenditure in this area was carried out. The Ministry of Education's (2002, p. 10) data on expenditure for "materials and supplies" to schools, indicates that it spent N\$49 348 100 million or 9.24 percent of the total appropriation for the ministry during the 1990/91 financial year. Further scrutiny of the available data shows that the allocation for materials and



supplies had considerably decreased to alarming levels over a decade. The expenditure for materials and supplies to schools was reported as N\$25 941 000 or 1.81 percent for the financial year 1998/99. This occurred despite the fact that the total appropriation for the ministry had increased threefold within the same period from N\$533,875,000 in 1990/91 to N\$1,434,976 000 in 1998/99 financial years.

Reduced funding in this area of education is a factor contributing directly to the lack of teaching and learning resources in Namibian schools. Considering that the population of learners in Namibian schools continued to increase every school year since independence in 1990, the shortage of resources for teaching and learning may also have been influenced by this negative trend.

Without proper teaching and learning resources teachers cannot proceed progressively with the learning activities in their classrooms. For this reason, the morale and performance of teachers and learners are negatively affected. One teacher captures the situation by stating:

the absence of textbooks and other reading materials is the most serious problem I have experienced since I started teaching two years ago. Sometimes learners have to “double-up” to read from a single textbook and at times this is also disturbing. If we are lucky some of the materials arrive in the last term of school, otherwise we simply do without. It is difficult to assign homework to these learners and expect them to reflect and participate in the next lesson.

Clearly, the academic progress, and the effectiveness of teaching and learning are severely curtailed by the lack of these crucial academic resources. For science teachers the situation is even more challenging as laboratories are not equipped with items such as chemicals. Teachers have to be innovative to make up for such shortages. Learners lacking the advantage of these items are more likely to learn and perform below

expected standards on their examinations, as it is extremely hard if not impossible, to conceptualize some scientific experiments only by theory without the benefit of full engagement.

Other factors compound this situation. When new textbooks are printed, the Ministry of Education considers the lifetime of these books to be 5 years. Yet, schools lack storage places, some of the books are lost over this period, and in some schools they have to make do with outdated textbooks whose contents are no longer relevant (Storeng, 2001, p. 93).

In attempting to determine the difference in resource availability and distribution in the urban and rural schools respectively, the chi-square was omitted due to the fact that 25 cells have expected counts less than 5. Therefore it may not be a valid test in this case. Instead, the Fisher's Exact Test showed a P value of 0.24 meaning that there is no difference. Teachers in both situations appear to perceive this equally as a predicament that hinders teaching and learning experiences.

Of the 43 percent of teachers who felt that the availability of resources was a major problem, 80 percent were less experienced (Group 2). Also, of the overall 31 percent who reported this to be a moderate problem, 64 percent were the more experienced while 36 percent were less experienced (Figure 8).

The data indicate that while this is a hindering factor in teaching for all teachers, more experienced teachers are able to better use their experiences to find and substitute teaching and learning resources for their subjects. It is conclusive that teaching experiences alone have helped teachers understand the magnitude of this problem and are able to better utilize their skills to make up for the absence of crucial learning

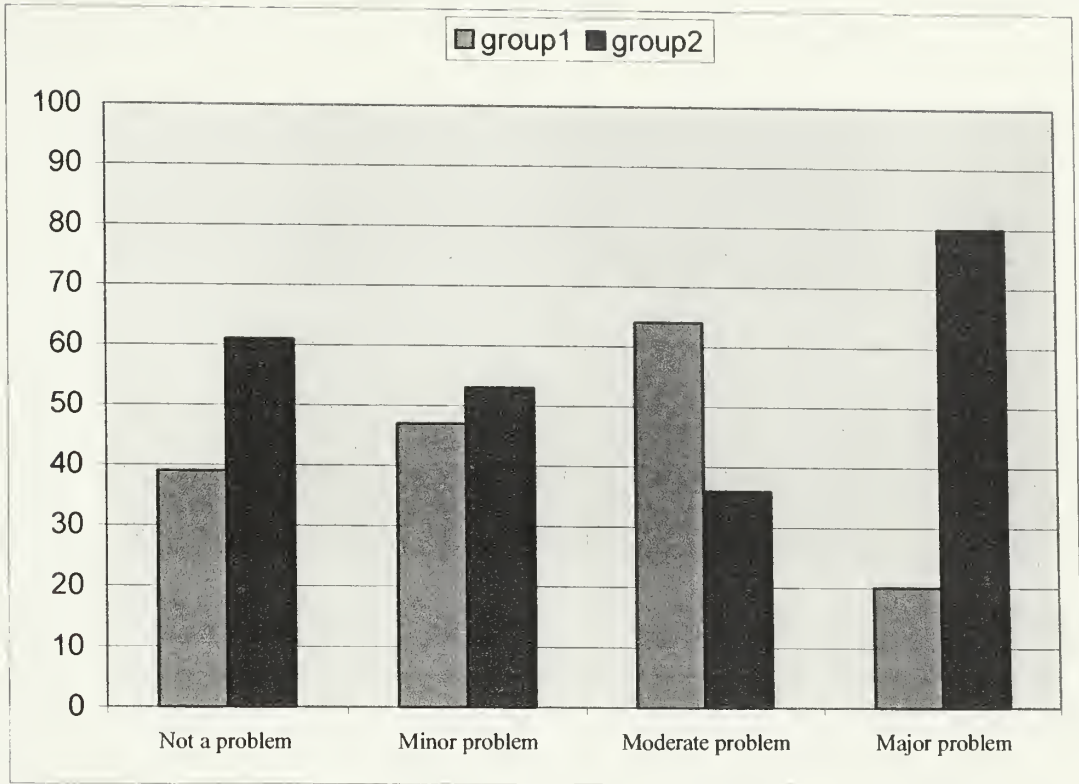


Figure 8: Availability of Resources by Experience

materials. Less experienced teachers on the other hand are severely struggling to find strategies to supplement the lack of teaching and learning resources.

### Classroom Management/Discipline Issues

Teachers expressed dismay about government policy on discipline. One teacher simply stated that schools must “expel ill disciplined learners who undermine teachers, exert bad influence over other learners and skip classes for no reason.” She went on to tell the story of a specific learner whom the school suspended and later expelled. This learner was later reinstated through the ministry. What teachers are mostly concerned

about is the inadequacy of the system to deal with such matters correctly and expediently. In the process of dealing with discipline matters, the ministry is sending the wrong message to the other learners that definitive action lacks on the part of the authority. This gives rise to more incidences of ill discipline amongst the unscrupulous group of learners.

Quantitatively, teachers' opinions on classroom management/discipline issues were almost evenly split. 31 percent of teachers indicated that they regard this matter as a moderate to a major problem. 32 percent thought it as a minor problem while 37 percent regarded it as not being a problem (Figure 9). This data shows that there are a significant number of teachers who need assistance in classroom management and on how to handle disruptive and ill disciplined learners, so that they may be able to teach their classrooms with desirable order.

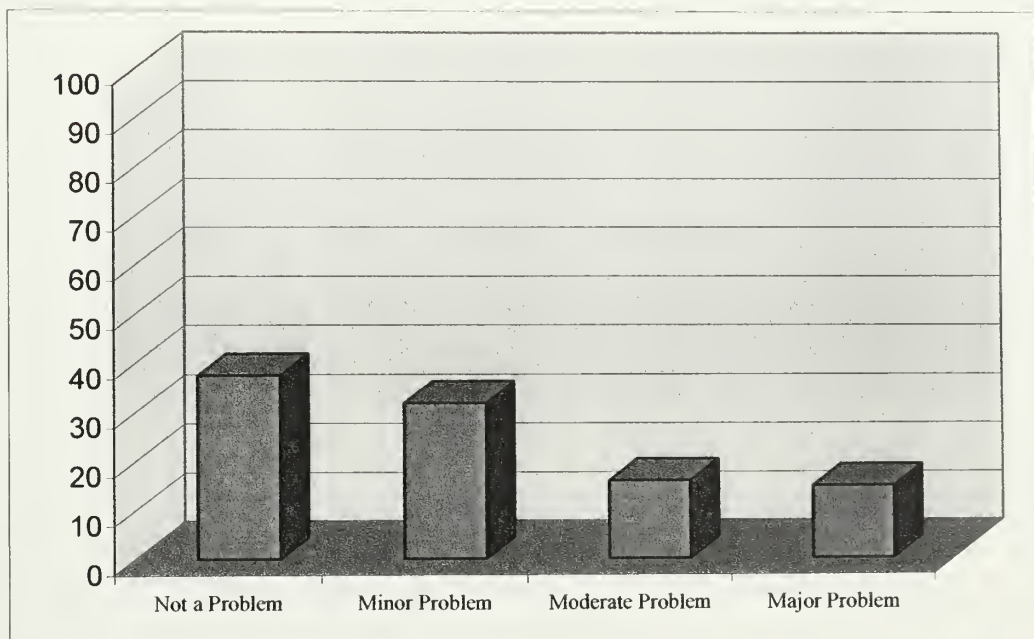


Figure 9: Classroom Management/Discipline Issues

Of the 15 percent of teachers who felt classroom management/discipline issues was a major problem, 61 percent were from the more experienced group. Of the 16 percent that indicated this to be a moderate problem, 64 percent of the teachers were the less experienced group (Figure 10). The differences between these two groups of teachers with regard to the two categories (moderate and major problem) is that more experienced teachers (as a result of their age), are removed from the adolescent culture and unable to accept the behavior of younger people as they regard it as deviant. Meanwhile, younger teachers may easily understand or associate with the young adult better. However, since the data between the two groups are almost evenly split in the two categories on the Likert scale, it is concluded that overall both groups of teachers regard this particular issue with similar perceptions as troublesome.

