

**CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT
SUPPORT PROGRAMME FOR VHEMBE RURAL- BASED
PRIMARY SCHOOLS EDUCATORS**

BY

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A thesis submitted to the faculty of Education in fulfilment of the requirements for the doctoral degree in the Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies at the University of Zululand


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DECLARATION

I, MANYAGE TSHIDAHO, hereby declare that this Thesis “Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe District rural-based primary schools educators” is my own work, both in conception and execution, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signed by  on theday of the2018.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved wife and family, for her immense love, encouragement and support; to my late Dad, Nditsheni Samuel Manyage and my loving Mom, Gladys Manyage for instilling the importance of hard work and education, to my loving and wonderful sons, Samuel and Mashudu, for their patience and sacrifice; to my incredible brother Tshisikhawe, may you also be motivated and encouraged to reach your dreams; always remember that even the largest task can be accomplished if it is done one step at a time.

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ABSTRACT

The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was adopted based on the principles of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) to improve the quality of education in both rural and urban areas since the change-over from apartheid education in 1994. The new curriculum was also introduced in order to shift from content to outcomes-based education which experienced marked implementation challenges. The main aim of this study was to investigate challenges facing educators in schools in the rural areas in the implementation of CAPS and develop a support programme for them to promote the quality of teaching and learning in these rural schools. This quantitative study used simple random sampling using a self-administered questionnaire to collect data from five hundred rural based educators. The instrument was shaped and enriched by consulting a wide range of literature on the subject to ensure its validity. Quantitative data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science 18 (SPSS 18) and Chi-square statistics. Results established challenges that educators are facing through lack of support programmes in the process of implementing CAPS in rural schools. It was also revealed that the majority of rural educators are not effective in implementing CAPS as they are not given support programmes. The findings of this study should assist in developing a support programme for rural based educators towards implementing the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement in a manner that it would promote quality teaching and learning. The study concludes that rural educators need to be supported for the implementation of Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement. The study recommends the implementation of the support programme to rural educators for the effective implementation of CAPS. Further research into the development of support programme in South African rural educators should be undertaken.

Keywords: Training, Programmes, Policy, Integration, Rural, Contents, Development, Methods.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
TDP	Teachers Development Programme
DoE	Department of Education
INSET	In- Service Education and Training
NGOS	Non-governmental organizations
HOD	Head of Department
SPSS	Statistical package for science
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
OSBA	Oregon School Boards Association
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
HDP	Holistic Development model
MSSI	Materials and surface science institute
SP	School improvement
ECD	Early childhood development programmes
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
OBE	Outcome-Based Education
HSRC	Human Science Research Council

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The education system during the apartheid era in South Africa was divided in terms of race and language and was funded and resourced in ways that favoured white minority and disadvantaged black people. Having combined the Education systems which were based on race into a single, democratic system, the Department of Education did not seem to recognize challenges experienced in schools in the rural areas. There are a number of schools in rural areas where challenges continue to dominate, resulting in some being declared dysfunctional. However, these schools are governed by the same curriculum, the same conditions of service, national legislation, policies like other public schools in the country (Michael, 2008).

Different countries view a support programme as central to education reform to sustain rural schooling. Countries such as Botswana, Ireland, Scotland and China view support programme of rural teachers as part of teacher management, and this is increasingly linked to the requirements of knowledge based societies and of lifelong learning (Zafeirakou, 2007; Adu & Okeke, 2014; Schleicher, 2016; Tait-McCutcheon & Drake, 2016).

School differ from one another, and that is an indisputable fact of life. These differences are evident for variety of reasons, not the least of which are the discriminatory funding policy of the previous government and continued social-economic gulf between racial groups that persist to this day (Morgan & Grayson, 2003). Furthermore, these researchers postulate that support programmes provided to educators are in the form of a cascade model of in-service training (INSET) consisting of short courses (one week) instituted in most areas. The pace and content of INSET assume a one size fit all approach.

The challenges facing rural educators in educational reform today are that the vision of practice that underlies the nation's reform agenda requires most educators to rethink their own practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations for

learner's outcomes, and teach in ways they have never taught before—and probably never experienced as learners (Mudzielwana, 2012). The success of this agenda ultimately turns on educators' (concept to be used interchangeably with teachers and includes principals) success in accomplishing the serious and difficult tasks of learning the skills and perspectives assumed by new visions of practice and unlearning the practices and beliefs about students and instructions that have dominated their professional lives to date (Mudzielwana, 2012).