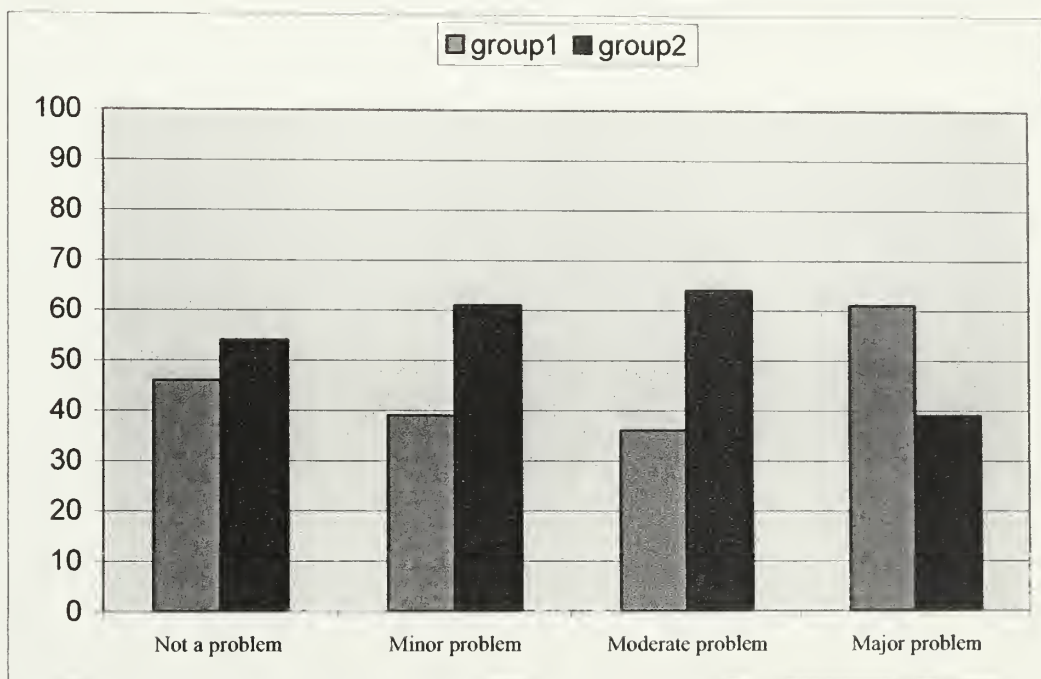


Figure 10: Classroom Management/Discipline Issues by Experience

## Learner-Centered Curriculum

For political and instructional reasons, most teachers in Namibia welcome this new approach to teaching and learning (Storeng, 2001, pp. 101-103). It is therefore not surprising that the learner-centered education does not seem to be a major problem for many new teachers in this study. 55 percent of the respondents indicated that teaching a learner centered curriculum is not a problem while only 15 percent felt it was a major problem (Figure 11). In investigating the difference in response between the recipients of the BETD (Group A) and the other qualifications (Group B), the P value is 0.001, indicating there is a difference. Group A showed a degree of understanding and comfort while Group B showed significant difficulties in teaching and implementing a learner centered curriculum. The researcher concludes that this difference is as a result of the preparation of teachers at the teacher colleges and the university. The BETD preparation makes this approach central to student teacher theory and practice. Therefore, they experienced fewer difficulties in understanding and implementing a learner centered curriculum. Group B, who are mostly graduates of the university, are seriously challenged by this approach. Their preparation is not geared toward giving them the appropriate skills in this regard.

Five percent of teachers identified learner centered education as a major problem. All these teachers belonged to the more experienced group. Of the 10 percent who felt it was a moderate problem, 89 percent were the less experienced group and the remaining 11 percent were more experienced (Figure 12). The data indicates that there are numerous teachers in both groups who need assistance to carry out the task of a learner-centered education. Judging by the overall response given to this issue,

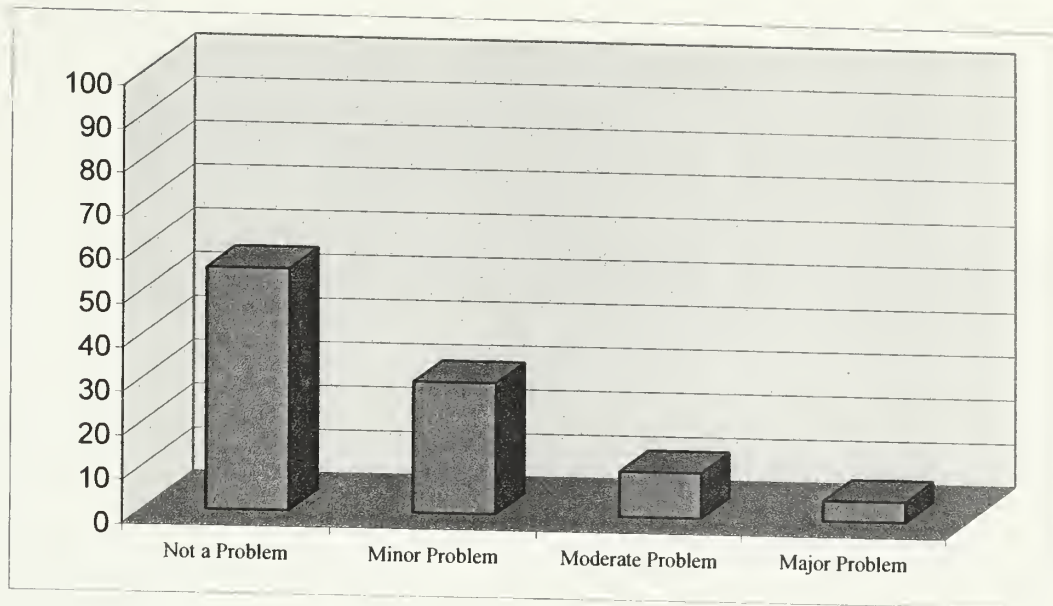


Figure 11: Learner-Centered Curriculum

learner-centered education seem not be a problem for most teachers. The conundrum about learner-centered education is whether or not teachers are appropriately implementing learner-centered methodologies once the classroom doors close and all classroom activities are left to the teachers to carry into effect. The following expression from one of the new teachers speaks best to this issue

In my whole schooling career, I was educated under the teacher-centered curriculum. My training as a teacher followed the same pattern. I like this idea of learner-centeredness, though at this secondary level there isn't much emphasis on it. I try to do the best I can to incorporate some of the 'ice' practices that I have heard about and came across.

Clearly, not all teachers understand learner-centered education but some at best attempt to put this method to work even with the lack of training and assistance required. It appears that more experienced teachers have the most difficulties with this approach.

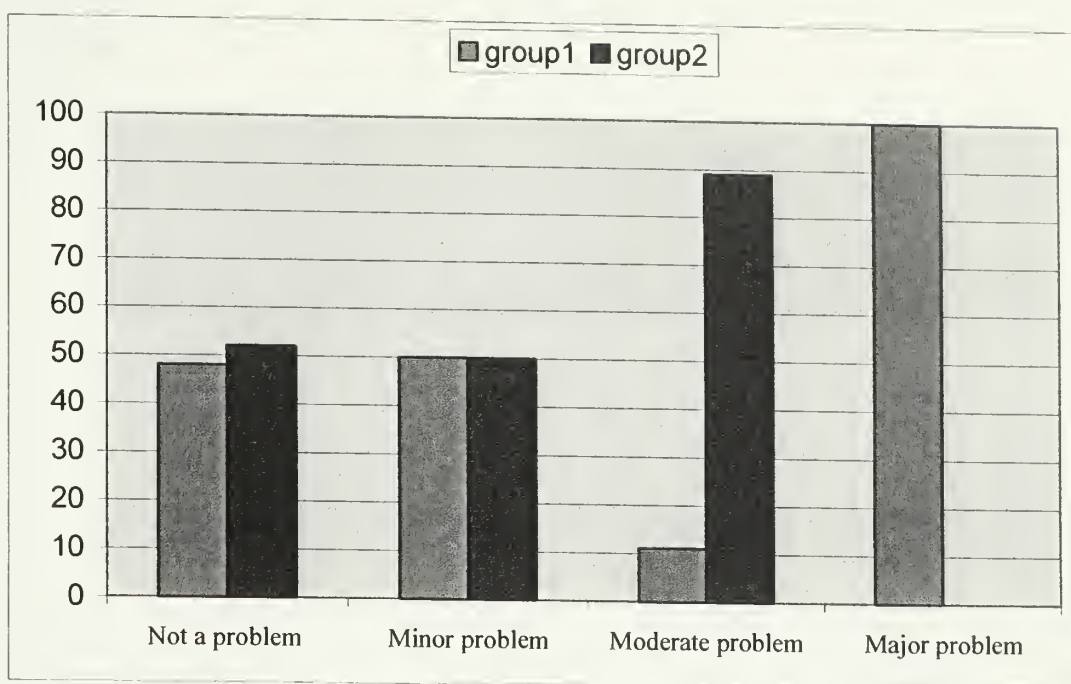


Figure 12: Learner-Centered Curriculum by Experience

### H/IGCSE Curriculum

Data obtained in this study indicate that teachers are experiencing least problems with this newly introduced curriculum. However, in their responses to the open ended questions, many teachers frequently mentioned the H/IGCSE curriculum as a task that presents teaching and learning predicaments. It came to light then, that teachers teaching junior secondary classes (Grades 8-10) were not required to teach and present this curriculum. Their college preparation only made it possible for them to teach at the junior secondary school level. While this might be the prescribed norm, there is a possibility that in schools where there are shortages of teachers at the senior secondary level (Grades 11 and 12), teachers that qualified for junior secondary teaching are teaching at the senior level. This might be a challenging undertaking to these teachers,



hence the affirmation that H/IGCSE is an impediment in their teaching tasks (see Figure 13).

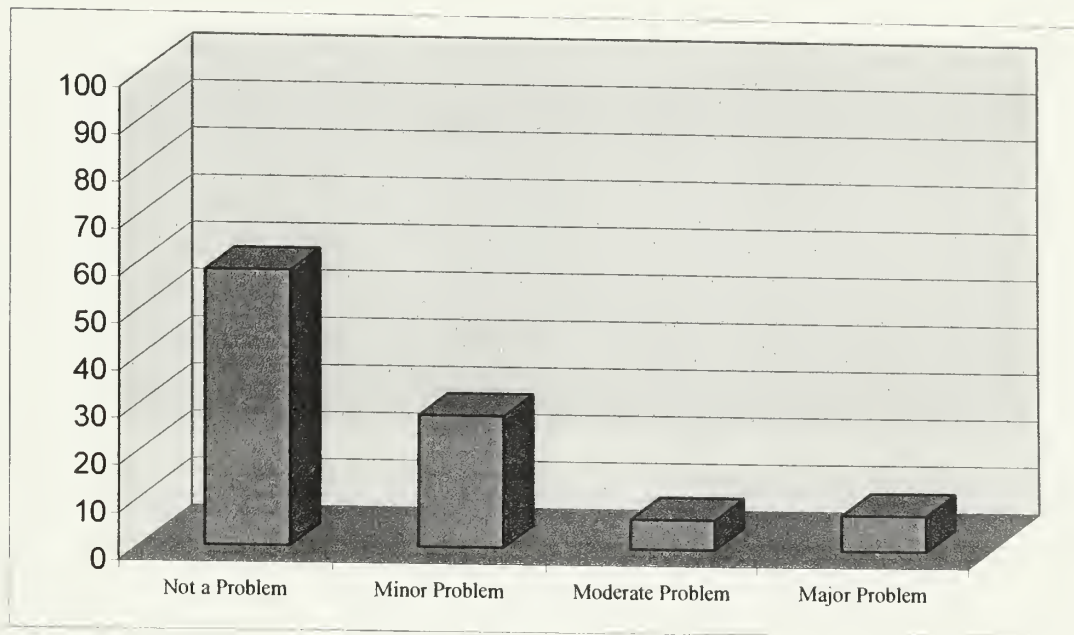


Figure 13: H/IGCSE Curriculum

Further disaggregation of the data showed that the most significant difference between less experienced and more experienced teachers fell within the Likert scale's moderate problem category, hence the 12 percent response. Of this 12 percent, 80 percent are less experienced and 20 percent more experienced (Figure 14). The researcher concluded that this response confirms the fact that more experienced teachers are utilizing their skills to cope and maneuver with this new demand while the less experienced need greater assistance to understand and implement this curriculum.

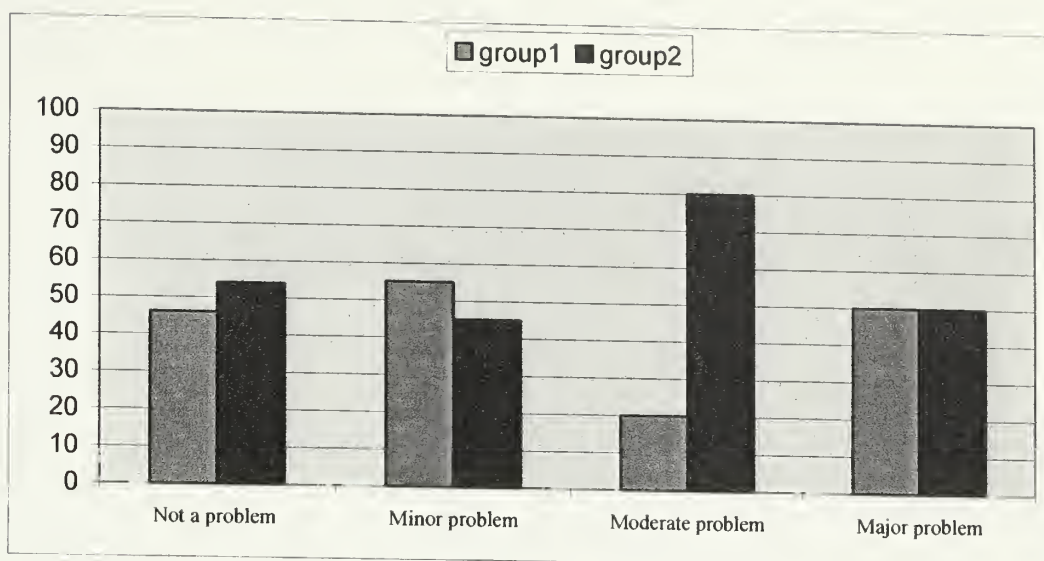


Figure 14: H/IGCSE Curriculum by Experience

These results are contrary to the notion that the less experienced teachers are more familiar and as a result understand this curriculum better, since some of them were taught under it and took external examinations of this curriculum. The teaching experience rather the familiarity with it was the biggest difference for these two groups. Experience then, served as a beneficial aspect in teaching and implementing this curriculum.

#### Additional and Emerging Problems

This section details the additional and emerging problems teachers felt strongly about as expressed in the open-ended questions and during the interviews.

In their responses to the open ended questions, teachers returned to the availability of resources and materials, and classroom management/discipline issues as recurring problems. In addition, they indicated other teaching tasks in which they

experience problems and need further support. The following concerns were raised as problematic issues for teachers:

- finding additional teaching resources and materials;
- the learner centered curriculum (raised by many who had difficulties);
- the H/IGCSE curriculum and examinations;
- more library resources to meet the needs of learners;
- subject advising;
- designing own teaching aids or using audio visuals (in the absence of libraries and other supplemental materials).

The scope of problematic teaching tasks covered by the list above suggest that these factors hinder on new teachers' efforts to be effective in teaching. While much blame on the integrity of the education system has been leveled on teacher performance, poor learner outcomes can also be attributed to the list of problems stated above. The learner-centered approach seemed to be presenting problems to some teachers as one of them remarked "giving group work to learners is very impossible because of the high number of learners in one class." Some of the teachers still harbor opinions that learner centeredness can solely be achieved through group work. This problem is compounded by excess number of learners in certain schools. In these cases, student teacher ratios remain high, and teachers do not quite know how to handle these types of situations, let alone implement learning activities for learner centered classrooms.

Another teacher demanded that knowledgeable people be assigned "to explain the whole Cambridge system to teachers regarding expectations, standards, marking system, etc." Seemingly, government hasn't done enough to explain this system clearly

to teachers and teachers are lacking in knowledge and expertise in this curriculum. This issue has been at the core of education reform in Namibia. As essential as it is to teachers, many complaints by teachers are echoed on a continuing basis.

Namibian teachers are also confronted with the issue of integration of schools. In my observations from this study, it seemed clear that support from the principal was essential in supporting new teachers at integrated schools. Amongst some of the schools the researcher visited, were those that were only recently integrated. In these particular locations, new teachers who happened to be black did not feel particularly supported by their principals. Teachers mentioned that the principals were too autocratic and selective about whom they were supporting. This preferential treatment left some teachers feeling isolated and discriminated against and the principals communicated only with individuals of similar racial groups. In these cases too, new teachers were not receiving appropriate guidance from the principals nor from the heads of departments. One teacher mentioned bluntly, that “support from the principals was a major problem ... there was none.” A lack of dissemination of information coming from the government remained a serious concern as the leaders failed to relay directives to their subordinates. Another teacher remarked “information never reach teachers easily” whilst teachers are kept misinformed and “in the dark” regarding matters that affect them.

In these situations, apprehensiveness was rampant. This is due to the fact that the hierarchy becomes difficult to deal with and issues of this nature become discouraging. For some, they have lost total confidence in the leadership. A new teacher expressed her sentiment by stating:

I do not have much trust in my subject head, because he does not follow up a problem. I always have to inquire and do things on my own. And by the way, just forget the principal.

In other instances where there is also lack of strong leadership and direction, old and new teachers remained separated. A new teacher remarked/expressed that:

I do not have confidence in my department head nor in my principal. The subject advisors and principals only come here to inspect and impose authority rather than engaging us in new teaching strategies and how we can solve discipline problems.

Some principals are unable to integrate new teachers properly in the old establishment. Consequently, new teachers are ‘navigating’ on their own in an attempt to find comfort in their new settings. This problem is exacerbated by the age factor. A striking example is that of one young teacher who ostensibly seemed frustrated by the “old network.” She angrily remarked “some teachers are very old, 40+, and they treat me like a child in the way they talk to me and the way they treat me in respect to the older teachers.” The feeling of isolation was quite evident among some of the new teachers. Hence, they found it extremely difficult to integrate as this teacher rightly pointed out:

... as a new teacher I found that there were already groups established among the staff and it was difficult to fit in. Sometimes that makes one unhappy and eventually influence your outcome and performance.

This sentiment was also reflected by other teachers in the following expression:

It is difficult to really make ‘friends’ with those who came before me ... they have already formed their own groups. Although they are friendly and somehow supportive, one would still feel like an outcast and regarded as an intruder if you are to join the little group.

The prevalence of such circumstances, are evidently highly discouraging and frustrating to these new and young teachers. They enter the profession enthusiastically only to be faced with resistance from experienced counterparts.

There seem to be an absence of procedure when it comes to appraising the work teachers have done in the schools. It was also mentioned by numerous teachers in our conversations and interviews that it is difficult to get recognition for work done. As this can lead to promotion, teachers anticipate notice to this effect. Many teachers expressed dismay at the way the ministry, principals and head of departments recognized the extra efforts they make in classes in particular, and on extra-curricular activities and campus in general.

Finally, teachers are finding it extremely hard to further their education. Evidently, there are no credible plans on the part of the Ministry of Education to upgrade the skills of teachers currently in the system. Though the EDS makes provisions about upgrading qualifications, teachers expressed frustrations at the lack of opportunities to study above their current levels, (BETD for example). They mentioned that it is impossible and at the very least extremely difficult to get a leave of absence from their principals and the directors of education regions to upgrade their qualifications. There are also no bursaries available nor are there any financial incentives to undertake further studies; a cause which proves impossible without money.

A new problem seems to have emerged with the introduction of a four years Bachelor of Education degree by the University of Namibia. Teachers who earned this degree expressed concern that they were not placed at the right pay scale. This is

because only three years of their degree are recognized by the Namibia Qualifications Authority, hence the ministry's decision. Also teachers who earned their Bachelor of Agriculture degree are evaluated to have qualifications equal to a Grade 12 certificate plus 3 years of experience. For some reason, their credentials are not fully recognized. The ministry apparently requires these teachers to obtain further qualifications in teaching in order to get their full "status" as teachers and be compensated accordingly. These particular teachers were very unhappy about this situation as it puts them in precarious position. They desire to remain in the profession. Since teachers in the sciences are extremely scarce in Namibia, this decision by the ministry seems irresponsible at best especially. It is a major problem that could lead these well qualified teachers to part ways with teaching as they can easily be attracted to take up other employment opportunities in their field.

## Improving the National Support Program

### Research Question 4

In what ways can the national support program be improved in order to better meet the needs of beginning teachers? For Research Question 4, five related issues are discussed. They are: induction and mentoring, teaching and learning resources, access to knowledge, decision making and workshop sessions.

### Induction and Mentoring

The first days of school can be difficult for many new teachers. Certainly, beginning experiences are what can make or break a teacher in a school or the rest of

his/her career. Providing ongoing support to new teachers may help improve teaching and enhance student learning. The novice teachers continue to learn new skills and ideas that are vital for implementation in the classroom. New teachers viewed mentors as a critical aspect to being supported. Teachers favored overwhelmingly by 93 percent of having a support teacher. Consequently, both induction and mentoring are pertinent areas for consideration support program when preparing a support program for the novice and must not be overlooked.

## Discipline

Classroom discipline utilized in an effective manner is indispensable to effective teaching and learning. A majority of the teachers, 94 percent, considered it very important for the new support program to help them deal with classroom discipline and management. Since the constitution outlawed corporal punishment, many teachers considered the current generation of students as problematic and as having serious problems in applying themselves to the discipline of learning. It cannot be overstated that new teachers in particular ought to be imbued with the skills to deal with disruptive behavior. This behavior exhibited by of unscrupulous learners may hinder classroom learning and teaching. 82 percent of teachers recommended that this issue be addressed by the support program, as disruptive behavior of learners can be a serious obstacle to teacher performance and student learning.

Referring to the lack of discipline among learners in schools one rural teacher in the interview rightly stated that:



Government should undertake tours all around the country to different schools and classes to observe the learner teacher relationships, ... and monitor the behavior of learners. As teachers we have run out of ideas on how to cope with ill disciplined learners ... we need some assistance from the government to make our working environment more bearable.

This statement aptly describes the distant relationship between policy makers and teachers and schools. Teachers need a lot more help with matters related to discipline and must be made a priority of the support program. Teacher skills in classroom management and handling discipline issues, are necessary to help deal with disruptive behavior, and bullying and control the environment to be more receptive for learning, and eliminated student apathy.

#### Teaching and Learning Resources

In order to strengthen their teaching skills and performance in the classrooms and schools teachers recommended unanimously that the government ensure the timely delivery of learning materials, textbooks and other instructional materials. This issue seems to have chronically inhibited the work of teachers. The low learner performance on tests and examinations are good indicators of how severely learning is affected.

Namibia is a country not privileged with abundance of learning and teaching resources. Libraries are not well equipped and teachers have to travel long distances before they can reach a Teacher Resource Centers (TRCs). The new support program must consider having Teacher Resource Centers located nearby the schools. Teachers surveyed, approved of this idea overwhelmingly. It is evident that TRCs serve as an important activity for many teachers needing teaching and learning aids for their lesson preparations and presentations. In the absence of good libraries and abundance of

learning resources and other necessary supplementary resource materials within schools, TRCs can help enhance the work of teachers.