Elmore (2002) emphasizes that changes in the school need to begin with the empowerment of the educators' knowledge and skills through professional development. The view is invaluable to any attempt aimed at assessing the relevance of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) to teachers. In this study, what Elmore says provided grounds for establishing how support materials may compel teachers to reflect on their taken-for-granted view of effective practice. Darling-Hammond (1996) states that the problem facing schools today is not necessarily declining academic quality but rather, the pressure on teachers to prepare learners from diverse backgrounds and capabilities at levels of competence prescribed by a standardized curriculum. Furthermore, Tomlinson (2003) argues that when learning material writers address the curriculum, a course book must not only be informed by curriculum aims, objectives and learning outcomes but also by the contextual needs. What the support materials are actually demonstrating to us is what needs to be foregrounded when policy is to be delivered. Frameworks should be more "principled, coherent and flexible" to provide a more theoretical justification for the different stages and sequences of the materials development process.

Tomlinson (2003) suggests that curriculum developers, materials developers and educators should use feedback to interact in an open dialogue. Those who constantly implement the curriculum need to work in partnership with stakeholders in education for them to promote the quality of teaching and learning. Educators need support in implementing curriculum, particularly if it has been recently introduced. They are curriculum implementers whose feedback for material improvement is crucial for publishers in order for them to improve and revising the materials. This would be in keeping with the empowerment principles advocated by Fetterman (2005) where all

stakeholders are involved in developing strategies and documenting and negotiating progress.

Although the textbook has the potential to influence the work of educators to provide a common curriculum particularly where school systems are fragmented or unequal, in practice, curriculum materials have played an uneven role in education (Ball & Cohen, 2014). Ball and Cohen suggest a number of reasons for this: Firstly, that insufficient consideration is given to how teachers need to learn how to use the new materials. Secondly, teachers play an important role in shaping the curriculum in fundamental ways, and their practice is strongly guided by their beliefs and values, understanding of the material, their own role and how they view their learners. They, therefore, elect and adapt materials to suit their own learners and classroom context. In this way, the materials become 'ingredients' rather than 'determinants' of the curriculum, and a 'gap' is created between what the designer intended and what occurs in practice. The third reason is that textbooks are frowned upon by teachers in favour of their own original teaching materials and as a reflection of their good teaching and professional autonomy.

However, little is known regarding the kind of support that these educators need for them to promote good quality teaching through CAPS. In this chapter, I present the general background of the study, followed by the statement of the problem, theoretical framework, aims and objectives of the study, research questions, literature review, empirical design and research methodology, ethical considerations and organization of chapters.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Educators do well in curriculum implementation where they are motivated. Maslow's theory (1943) states that people have esteem needs. This includes factors such as recognition, attention, social status and accomplishment (OSBA, 2009). However, the atmosphere of the South African education system has not motivated educators to the level where they positively promote the quality of teaching and learning as required by the CAPS curriculum; educators feel that they are not supported enough through continuing professional teacher development programme.

While there are efforts to develop educators on the implementation of CAPS in schools around the country, educators in rural schools remain neglected. The one size approach in teacher development programme is not working for the majority of educators in primary schools in rural areas. The schools in these areas remain, and their educators have not been trained to deal with the wider implications (Imemelman, 2010) of the curriculum introduced. It can, therefore, be envisaged that the implementation of the new curriculum would be fraught with challenges for teachers in primary schools in the rural areas which remain under resourced. It has been a while since the apartheid policies have been repealed, but the status quo in schools still remains. Primary school in rural areas experience poor human and physical conditions which contribute negatively towards promotion of quality teaching and learning as dictated by the introduction of the new curriculum. Based on the background given above, one assumes that there are challenges facing teachers in rural schools and that there is, presently, no support programme for teachers improve their teaching strategies in implement the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement.

The present study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- 1.2.1. What are the challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS?
- 1.2.2 What is the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learner academic performance?
- 1.2.3 What support programme can be developed for primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in the implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning?

1.3. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study was to develop a support programme for primary schools' educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning.

The objectives of the study were to:

- 1.3.1. Determine the challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS;
- 1.3.2. Determine the impact of the challenges rural primary school educators in Vhembe district are facing in CAPS implementation on learner academic performance;
- 1.3.3. Develop a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The research is envisaged to make an impact by contributing to curriculum implementation in education.

The main aim of this study was to develop a support programme for primary schools' educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning.

The significance and the contribution of the present study for a doctoral degree is envisioned as follows:

- The study revealed empirical evidence on challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in the implementation of CAPS;
- The findings of the study will assist in informing the kind of immediate support as an intervention strategy to improve the implementation of curriculum in rural-based schools; and
- The study will develop a support programme for curriculum implementation process.

Furthermore, it is envisaged that the study will benefit stakeholders in education at various levels of operation in the following ways:

- Provide feedback to curriculum developers on the implementation of curriculum in rural primary schools and thus be in a position to effect improvements that address problems uncovered;
- To provide strategies for supporting teachers for them to implement curriculum with a view to improving the quality of teaching and enhance educators' morale.
- Learners are the direct beneficiaries of a quality learning experience. The better the ability of a curriculum to anticipate and circumvent problems, the better the quality of learning experience.
- A foundation for further research on a similar topic covering a wider sample and different methodology will be laid.

Contribution to the new knowledge will be revealed by introducing new model to make an impact on the development of support programme for rural based primary school educators by contributing to curriculum implementation in education.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 Research paradigm

This study fell within a quantitative research approach. A positivist research paradigm foregrounds this study with the purpose of developing a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning. Quantitative research methods were deemed appropriate for meeting the aim of this study and have been used in a similar study on implementation of curriculum by (Maphalala, 2006; Mabusela, 2014).

1.5.2 Research design

The study design is a survey and involves data collection by means of questionnaire. A survey was deemed appropriate for this study as it provided a broad overview of a

representative sample of a large population. Quantitative research design is probably the best method available to a social scientist who is interested in collecting original data for describing a population which is too large to observe directly (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Kumar (2014) and Mills and Gay (2016) define quantitative approach as the best measurement of the properties of phenomena, which is the assignment of numbers to the perceived qualities of phenomena. Various educational studies have been undertaken using survey as the research design tool, and it has been shown to be a reliable tool in data collection (Maphalala, 2006; Bezuidenhout, Jager & Naidoo, 2013; Shumaba & Naong, 2013; Mabusela, 2016).

1.5.3 Research instrument

A questionnaire was used for collecting data and consisted of two sections. Section A was made up of four items which established biological details from the respondents. Section B comprised closed-ended items using a 5 point Likert Scale (Strongly Agree=SA, Agree, Not Sure=NS, Disagree=D and Strongly Disagree=SD) from which the respondents responded to the statement made. The questionnaire was pre-tested at school where the researcher is working before distributing them to the sample of participants identified. A pilot study was undertaken to establish any misunderstanding that could arise from the statements.

1.5.4 Sampling

According to Yin (2011), sampling methods refer to the process of selecting a subset of cases in order to draw conclusions about the entire set. Schumacher and McMillan (2010:38) define the concept sample as the number of individuals selected from a population for a study.

Simple random sampling was used to select 500 (10 educators from 50 primary schools) participants from 2000 educators from rural primary schools in Vhembe district in Limpopo Province. The researcher selected every fourth educator from the list of educators provided by the district to reach the required sample. No name of educator was revealed or attached to the questionnaire.

1.5.5 Data analysis

A computer loaded with the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program was used to analyze quantitative data from questionnaires as it is more powerful and accessible on the personal computer. It is advisable that in quantitative studies, data analysis should be coded by assigning numerical values to answers obtained from respondents (Kumar, 2014). Data captured from completed questionnaire were coded in excel and imported into SPSS. Creswell (2014) posits that statistical procedures that the researcher applies to the data are depended not only upon the purpose of the analysis, the way the researcher wants to communicate the finding to the reader and knowledge of statistical procedures, but also on the capabilities of the software. Frequency percentages and cross-tabulations using the Pearson Chi square were used to provide statistical evidence regarding issues related to the topic to address the research questions. Literature suggests that once the data has been correctly entered according to prescribed instructions, the possibility of errors is vastly reduced (Volcker & Asher, 1995).