### Access to Knowledge

It is important to note that the teachers the researcher contacted were very eager young minds who were 'thirsty' for new knowledge and energetic in their work. It was thus not surprising that 94 percent of new teachers recommended the new support program to include components that will help them strengthen their teaching skills and knowledge in the H/IGCSE curriculum. Very few teachers received proper training in this newly introduced curriculum for Namibian schools. The new support program should consider devoting considerable attention, time and effort to help teachers understand the curriculum better. This is so that teachers can implement the syllabuses and lesson plans in a more effective way and prepare learners for the challenges of these examinations.

In a rapidly changing environment, most of these teachers were exposed to many new developments such as technology and television that made them aware of innovations and better ways to do things. 95 percent of these new teachers wanted to learn new teaching strategies and 94 percent favored learning new subject content knowledge. Hence, it will be helpful if these aspects were included in the new program. 82 percent of teachers favored as very important the teaching dimension of getting feedback and suggestions from fellow teachers to improve teaching. 92 percent also approved of exchanging ideas and knowledge with experienced teachers. Increased

collegiality will be beneficial if it is considered a high priority when contemplating this support program.

Another important issue that teachers support overwhelmingly is that of obtaining better qualifications. The new support program could make financial incentives available for teachers enrolled in courses at institutions of higher learning. In addition, teachers also demanded that other opportunities for gaining further knowledge and upgrading their education be created. One such opportunity was 'release time' from teaching to enroll for a degree or diploma. This will enable them to finish their studies without interference or delay.

In light of this, regular in-service training workshops and sessions could play a crucial role. Teachers overwhelmingly support the idea that the new program continues with this provision. Workshops are a cost effective way of enriching the skills and knowledge of teachers. They must be strengthened to keep up with the demands in upgrading teaching skills in specific subjects. Thus far, workshops have proven to be but one significant training opportunity for helping teachers improve their teaching. Still, they are short-lived and their activities are not sustained. Workshop trainings do not translate into any recognized qualifications for teachers, and thus cannot replace other formal qualification training that issue formal certificates accredited by the Namibia Qualifications Authority.

## Decision Making

Teachers expressed dismay at the lack of consultation on the part of government. Many were of the opinion that the bureaucrats simply do not understand

how “top-down” decisions affect teachers. This is exemplified by the expression that “... government should just stop implementing the curriculum and other rules, they must try and consult teachers, because they are the people directly involved with the learners.” The democratic process in changing the implemented curriculum, seem to have been bypassed, forgotten and ignored by the policy makers. The lack of input on the part of the teachers is stifling creativity in the schools, and teachers feel rightly far removed from this process.

Teachers recommended that there be a change in the way policy and curriculum decisions are made and implemented. Data from this survey led to four recommendations:

- become more involved in school activities
- not be “far off” and only become involved when there are problems
- first consult with teacher and other stakeholders in education before deciding on policies, curriculum, etc.
- first do thorough research before deciding on what and how to implement

Seemingly, teachers are eager to participate in this whole process of curriculum decision making and reform which directly affects them. Teachers are better informed about what is going on in schools. This process should not be allowed to be solely the domain of bureaucrats who know little of what difficulties are being experienced and far removed from the day-to-day realities of teachers. Teachers’ opinions on this issue contrast considerably from the way government approach the planning and implementation of the curriculum and make other decisions for schools.

## Workshops

Workshops were perceived to have been very helpful to teachers. It was recommended that in order for teachers to have the knowledge and understand what is expected of them, regular workshops be held to

- extend appropriate training in areas such as learner discipline;
- explain the curriculum, syllabuses, and show how they should be implemented;
- keep teachers updated on current trends, techniques and repertoires, relating to subject matter teaching and learning;
- identify problem areas in which teachers need further assistance, and
- explain learning theories that would help teachers better understand adolescent behavior and students with exceptional circumstances.

With the input of teachers, these workshops must also serve to

- establish rapport between experienced and new teachers responsible for the same teaching similar grades or same subject matter;
- be able to share ideas, experiences, discuss subject expectations, and helpful hints for teaching effectively.

Teachers noted that visits by subject advisors are very rare and if they happen, advisors are authoritarian and imposing in their approach. They recommended that advisors visit schools on a regular basis “to guide teachers with the curriculum, i.e. explain the syllabus, share ideas on how construct tests and examinations, share techniques of presenting a topic, and help in areas where teachers experience problems.”

It emerged clearly that teachers needed to communicate directly with the government to establish a dialogue regarding the curriculum, policy, and the decision making process undertaken to provide new teachers with support.

## Summary

Namibia designed a professional development plan for teachers to be implemented over a decade, namely the Educator Development Support (EDS). It aims at identifying venues where support to teachers will be given, and assist at upgrading teachers qualifications. This program however, does not aim at supporting new teachers. Reports examined show that in northern education regions, a support program Basic Education Support<sup>1</sup>, has been operative since 1995. This program is said to have had a tremendous impact on the performance of teachers those regions. However, the EDS was designed without incorporating any of the relevant activities of BES<sup>1</sup> and its accomplishments. The researcher discovered that the specific support activities of induction and mentoring were not part of the overall plan of the Ministry of Education. Teachers felt that the support they received in curriculum, discipline and the supply of teaching and learning aids were insufficient. This in turn created many problems for them. Teaching is not improved and learning not enhanced. Science teachers felt that their specific qualifications were not appropriately recognized.

Teachers recommended that in order to improve the support program, special consideration be given to curriculum and instruction issues, learner discipline, the democratic process in decision making, and the delivery of teaching and learning aids on time. Induction and mentoring were highly favored as promising support activities that must be made priorities and incorporated in the improved program.

## CHAPTER 6

### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction

This final chapter summarizes the major findings of the study including the purpose. Also, recommendations for supporting new teachers and for further research are advanced.

#### Purpose

The main purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of a national support program designed to help teachers improve teaching and enhance student learning. First, the study determined the existence of a national support program for new teachers in Namibia. Second, the study gauged teacher perceptions on the helpfulness of this program. Third, the study investigated the problems new teachers experienced when they started teaching. Fourth, the study gathered teachers' recommendations to make the current support program more effective.

#### Major Findings

This study examined the existence of a national support program, the helpfulness of this program, problems new teachers experience, and what teachers recommended for its improvement.

### Major Finding #1: The National Support Program

The Educator Development Support (EDS) program that the Ministry of Education designed is in its first phase of implementation. This program is not specifically designed to help new teachers, but all teachers. The current national support program does not designate induction and mentoring for new teachers as part of its long-term aims. For example, 84 percent of teachers responded that they did not attend an induction session. Only 35 percent of new teachers reported that they were assigned a support teacher. However, these support teachers did not receive official training to assist their new colleagues as mentors. 86 percent of new teachers positively responded that their colleagues' support was somewhat helpful to very helpful.

### Major Finding #2: Helpfulness of the Program

The single most widespread activity supporting teachers in Namibia are workshops. 60 percent of teachers responded that they have attended a workshop related to their teaching tasks. These workshops helped these teachers in the critical tasks of explaining the curriculum and syllabus, teaching methods, and developing teaching materials.

Teacher resource centers were discovered to have been a helpful tool to teachers. Seventy percent of new teachers reported to have been introduced to teacher resource centers in their locations. Of these, 46 percent found the teacher resource centers to have been somewhat helpful and 51 percent indicated them to be very helpful. However, teachers in the rural areas expressed concern about the long distances they have to travel in order to get to a resource center.



Teachers are highly enthusiastic about obtaining higher qualifications. 55 percent of these new teachers were upgrading their qualifications. 44 percent were doing so by correspondence and 46 percent via distance learning. Teachers are very enthusiastic about furthering credentials as indicated by their 98 percent response indicating the desire to upgrade their qualifications. There is however minimal or no support extended by the ministry to render financial assistance to pay for tuition or grant needed leave time for completion of studies and examinations.

### Major Finding #3: Problems Experienced

Teaching and learning materials are difficult for new teachers to find in Namibia. Seventy-four percent of teachers reported that the availability of teaching and learning resources are a moderate to a major problem. Textbooks rarely arrive on time and when they do, all learners may not have the benefit of getting copies. Teachers regard this as a major problem that severely curtails their performance and the progress of learners. They resort to other strategies of sharing textbooks or creating materials of their own. Moreover, teachers in the rural areas are worst affected as there are no teacher resource centers or other alternatives for substituting teaching and learning aids. While the number of learners in schools increased, funding for teaching and learning resources had considerably decreased by half the amount over a decade.

The new curriculum was thought to have been too elaborate and extensive. Thus teachers were unfamiliar with it. The Ministry of Education designed and implemented this curriculum without participation from the teachers. Also, teachers did not benefit from explanations and further training. 70 percent of new teachers indicated

that they did not receive any support in teaching the new H/IGCSE curriculum. Namibian teachers are not participating in the decision making process of policy and curriculum that they are requested to implement. The Ministry of Education is devising and implementing decisions with a “top-down” approach. This approach is stifling teacher creativity and has left many behind. Suggestions and recommendations made by teachers succinctly indicate that a new approach be devised to involve them every step of the decision making process. Teachers expressed their willingness to participate and their readiness to be consulted in issues that affect them in schools.

The study revealed that teachers who received their training at the University of Namibia are experiencing problems in teaching the learner centered curriculum, whereas their counterparts trained at the teachers colleges expressed little or no difficulty in this approach. It was discovered that new teachers encountered problems related to integration in schools formerly designated for whites only. Also, since these teachers are younger than their counterparts, they encountered some problems with some veteran teachers who want to exercise their ‘authority’ over them and isolate them in the process.

Schools are not firmly supported by the Ministry of Education on the issue of discipline. Teachers lack the necessary skills to deal with behavioral problems of learners and the Ministry of Education is perceived to have done little in this regard. 31 percent of teachers indicated that classroom management and discipline issues are moderate to a major problem. In the open-ended questions and the interviews, teachers expressed grave concern about the unacceptable disruptive behavior of some learners that often interfere with the teaching and learning process. The integrated results from

this research reveal that there are a significant number of teachers that experience problems with classroom management and are frustrated about the ill-disciplined behavior of learners. Learners constantly violate the behavior code of conduct. Measures in place to deal with such actions are currently not effective.

Science teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the way their qualifications are recognized. This could lead to these teachers opting for other careers. The teaching profession could lose their precious expertise which are critically needed in Namibian schools.

#### Recommendations for the National Support Program

The improved national support program will benefit many educators if it becomes more comprehensive. It must begin to specifically target new teachers in order to help them improve teaching and enhance student learning. The researcher discovered that the national support program in Namibia will be improved through the recommendations made below.

The ideal support to be rendered to teachers should help them improve on their teaching methods and increase subject matter knowledge. It must also strive to strengthen teachers' skills needed to deal with problems in the classrooms and the school environment at large. In this case, where the mandated changes perplexed many teachers, this program will help deal with policy directives and curriculum changes that occur on a continued basis. It is recommended that the support teachers must receive, take into consideration the needs of teachers with regard to subject matter of the specific teaching grades levels.

In addition, it must be envisaged that teachers need to develop a professional ethic toward teaching, and for collegial and academic advancement. It is therefore essential that the improved national support program consider rendering new teachers a range of extensive support activities. Specific needs of the neophytes must be kept in mind. These include induction and mentoring sessions, curriculum and instruction support activities, and the creation of opportunities to further their education.

### Induction and Mentoring

It is recommended that the improved national support program have induction and mentoring as central features of support. All new teachers joining the profession should benefit from an orientation program. This induction process will primarily take place in the schools with the cooperation of the school community including new and veteran teachers, the principals and heads of departments. The induction session will encompass important aspects of the schools and education system such as:

- formal introduction to the school system and its environment
- familiarization with colleagues and the learner population
- sharing information with new and old colleagues
- establishing rapport with a chosen mentor

These activities were recommended by 82 percent of the new teachers. It will benefit both the teachers and the system in a complimentary and positive way.

Mentoring programs have proven to hold particular benefits to new teachers in many school districts. Mentoring and induction help teachers become successful and competent to deal with curricula, instructional and collegial challenges. Essentially,

when new teachers engage in mentoring and induction, it can be expected that their skills to teach will improve significantly and student learning will be enhanced. Mentoring and induction can also help new teachers gain the confidence required in teaching and improve their professional contacts.

The mentoring program will be implemented for new teachers and those teachers who have been teaching for longer period but feel the need to improve their skills in one specific way or another. Since mentoring and induction will be a relatively new idea for Namibian teachers, the government will have to negotiate the implementation process with teacher unions and come to terms with its definition, the participants, what it involves, and how it shall benefit the teachers.

Generally, a mentor shall be an “experienced educator who is willing and able to help a mentee become a self-reliant teacher” (Portner, 2001, p. 8). This mentor is however not going to engage in processes that have to do with the administrative appraisal of the person being mentored. The mentor’s duty shall then be, as Portner clearly suggests, to help the novice “modify and adjust in order to enhance student learning” (p. 8). Namibia has a cadre of experienced educators who are eager and ready to pass on knowledge and skills in this format. In the researcher’s observation however, these individuals have to be trained about mentoring so that their skills are enhanced and appropriately applied, and the right context and atmosphere of these mentoring relationships are established.

In the improved national support program, the mentors shall be trained to:

- be knowledgeable about teaching models;
- help with curricula problems (understanding and implementing it);

- assist with instructional difficulties through classroom observations;
- know how to demonstrate different instructional techniques;
- be good listeners and respond in ways that are not threatening to the novice;
- at times be a counselor and play a supporting role; and
- remain a resource person and maintain a confidential professional relationship.

The mentors' duties will be to:

- initiate contacts and set up orientation sessions;
- provide necessary information to the new teachers that will be helpful to them;
- create an environment and platform to share knowledge and expertise with the new teachers;
- tackle curricula difficulties with new teachers;
- engage in instructional coaching sessions to assist in teaching difficulties that may occur by demonstrating various techniques that may be helpful;
- make themselves available to the new teachers for meetings to discuss progress and future undertakings;
- engage in discussions with protégés to foster progress.

### Implementation

When commencing this program, it is helpful to assess the Namibian educational set up, structure and geographical locations of Namibian schools. Before implementation, it is recommended that the new national support program consider the

needs assessment activities at the national level consisting of two components: sketching a broad set of needs nationally and for each region; and developing a set of methodologies which can be used for more

detailed analysis at the regional level... collection of information about large-scale educational activities (Evans, 1981, p. 72).

This will help determine exactly who will be involved in what tasks and how the program will be coordinated and implemented in the education regions, circuits and clusters. The capacity at each local level will be assessed to ensure that marginal schools are not left behind. From a macro level, the geographical distances will be challenging. Still, creating expertise at the local level will be paramount. Initially, the cost of training mentors will seem prohibitive but in the long run, the academic and scholarly benefits to the teachers who will serve schools and learners will well outweigh what is spent.

The creation of schools, university, colleges and ministry partnership, is a priority that must not be overlooked as it is essential to ensure success of this program through collaboration. Teachers, principals and decision makers will have a unique opportunity to work together and benefit from the expertise and knowledge that will be exchanged amongst those institutions and individuals.

A continuation of existing and helpful activities is recommended. Shortly after independence, Dwight Allen developed the “2+2” method in Namibia that has been positively welcomed by many in a state where resources are scarce and regular training rarely attainable. “2+2” allows teachers to give two suggestions and two compliments to the other teacher. It is a non-evaluative and non-punitive system that allows positive growth and improvement in the profession. Though not all teachers surveyed knew about this method, 92 percent of the teachers also recommended this to be part of their professional development program. This process can be combined with exchanging

ideas and sharing knowledge with other new and experienced teachers, as a way to reflect on teaching techniques and practices.

These activities have to be implemented in phases. The first year of teaching will be reserved for induction activities. The second year activities will be moderate. The third year of teaching more comprehensive activities shall be undertaken to further upgrade the knowledge and skills of teachers.

### Implications

The concept of mentoring, though it sounds strange and unfamiliar to apply to the Namibian situation, is not a distant thought from many of the nurturing practices in the African settings. Cognizant of the many cultural practices and concepts in the African traditions of passing on knowledge from generation to generation through genuine care and love by the keepers of the traditions, praise singers, etc., this can well be enmeshed with the mentoring process. As the saying goes, “a person becomes a person through another person.” Those who happen to have better skills can pass them on to those less skilled, and the entire learning community grows and benefits from the circulation of knowledge and collegial practices. The existence of a cohesive support program for teachers ultimately holds benefit to learners as well. Sinclair and Ghory (1997, p. 125) hold the view that:

when children fail in their learning, society loses the benefit of educated citizens and individuals lose the opportunity to experience a productive and fulfilling life... Educators need to reach and teach these students on the margins of success and help them become productive learners. One crucial challenge that educators must face, then, is to find meaningful and enduring ways to serve children who have not found sufficient reasons or means for academic and personal success available to them in the past.



Teacher support must aim to help improve the performance of teachers in order to imbue them with crucial skills to work productively with all learners and minimize the negative impact of difficult teaching and learning conditions.

### Curriculum Support

Undoubtedly, curriculum and instructional activities represent a critical part of learning. Academic performance can be improved with the appropriate and relevant support needed to strengthen knowledge. 94 percent of teachers recommended the new support program extend help to teaching the H/IGCSE curriculum. This curriculum will be thoroughly explained and receive comprehensive input from teachers. The program will help teachers understand the entire curriculum better. Subject matter in which teachers experienced difficulties must be highlighted so that they may be dealt with through the mentor/protégé relationships, the mobile resource unit, workshops and other activities. The university and colleges need to extend their training in this regard, as they are currently confined to pre-service trainings. 94 percent of teachers recommended that the program help in learning new subject content knowledge and 95 percent recommended learning new teaching strategies. Subject matter knowledge is of serious concern to the teachers, and their successes in teaching and learner progress depend on how well they are supported in this regard. Teaching cannot be successful without the endowment of learning and teaching materials. All the teachers highly recommended this undertaking to ease the shortages already being experienced. Curriculum and policy changes should not be the exclusive domain of politicians, and policy makers, as teachers, are an integral and essential part of the process.

## Further Education

The modes of delivery of further education to teachers shall be re-examined to fit the needs of teachers. Teachers recommended that this be made a priority in a professional development program. The researcher assumes that these teachers want to improve their credentials with the primary motive of improving teaching and eventually impact on learners' academic progress. 99 percent of these teachers want to upgrade their qualifications for a variety of reasons. Through this activity, teachers will be assisted with their needs.

However, to avoid redundancy, they should prioritize to register for courses that may have immediate impact on their teaching tasks and ultimately earn them desired credentials. Principals, inspectors and subject advisors must be required to take inventory of teachers that have not benefited from the available in-service training activities of the Educator Development and Support program.

There is clear and overwhelming support for providing further education for teachers. Disappointingly, the current system of providing further education for those who cannot physically attend institutions of higher learning on a full time basis, seems highly inflexible and makes the goals of teachers unattainable. In addition, the ministry of education allows for minimal opportunities for these teachers. The most hindering factor for teachers to pursue further education are, time availability to study and take examinations, and the lack of financial means to enroll, at those institutions offering essential courses in their fields. In this regard, 95 percent recommended receiving financial and other support to upgrade their education.

The support program must help teachers deal with issues of discipline. Corporal punishment was abolished without the proper training of teachers to effectively deal with undesirable learner behavior. Namibian teachers are in dire need of skills and knowledge to deal appropriately with ill disciplined learners who are ruining the character of the school and making a mockery of the education system. Learners' misbehaviors disturb and deteriorate the learning setting, and undermine the credibility of the entire academic process. Teachers are capable of handling these matters and implement the necessary measures that they themselves have devised with the cooperation of the ministry education. Knowledge about youth culture is also extremely important to have and Namibian teachers should not be left behind in comprehending this important dimension of human development and the impact on learning.

The Namibian terrain is greatly challenging to many efforts in education. 95 percent recommended having teacher resource centers near their locations. Considering time and other difficulties experienced in reaching outlying areas and schools, the researcher recommend that a mobile resource center becomes operative to reach schools and teachers who may otherwise not be advantaged by the traditional forms of training. This unit will provide teachers with teaching and learning materials that may be lacking in their schools. It must also be staffed with knowledgeable professionals who will connect with teachers on a regular basis. As well, these professionals can provide training and assistance in curriculum and other technical areas where teachers are experiencing difficulties or need upgrading.

Another consideration for the work of this unit will be to take inventory and move to establishing school based resource centers that can be managed by teachers themselves. During the visit to schools, it was discovered that school libraries were poorly equipped. Teachers and learners were not fully utilizing this resource due to their conditions. If appropriately attended to, this is a resource that can greatly facilitate teaching and learning.

Many teachers have benefited from many workshops offered on a variety of issues from subject knowledge to teaching methodologies. It is recommended that workshops be intensified to deal more comprehensively with teachers' needs at the local level. Challenging and new areas of technology can be dealt with in workshops through the mobile unit, which will be equipped with available state of the art technology.

The existence of the teacher support program can be improved and made effective over time by instituting formative and summative evaluation procedures (Patton, 1990, p. 52-53). The evaluation design and implementation process will have to ensure full participation of teachers engaged in the mentor/protégé relationships.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

First, since the results of this study are restricted to one region, it is recommended that this study be extended to all education regions within Namibia. As noted, some of the education regions have benefited already from a program that was specifically targeting those areas. However, in other parts of the country these support activities have not yet been extended to benefit those schools. Many of Namibia's schools are located long distances away from each other and where mainstream

activities are taking place. Each region has its specific needs, and its teachers will have different perceptions about how they would like to receive support.