1.6. TERM AND CONCEPTS IN THE STUDY

1.6.1 Educator

Educator is synonymous and used interchangeably with teacher. The South African School's Act 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996) is also of this position.

1.6.2 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

A National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement is a single, comprehensive, and concise policy document, which has replaced the Subject and Learning Area Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines for all the subjects listed in the National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 12 (DoE, 2011).

1.6.3 Support Programme

The term support programme refers to a planned response towards an identified need for action. It can also refer to wide variety of instructional methods, education service or school resources provided to teachers in the effort to help them improve the quality of teaching and learning (Ntakana, 2011).

1.6.4 Vhembe District

Vhembe is one of the 5 districts of Limpopo Province of South Africa and shares its northern border with Zimbabwe and Botswana; it is mostly covered by rural areas.

1.7. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Neuman (2014), contends that validity and reliability are salient issues because constructs in social theory are often ambiguous, diffuse and not directly observable. LeCompte and Goetz (1982), maintain that while validity is concerned with the accuracy of scientific findings, reliability is concerned with replicability of the research findings. According to Hammersley (2000), validity is the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers.

For this study, the instrument was shaped and enriched by consulting a wide range of literature on the subject to ensure its validity. A pre-test of the instrument was also carried out using ten rural primary school educators. These educators were excluded from the main study. A test-retest reliability of the instrument during the second round of administering the instrument yielded Cronbach's alpha of 0.81 which indicated a high internal consistency and reliability.

1.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Creswell (2014) asserts that most researchers who use a quantitative approach address the importance of ethical consideration. Macmillan and Schumacher (2010) indicate that ethics are generally considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or

wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. On the other hand, Chambers (2010) indicates that the ethics of science concern what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of research because scientific research is a form of human conduct which has to conform to generally accepted norm and values. The following ethical issues were considered for this study:

- Informed consent

Denzin and Lincoln (2008) indicate that this is the research's code of conduct, and that participants must agree voluntarily to participate without any physical or psychological coercion. The purpose of the study was clearly explained to respondents before completing the questionnaire survey. A covering letter requesting the respondents to participate in this study was provided explaining the value and the purpose of the study. All the participants were notified on how the information they are going to contribute will be utilized. After consulting the Department of Education, educators were further asked to sign the consent letter during the first phase of the study to verify their willingness to take part in the study. The consent form indicated clearly that their participation was voluntary.

- Confidentiality and anonymity

During the data collection process, respondents were informed that the data collected will be confidential and only used for the purpose of this study. Their names would not be revealed in any way, and that they may refuse to allow publication of any information that they think might harm them in any way. They were also assured that their refusal to take part is not punishable lawfully or in any other way.

- Respect for respondents

This study was not, in any stage, intimidating to the respondents and the interaction was characterized by mutual respect throughout the process. No deception of respondents occurred. The researcher also ensured that there was no misinterpretation or deliberate misrepresentation of facts provided by the respondents.

I have read the university policy and procedure on research ethics and its policy and procedures. I undertake to:

- Respect the dignity, safety and well-being of the participants and respect their anonymity and confidentiality;
- Acknowledge and attribute others' ideas, designs and writing that are not originals;
- Reference my work accurately according to my chosen reference technique;
- Seek ethical clearance certificate from the university of Zululand Research Ethics Committee to allow this study to progress; and
- Give each participant a consent form and covering letter that explains the purpose and nature of research.

1.9. RESOURCES

This research had no other resource implications. The resources that were available and used were adequate; other than the usual research and travel grants, no additional institutional resources allocations were required.

1.10. INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY AND INNOVATION

Other than the usual copyright issues, the researcher did not expect any special intellectual property rights to emanate from this research.

1.11. HARVESTING THE RESEARCH

The research topic, the thesis structure and the research methodology created the possibility of publishing articles from the material generated. I envisage submitting two articles to accredited journals, covering the following themes:

- Educators on the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement;
- Programme of support for rural based educators; and

- Educators' developmental strategies for the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement.

I would also present conference papers on the topic, both locally and internationally.

1.12. OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

This study's chapters are outlined as follows:

CHAPTER 1

The following components make up this chapter: motivation for the study, research context, significant of the study, statement of the problem, aim and objectives, research methodology, terms and concepts used in the study.