Second, a more specific study is needed to extensively examine the problems faced by teachers in rural schools and compare them to those in urban schools. The geography of this vast and challenging environment dictates many factors. Schools in remote areas could be left at the periphery whilst not benefiting fully from available resources and services. Rural schools are always at the fringes. While teachers and learners in urban schools are first to be advantaged by the circulation of information, rural schools get the minimum of the existing services. The services provided to rural schools are less efficient and this in turn could impact the way teachers and learners perform.

Third, while this study was focused on secondary schools, a similar study on primary schools can perfectly compliment this research. The research can help illuminate the problems teachers face at that level and gather further data about the specific areas these teachers need assistance in. Primary schools in Namibia are quantitatively larger than secondary schools and so is the total number of teachers. Teachers in primary schools also face unique problems far different from those of secondary schools counterparts. While secondary school teachers are dealing with adolescent behavior for example, primary school teachers are more concerned with other problems of the younger bodies and minds. Another difference between primary and secondary schools is the class size. Overcrowded classrooms can significantly influence performance of teachers and learners alike. As a result, teachers at primary schools may have a greater need for handling big classes than their secondary school

counterparts. Research can help illuminate on what specifically is needed to help new teachers in this regard.

Fourth, the impact of professional development activities on Namibian teachers needs to be researched. One cannot place enough emphasis on determining what teachers want and what can really help them in improving teaching and learning. The in-service activities that teachers receive must be closely examined to determine their effectiveness and redesign them, if needed, to meet teachers' critical needs.

### Summary

This study examined the effectiveness of a national support program for teachers. It looked at the helpfulness of this program to improve teaching and enhance student learning. Problems new teachers experience, were identified. The study gathered recommendations from teachers to improve the existing national support program. It is recommended that the new support program incorporate induction and mentoring as key support aspects for new teachers. Other important aspects to improve teaching skills, such as the techniques of using compliments and suggestions, and coaching are recommended to be part of the support program. It is recommended that new teachers be supported with the new curriculum, learner-centered education, teaching and learning resources, discipline management, and opportunities to improve their qualifications.

Teacher input is essential if stakeholders want to see solutions to the perennial problems that debilitate schools, affect the quality of teaching and learning, and ultimately the standards of the education system. The success of such important

undertakings on behalf of the teachers, require unequivocal and consistent support on the part of decision makers.

The *raison d'être* for establishing a support program for new teachers must be to create new learning opportunities so that teachers may gain the confidence and competency skills required to effectively deal with a variety of curriculum and instructional problems that permeate the classrooms and school environments. In-service training programs for teachers should be structured with the aim to strengthening teachers instructional techniques and subject knowledge, and improve the quality of teaching. This will help augment achievement levels and mitigate those learning circumstances impeding the academic success of learners.

APPENDIX A  
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



## **SURVEY PART I**

### **NEW TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE EXISTENCE OF A SUPPORT PROGRAM**

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_ Teaching Grades \_\_\_\_\_

Qualifications: \_\_\_\_\_

I began teaching in \_\_\_1999 \_\_\_2000 \_\_\_2001

This part of the survey deals with your experiences when you first started teaching.

Please fill in the blank or indicate with an **X** the answer that best represent your viewpoint or experience.

#### **1. INDUCTION**

a. Did you attend an induction session when you started teaching?

\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_ No

b. If yes, how helpful did you find that session?

\_\_\_ Not Helpful \_\_\_ Somewhat Helpful \_\_\_ Very Helpful

#### **2. SUPPORT TEACHER**

a. Was a support teacher assigned to work with you?

\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_ No

b. If yes, how do you feel about the support teacher?

\_\_\_ Not Helpful \_\_\_ Somewhat Helpful \_\_\_ Very Helpful

c. Did you find the support teacher to be knowledgeable?

\_\_\_ Not Knowledgeable \_\_\_ Somewhat Knowledgeable \_\_\_ Very Knowledgeable

d. The support teacher was/is helpful in the following areas

(i)

### 3. CURRICULUM SUPPORT

a) Have you received support in teaching the H/IGCSE curriculum?

Yes  No

b) If yes, how helpful was the support in this areas?

Not Helpful  Somewhat Helpful  Very Helpful

### 4. TEACHER RESOURCE CENTERS

a. Have you been introduced to the Teacher Resource Centers around your area?

Yes  No

b. How helpful have you found the resources at the Teacher Resource Centers?

Not Helpful  Somewhat Helpful  Very Helpful

### 5. WORKSHOPS

a. Have you ever attended a workshop related to your teaching work?

Yes  No

b. The workshop was helpful in the following areas:

### 6. UPGRADING QUALIFICATIONS

a. Are you currently upgrading your qualifications?

Yes  No

b. If yes, by what means are you upgrading your qualifications?

Correspondence  Distance Learning  Other (Please Specify)

c. Do you want to upgrade your qualifications?

\_\_\_ Yes    \_\_\_ No

**7. OTHER SUPPORT**

a. In what areas do you need further support?

(i)

(ii)

b. What other sources of support have you discovered to be helpful in your teaching?

(i)

(ii)

**8. POLICIES**

a. Were any rules, regulations and circulars of the Government explained to you?

\_\_\_ Yes    \_\_\_ No

b. If yes, how helpful have you found the this?

\_\_\_ Not Helpful    \_\_\_ Somewhat Helpful    \_\_\_ Very Helpful

**9. Overall** when you first started, how did you feel about the support you received?

\_\_\_ Not Helpful    \_\_\_ Somewhat Helpful    \_\_\_ Very Helpful

## SURVEY PART II

### PROBLEMS NEW TEACHERS FACE

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_ Teaching Grades \_\_\_\_\_

Qualifications: \_\_\_\_\_

I began teaching in \_\_\_1999 \_\_\_2000 \_\_\_2001

This part of the survey deals with the **Curriculum/Instructional, Professional and Personal** problems and issues that you may have experienced when you started teaching.

#### 1. CURRICULUM/INSTRUCTIONAL

Some curriculum and instructional/teaching problems I have experienced are:

(a) Understanding the syllabus

\_\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_\_4 Major Problem

(b) Lesson Planning

\_\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_\_4 Major Problem

(c) Understanding Subject Content

\_\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_\_4 Major Problem

(d) Teaching the H/IGCSE curriculum

\_\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_\_4 Major Problem

(e) Using a Learner Centered Curriculum

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(f) Understanding Continuous Assessment

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(g) Classroom Observations and Feedback

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(h) Availability of Resources and Materials

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(i) Classroom Management/Discipline Issues

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

**2. PROFESSIONAL**

Some professional problems I have experienced are:

(a) Understanding Policies and Procedures

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(b) Understanding Roles and Responsibilities

\_\_1 Not a Problem      \_\_2 Minor Problem      \_\_3 Moderate Problem      \_\_4 Major Problem

(c) Taking on a **leadership** role

1 Not a Problem       2 Minor Problem       3 Moderate Problem       4 Major Problem

(d) Professional Relations with other teachers

1 Not a Problem       2 Minor Problem       3 Moderate Problem       4 Major Problem

### 3. PERSONAL

Some personal problems I have experienced as a new member of the teaching staff are:

(a) Isolation from my fellow teachers

1 Not a Problem       2 Minor Problem       3 Moderate Problem       4 Major Problem

(b) Emotional Support from fellow teachers

1 Not a Problem       2 Minor Problem       3 Moderate Problem       4 Major Problem

(c) Encouragement from fellow teachers

1 Not a Problem       2 Minor Problem       3 Moderate Problem       4 Major Problem

(d) Any Other Problems

### SURVEY PART III

#### THE SUPPORT PROGRAM NEW TEACHERS NEED

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_ Teaching Grades \_\_\_\_\_

Male  Female

Qualifications: \_\_\_\_\_

I began teaching in  1999  2000  2001

This part of the survey deals with the **support program** that you would recommend based on your needs and experience. In other words, what would help you with your work as a teacher. Please mark an **X** next to the answer that best represent your viewpoint and/or experience.

1. Having an induction session.

Not Important  Somewhat Important  Very Important

2. Having a support teacher.

Not Important  Somewhat Important  Very Important

3. Help with teaching the GCSE and H/IGCSE curriculum

Not Important  Somewhat Important  Very Important

4. Face-to-face assistance/tutoring

Not Important  Somewhat Important  Very Important

5. Help with Managing time effectively

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

6. Learning new teaching strategies

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

7. Learning new subject content knowledge

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

8. Getting help with the medium of instruction (language issues)

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

9. Constructing clear lesson plans

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

10. Understanding the curriculum/syllabus better

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

11. Getting feedback and suggestions from fellow teachers to improve teaching

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

12. Dealing with classroom discipline/management

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important



13. Dealing/working with parents

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

14. Learning about Government policy, rules and regulations

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

15. Having good Teacher Resource Centers close by

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

16. Exchanging ideas and knowledge with experienced teachers.

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

17. Regular in-service training workshops/sessions

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

18. Having other opportunities for gaining knowledge and upgrading education.

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

19. Receiving financial and other support to upgrade education.

Not Important     Somewhat Important     Very Important

20. What other issues would you like to see addressed by government that can make your teaching more effective?

a. Receiving learning materials and textbooks on time

\_\_\_ Not Important    \_\_\_ Somewhat Important    \_\_\_ Very Important

b. Receiving instructional materials on time

\_\_\_ Not Important    \_\_\_ Somewhat Important    \_\_\_ Very Important

c. Receiving training for teachers in discipline management

\_\_\_ Not Important    \_\_\_ Somewhat Important    \_\_\_ Very Important

d. Other issues

APPENDIX B  
PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

## PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

This form serves to inform you of your right as volunteer participant in this study.

1. I hereby acknowledge that my participation in this study is voluntary.
2. I further acknowledge that the study is conducted by Mr. Michael K. Tjivikua, a doctoral student at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, U.S.A.
3. The research is entitled “Determining Support for New Teachers.” It is my understanding that this research is being conducted to solicit my opinion about the support I received from the state as a beginning teacher.
4. Mr. Tjivikua will forward a questionnaire that will not request me to identify myself by name or school. Furthermore, he is to use a tape recorder for a follow up interview as part of his research.
5. I understand it to be my right to withdraw from this research before he finalizes the fieldwork. In addition, I may request to freely inspect the questionnaire and the tape recorded interview before the conclusion of the study.
6. Mr. Tjivikua may use the results of this survey for his academic work, i.e. doctoral dissertation and other future publications.
7. My participation or non-participation in this research is free, voluntary and without prejudice.
8. Should I have any additional questions, I can contact Mr. Tjivikua through the Ministry of Education and Culture, Windhoek-Education Regional Office.
9. I may request to retain a copy of this consent form.

I have decided to participate in this study about new teachers and the support they receive from the state, by filling out a survey and being interviewed on this topic. My signature below indicates that I have read and understood the information above and opted to partake. I understand that I may withdraw, if I decide to do so, from this study at any time without prejudice after signing this form.

Thank you.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant’s Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Researcher’s Signature  
Michael K. Tjivikua

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

## HUMAN PARTICIPANTS INFORMATION

1. Human participants will be asked to respond to a questionnaire. Participants will also be interviewed and audio-recorded.
2. Human participants will be informed of their rights not to reveal their names or the schools they are posted at. Furthermore, they will be informed that their participation is voluntary and are free to withdraw at any time they opt to do so.
3. The participants will be informed that the study is two pronged. First, they will be asked to voluntarily and freely respond to a questionnaire. Second, they will be asked to voluntarily partake in an audio-recorded interview.
4. This information is contained in the Consent Form, Doctoral Form 7A. Please see attached.
5. The participants will not be asked to reveal their names or the schools they are posted at.

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH LETTER



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

**MINISTRY OF BASIC EDUCATION, SPORT AND CULTURE**

Tel: (09 264 61) 293 9411

Fax: (09 264 61) 231367

Private Bag 13236  
WINDHOEK

Dear Principal

This letter serves to introduce Mr. Michael K. Tjivikua who is currently undertaking research regarding professional development activities for teachers in Namibian schools. His study is both timely and relevant as it will contribute to the body of knowledge and crucial findings in Namibian education.

I further consider this study pivotal in helping us understand and improve this particular aspect of our education system. It is anticipated that this will not interfere with your normal work and class sessions.

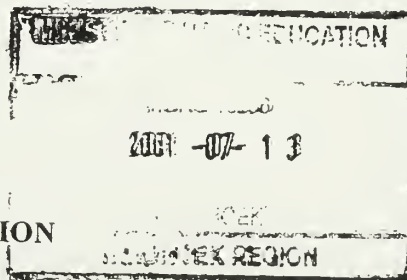
Please join me in welcoming Mr. Tjivikua to our school system. The findings of this study will be shared with us after relevant reviews and should therefore be of considerable benefit to the development of new programs and opportunities for our teachers.

Your kind consideration and assistance will be highly appreciated.

Sincerely yours

  
.....  
MR. A. M. AGAPITUS

DIRECTOR: WINDHOEK F. REGION



APPENDIX D

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS IN NAMIBIA – 1995





## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Allen, D.W. (1992). *Schools for a new century: A conservative approach to radical school reform*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Allen, D.W., & Cosby, W.H. (2001). *American schools: The 100 billion dollar challenge*. New York: Time Warner Company.
- Anderson, E.M., & Shannon, A.L. (1988). Toward a conceptualization of mentoring. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 38-42.
- Barth, R.S. (1990). *Improving schools from within: Teachers, parents, and principals can make the difference*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- BBC. (2001, February 4). *Housing help for teachers*. URL [http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/English/education/newsid\\_1250001/125993.stm](http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/English/education/newsid_1250001/125993.stm)
- BBC. (2002, January 25). *Teacher shortage has worsened*. URL [http://www.news.bbc.co.uk/hi/English/education/newesid\\_1779000/1779868.stm](http://www.news.bbc.co.uk/hi/English/education/newesid_1779000/1779868.stm)
- BBC. (2002, April 01). *'Plunder' of world's teachers denounced*. URL <http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/English/education/newsid-1905000/1905414.stm>
- Berliner, D.C. (1985). Laboratory settings and the study of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(6), 2-8.
- Bey, T. (1990). Mentoring in teacher education: Diversifying support for teachers. In T. Bey & T. Holmes, (Eds.), *Mentoring: Contemporary principles and issues* (pp. 111-119). Reston, Virginia: Association of Teacher Educators.
- Borg, W.R., & Gall, M.D. (1989). *Educational research*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Bova, B.M. (1984). Mentoring as a learning experience for adults. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(3), 16-20.
- Bray, M. (1987). *Are small schools the answer? Cost-effective strategies for rural school provision*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Brennan, S., Thames, W., & Roberts, R. (1999). Mentoring with a mission. *Educational Leadership*, 56(8), 49-52.
- Bridgman, J.M. (1981). *The revolt of the Hereros*. Berkeley & Los Angeles, CA: University of California Press.

- Brock-Utne, B. (1997). The language question in Namibian schools. *International Review of Education*, 43(2/3), 241-260.
- Brock-Utne, B. (2000). *Whose education for all? The reconciliation of the African mind*. New York: Falmer Press.
- California State Department of Education. (2002). *The California Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BSTA)*. URL
- Calleweart, S. (1999). Which way Namibia? Or how to decolonize the colonized mind of the anti-colonial teacher? In K. Zeichner & L. Dahlstrom (Eds.), *Democratic teacher education reform in Africa: The case of Namibia* (pp. 222-247). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Carrigan, J. (2000). Changing views about classroom management: Some case studies. *Reform Journal*, 11. URL [http://www.nied.edu.na/nied/pub/journals/journal11/journal11.htm\(2002,02,25\)](http://www.nied.edu.na/nied/pub/journals/journal11/journal11.htm(2002,02,25))
- Cesaire, A. (1972). *Discourse on colonialism*. New York: Monthly Review Press.
- Connecticut State Department of Education. (2002). *A guide to the BEST program for beginning teacher: 2001-2002*. Hartford, CT: Bureau of Program and Teacher Evaluation, Author.
- Coombs, P. (1985). *The world crisis in education*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Coutinho, J.M. (1992). Brazil. In H.B. Leavitt (Ed.), *Issues and problems in teacher education: An international handbook* (pp. 37-49). New York: Greenwood Press.
- Craig, H.J., Kraft, R.J., & DuPlessis, J. (1998). *Teacher development: Making an impact*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development & The World Bank.
- Dahlstrom, L.O. (1999). Transforming teacher education for a democratic society: The case of Namibia. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15(2), 143-155.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *The right to learn: A blueprint for creating schools that work*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Cobb, V. (Eds.), (1995). *Teacher preparation and professional development in APEC members: A comparative study*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education.

- Darling-Hammond, L., Hudson, L., & Kirby, N.S. (1989). *Redesigning teacher education: Opening the door for new recruits to science and math teaching*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Publication Series.
- Denmark, V.M., & Podsen, I.J. (2000). The mettle of a mentor. *Journal of Staff Development*, 21(4), 18-22.
- Diallo, G. (1994). Indigenous forms of learning in West Africa: The case of Mauritania. In B. Brock-Utne (Ed.), *Indigenous forms of learning in Africa, Report 7*. Oslo: Institute for Educational Research, University of Oslo.
- Dortch, T.W. (2000). *The miracles of mentoring: How to encourage and lead future generations*. New York: Broadway Books.
- Dove, L. (1986). *Teachers and teacher education in developing countries*. Dover, NH: Croom Helm.
- Dube, E.F. (1985). The relationship between racism and education in South Africa. *Harvard Educational Review*, 55(1), 86-100.
- DuPlessis, J. (2000). In-service training in BES1. *Reform Journal*, 12, URL <http://www.nied.edu.na/nied/pub/journals/journal12/journal12.htm> (2002,02,25)
- Education Week. (2000, January 13). *Quality Counts*, 18, 56-57.
- Enz, B. (1990). Guidelines for selecting mentors and creating an environment for mentoring. In T. Bey & T. Holmes (Eds.), *Mentoring: Contemporary principles and issues* (pp. 65-78). Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.
- Enz, B., Anderson, W., Weber, B., & Lawhead, D. (1992). The Arizona teacher residency program: Commitment, collaboration, and collegiality. In DeBolt, G.P. (Ed.), *Teacher induction and mentoring* (pp. 97-118). Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Eurat, M. (1995). Inservice Teacher Education. In L.W. Anderson (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of teaching and teacher education* (pp. 620-628). London: Pergamon.
- Evans, D.R. (1981). *The planning of non-formal education*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO.
- Fagerland, I., & Saha, L. (1989). *Education and national development: A comparative perspective*. Oxford, England: Pergamon Press Ltd.
- First, R. (1963). *South West Africa*. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books.

- Foster, M. (1997). *Black teachers on teaching*. New York: New Press.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum Publishing Company.
- Gehrke, N.J. (1984). The socialization of beginning teachers through mentor-protégé relationships. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(3), 21-24.
- Gehrke, N.J. (1988). On preserving the essence of mentoring as one form of teacher leadership. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 43-45.
- Gibson, A., & Ogbu, J.U. (1991). (Eds.). *Minority status and schooling: A comparative study of immigrant and involuntary minorities*. New York: Garland Publishing.
- Goodlad, J.I. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gordon, J.A. (2000). *The color of teaching: Educational change and development*. New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.
- Gordon, R.L. (1997). How novice teachers can succeed with adolescents. *Educational Leadership*, 54(7), 56-58.
- Gordon, S.P., & Maxey, M. (2000). *How to help beginning teachers succeed*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Grant, C.A., & Zeichner, K.M. (1981). In-service support for first year teachers: The state of the scene. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 14(2), 99-111.
- Gray, W.A., & Gray, M.M. (1985). Synthesis of research on mentoring beginning teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 43(3), 37-43.
- Green, R., Kiljunen, M.L., & Kiljunen, K. (1981). *Namibia: The last colony*. Essex: Longman Group Ltd.
- Griffin, G. (1986). Teacher induction: Research issues. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 42-46.
- Hahn, C.H.L., Vedder, H., & Fourie, L. (1966). *The native tribes of South West Africa*. London: Cass & Co.
- Halford, J.M. (1998). Easing the way for teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 55(5), 33-36.

- Hall, G.E. (1982). Induction: The missing link. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(3), 53-55.
- Halls, W.D. (1990). *Comparative education: Contemporary issues and trends*. London/Paris: UNESCO.
- Henry, M.A. (1989). Multiple support: A promising strategy for effective teacher induction. In J. Reinhartz (Ed.), *Teacher induction* (pp. 74-80). Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Hoffman, J.V., Edwards, S.A., O'Neal, S., Barnes, S., & Paulisen, M. (1986). A study of state-mandated beginning teacher programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 16-21.
- Huling-Austin, L. (1986). What can and cannot reasonably be expected from teacher induction programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 2-5.
- Huling-Austin, L. (1990). Teacher induction programs and internships. In W.R. Houston, (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Huling-Austin, L. (1992). Research on learning to teach: Implications for teacher induction and mentoring programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), 173-180.
- Hurst, P., & Rust, V. (1990). The quality of education and the working conditions of teachers. In V. Rust & P. Dalim (Eds.), *Teachers and teaching in the developing world* (pp. 149-170). New York: Garland Publishing, Inc.
- Johnson, S.M., & Kardos, S.M. (2002). Keeping new teachers in mind. *Educational Leadership*, 59(6), 12-16.
- Johnston, J., & Ryan, K. (1983). Research on the beginning teacher: Implication for teacher education. In K.R. Howey & W. Gardner (Eds.), *The education of teachers* (pp. 136-162). New York: Longman.
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1980a). Improving in-service training: The messages of research. *Educational Leadership*, 37(1), 379-385.
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1980b). The coaching of teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 40(1), 4-10.
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1983). *Power in staff development through research on training*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1988). *Student achievement through staff development*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Katjavivi, P.K. (1991). *A history of resistance in Namibia*. Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press.
- Kohn, A. (1999). What to look for in a classroom. *Educational Leadership*, 54(1), 54-55.
- Konig, B. (1983). *Namibia: The ravages of war*. London: International Defense and Aid Fund for Southern Africa.
- Lawson, H.A. (1992). Beyond the new conception of teacher induction. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), 163-172.
- Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1984). *Teachers, their world and their work*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Lockheed, M., & Verspoor, M. (1991). *Improving primary education in developing countries*. (Published for the World Bank.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Louw, W.J. (1988). Inservice upgrading of black teachers qualification in South Africa. In D.K. Sharpes (Ed.), *International perspectives on teacher education*. London: Routledge.
- Lowenstein, A. (1962). *Brutal mandate: A journey to South West Africa*. New York: Macmillan Company.
- Mail and Guardian*. (October 26, 1999). *Rural school in shambles*. URL <http://www.mg.co.za/mg/news/99oct2/26oct-schools.html>
- Marshall, L. (1976). *The !Kung of Nyae Nyae*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Massachusetts Teachers Association. (2001). *Charting a course: A mentor program handbook*. Boston, MA: Author.
- McCurry, D. (1997a). *Cost review and analysis: Grade 1 SIMs*. Windhoek: MEC and USAID/Namibia, Institute for International Research.
- McCurry, D. (1997b). *Exit Report*. Windhoek: MEC and USAID/Namibia, Institute for International Research.
- McDonald, F.J. (1980). *The problems of beginning teachers: A crisis in training*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1990). *Namibian educational code of conduct for schools*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1992a). *Namibia national conference on the implementation of the language policy for schools*. Windhoek: Longman.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1992b). *Basic education in Namibia: A framework for nation building*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1992c). *Discipline from within: Alternatives to corporal punishment*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1993a). *Toward education for all: A development brief for education, culture, and training*. Windhoek: Gamberg MacMillan.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1993b). *The state of education, culture and training in Namibia: In search of an equitable, efficient and effective service*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1996). *A profile of education in Namibia*. Windhoek: EMIS.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1999a). *Ten year plan for educator development and support in Namibia, 2000-2010*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (1999b). *Presidential commission on education, culture and training report*. Windhoek: Author.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (2002, January 08). URL [http://www.op.gov.na/Decade\\_peace/b\\_edu.htm](http://www.op.gov.na/Decade_peace/b_edu.htm)
- Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. (1990). *Constitution of the Republic of Namibia*. Windhoek: Author.
- Moleah, A. (1983). *Namibia: The struggle for liberation*. Wilmington, DE: Disa Press, Inc.
- Nampa. (2002, February 16). *Thousands enroll at university*. URL <http://www.grnnet.gov.na/News/Archive/2002/February/Week4/enroll-htm>
- National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. (1996). *What matters most: Teaching for America's Future*. New York: Author.
- Nielsen, D., & Tatto, M.T. (1991). *The cost-effectiveness of distance education for teacher training* (BRIDGES Research Report Series). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Institute for International Development.



- O'Callaghan, M. (1977). *Namibia: The effects of apartheid on culture and education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Odell, S.J. (1986). Induction support of new teachers: A functional approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 26-29.
- OECD. (1998a). *Staying Ahead: In-service training and teacher professional development*. Paris: Center for Educational Research and Innovation.
- OECD. (1998b). *Education policy analysis*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Ogbu, J. U. (1990). Understanding diversity: Summary statements. *Education and Urban Society*, 22, 425-429.
- Olson, L. (2000, January 13). Sweetening the pot. *Education Week*, XXXIV.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Perraton, H. (2000). *Open and distance learning in the developing world*. London: Routledge.
- Polytechnic of Namibia. (1996). *Annual Report 1996*. Windhoek: JWAdvertising (Pty) Ltd.
- Polytechnic of Namibia. (1998). *Annual Report 1998*. Windhoek: JWAdvertising (Pty) Ltd.
- Portner, H. (1998). *Mentoring new teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Portner, H. (2001). *Training mentors is not enough: Everything else schools and districts need to do*. Thousands Oaks: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Presidential Commission on Higher Education in Namibia. (1991). *Higher education in Namibia*. Windhoek: MEC.
- Recruiting New Teachers. (1998). *Take this job and love it! Making the mid-career move to teaching*. Belmont, MA: Author.
- Reiman, A., & Thies-Sprinthall, L. (1998). *Mentoring and supervision for teacher development*. New York: Longman.
- Rossman, G.B., & Marshall, C. (1999). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Ryan, K. (1986). *The induction of new teachers*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.
- SABCNEWS. (2002a, January 16). *Empty shelves await learners as schools reopen*. URL [http://www.sabcnews.com/south\\_Africa/education/0,1009,26714,00.html](http://www.sabcnews.com/south_Africa/education/0,1009,26714,00.html)
- SABCNEWS. (2002b, January 16). *Delays in delivery of learning materials hamper start of school year*. URL [http://www.sabcnews.com/politics/the\\_provinces?0,1009,26683,00.html](http://www.sabcnews.com/politics/the_provinces?0,1009,26683,00.html)
- Sato, N., & McLaughlin, M. (1992). Context matters: Teaching in Japan and in the United States. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 73(5), 359-366.
- Schaefer, S. (1993). Participatory approaches to teacher training. In J. Farrell & J. Oliveira (Eds.), *Teachers in developing countries: Improving effectiveness and managing costs*. EDI Seminar Series. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Schaffer, E., Stringfield, S., & Wolfe, D. (1992). Innovative beginning teacher induction program: A two-year analysis of classroom interactions. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), 181-192.
- Schultz, T.W. (1963). *The economic value of education*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Segal, R., & First, R. (1967). (Eds.). *South West Africa: Travesty of trust*. London: Andre Deutsch, Ltd.
- Sinclair, R.L., & Ghory, W. (1997). (Eds). *Reaching and teaching all children: Grassroots efforts that work*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press Inc.
- Singham, A.W., & Hune, S. (1986). *Namibian independence: A global responsibility*. Westport, CT: Lawrence Hill & Co.
- South West Africa Peoples Organization. (1987). *To be born a nation: The liberation struggle for Namibia*. London: Zed Press.
- South West Africa Survey 1967*. (1967). Pretoria and Cape Town: Department of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of South Africa.
- Stansbury, K., & Zimmerman, J. (2000). *Lifelines to the classroom: Designing support for beginning teachers*. San Francisco: WestEd.
- Storeng, M.S. (2001). *Giving learners a chance: Learner-centeredness in the reform of Namibian teaching*. Stockholm: Institute of International Education.

- Sunday Times*. (2001, October 17). Aids kills half of Zambia's teacher trainees. URL <http://www.mg.co.za/zones/sundaytimes/newsst1003329875.asp>
- Sunday Times*. (2001, November 4). Aids wipes out SA's teachers. URL <http://www.suntimes.co.za/2001/11/04/news02.asp>
- Tatto, M.T. (1997). Limits and constraints to effective teacher education. In W. Cummings & N. McGinn, (Eds), *International handbook of education and development: Preparing schools, students and nations for the Twenty-First Century* (pp. 213-227). London: Pergamon.
- Tatto, M.T. (1997). The reach and potential of teacher education. In W. Cummings & N. McGinn (Eds.), *International Handbook of Education and Development: Preparing Schools, Students and Nations for the Twenty-First Century*. London: Pergamon.
- The Minority Rights Group. (1974). *The Namibians of South West Africa* (Report No. 19). London: Pergamon Press.
- The Minority Rights Group. (1985). *The Namibians of South West Africa* (Report No. 19). London: Pergamon Press.
- The Namibian*. (2001, January 31). Education emergency, pp. 1-2.
- The Namibian*. (2002, March 08). Preliminary census results made public. URL <http://www.Namibian.com.na/2002/March/news/02480A11F.html>
- The Namibian*. (2002, May 9). HIV hits education hard. URL <http://www.Namibian.com.na/Netstories/200/May/News/007B3A08F9.html>
- The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, Volume 2*. (1993). London: Oxford University Press.
- The Teacher*. (2002, January 25). The major challenges for education in 2002. URL <http://www.teacher.co.za/200201/challenges.html>
- Thomas, E., Sharma, M., Khanna, A., & Jatoi, H. (1993). *Professional development of teachers: Policy and practice in initial teacher training*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Tjitendero, M. (1977). *Examination of an alternative: A look at the primary and secondary education in Namibia*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.

- Tjivikua, M.K. (2001a). *An inquiry into the schooling of the marginalized*. Unpublished comprehensive examination, Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- Tjivikua, M.K. (2001b). *Considerations in national language policy formation: An indigenous perspective*. Unpublished comprehensive examinations, Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- UNAM. (1995). *First five year development plan 1995-1999*. Windhoek: University of Namibia.
- UNESCO. (1987). *Education in difficult contexts: Report of a technical working group meeting on training of primary education personnel*. Bangkok: Author.
- UNESCO. (1991). *The training needs of serving teachers: A sample survey*. Windhoek: Author.
- UNESCO. (1991). *World Education Report*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO. (1997a). *The learning of those who teach: Towards a new Paradigm of teacher education*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO. (1997b). *Teachers as lifelong learners: Case studies of innovative in-service teacher training programs in the E-9 countries*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO. (1998). *World education report. Teachers and teaching in a changing world*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO. (2000). *The EFA 2000 assessment country reports: Namibia*. Paris: Author.
- United Nations Institute for Namibia. (1981). *Toward a language policy for Namibia. English as the official language: Perspectives and strategies*. Lusaka: UNIN.
- University of Namibia. *Annual Report 1996*. Windhoek: Universal Printing.
- Varah, L.J., Theune, W.S., & Parker, L. (1986). Beginning teachers: Sink or Swim? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 30-34.
- Varah, L.J., Theune, W.S., & Parker, L. (1989). Beginning teachers: Sink or Swim? In Reinhartz, J. (Ed.), *Teacher induction* (pp. 81-92). Washington, DC: NEA.
- Vedder, H. (1966). *Southwest Africa in early times*. New York: Barnes & Noble Inc.

- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 54(2), 143-178.
- Winter, C.B. (1977). *Namibia*. Grand Rapids, MI: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co.
- Wong, H.K. (2002). Induction: The best form of professional development. *Educational Leadership*, 59(6), 52-54.
- Wong, H.K. & Wong, R.T. (1998). *How to be an effective teacher: The first days of school*. Mountain View, CA: Harry K. Wong Publications, Inc.
- World Bank. (1991). *Namibia: Poverty alleviation with sustainable growth*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Ya-Otto, J. (1981). *Battlefront Namibia*. Westport, CT: Lawrence Hill & Co.
- Zeichner, K.M., & Tabachnick, B.R. (1984). The impact of the student teaching experience on the development teacher perspectives. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(6), 28-36.
- Zeichner, K.M., & Tabachnick, B.R. (1999). Participatory development and teacher education reform in Namibia. In Zeichner, K. & Dahstrom, L. (Eds.), *Democratic teacher education reform in Africa: The case of Namibia* (pp. 207-221). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Zimpher, N.J. (1988). A design for the professional development of teacher leaders. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 53-60.
- Zungu, Y. (1977). The education for Africans in South Africa. *Journal of Negro Education*, XLVI(3), 202-218.