CHAPTER 2

This chapter presented literature review for the investigation. This involves the systematic identification, location and analysis of documents that contain information related to my research problem.

CHAPTER 3

This chapter presented a detailed research design and methodology of the study. It details how data were collected, organized and analyzed as well as how subjects were selected.

CHAPTER 4

This chapter consisted of presentation and analysis of data collected on the challenges faced by rural based educators in Vhembe District.

CHAPTER 5

In this chapter, the main findings, conclusions and recommendations to the study were presented.

1.13. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, an introductory overview of the intended study has been presented. The view of what the reader should expect in the research study has also been provided. The problem of research project was provided and elucidated. The aims of the research were clearly stated to indicate what the researcher intend to achieve by developing support programme for rural based educators in the implementation of the Curriculum Assessment Statement. The aim were followed by critical research questions which complement each other. The research design and methodology were explicitly stated so that the reader is clear of all the procedures to be followed throughout the process of the study, and finally the plan of the study was provided. The orientation of the study provided in this chapter serves as a point of departure for the presentation of literature study in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the literature review in which the researcher looked at different views held by different scholars about the development of a support programme for rural primary educators.

Education in South Africa has always been faced with many challenges which include resistance, inadequate educators' knowledge and skills, educators' development and training, resources, disparities between rural and urban schools and lack of support and monitoring. These are challenges might be affecting support programmes for teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools in South Africa. Most schools in rural areas are still inadequately resourced as compared to schools in urban areas which enjoy abundance of learning resources and suitable infrastructure (Tshiredo, 2013).

Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement was developed to strengthen and streamline National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), which was reviewed in 2000 and subsequently 2009 and became a policy as the RNCS in 2002 (Department of Education, DoE, 2007). The RNCS specifically re-affirms the change from teacher-centred teaching to learner-centred teaching promoted by C2005. Both C2005 and the RNCS form a two-part process in the revision of the National Curriculum that preceded 1994 (Manyage, 2013).

Chisholm (2005) states that the proposed revision by the then Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, was necessary in the light of existing inequalities of under-resourced schools which had large classes and many untrained educators in learner-centred education. The key principles that indicated changes in RNCS were the comprehensive outcomes and the assessment standards which indicate the skills and knowledge required. Teachers' lack of understanding of the curriculum teaching visions and goals in teaching a curriculum is becoming a worldwide challenge that

needs to be addressed in order to promote quality teaching and critical thinking (Berkvens, Van den Akker & Brugman, 2014). As a result of these challenges, teachers continue to teach without identifying and understanding their subject/curriculum visions and relevant goals. The vision is very important because it is at the centre of any curriculum and controls all curriculum concepts. Successful teachers in teaching start by identifying and understanding their curriculum vision followed by identifying relevant goals from their subject content. Curriculum visions are divided into personal, societal, discipline, professional and reconstruction visions. Understanding curriculum visions helps teachers to reflect on their teaching in order to improve their teaching practice (Khoza, 2016).

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is underpinned by Maslow's (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories of motivation. Maslow is a proponent of the hierarchy of human needs. According to him, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only if the deficiency needs are met. The Oregon School Boards Association (OSBA) (2009) postulates that school environments are a reward-scarce setting for professional work and often seem to work against educators' best efforts to grow professionally and improve learning. Aliber (2003) and Dilkes (2014) emphasise that a motivated teacher explores various pathways and alternatively enjoying the process of teaching along the way. Herzberg's theory of motivation was initially developed to describe the motivation of employees in an organization to deliver higher performance (Hout, Vier, Wilt, Broerse, Ruitenbergh & Wright, 2009). It has been assumed that individuals are capable and have the desire to move up the hierarchy towards achieving their full potential (McLeod, 2016).

It is imperative to note that the relevance of the three theories in this study shows that employees who are happy at work perform, while those who are unhappy are problematic regarding output. OSBA (2009) argues that teachers who do not feel supported are less motivated to do their best in the classroom. Researchers Bennel (2010) and Lumadi (2014) emphasize that there should be a strong bond between the Basic Department of Education as the employer and educators as employees, where

the employer should implement motivation strategies/ programmes to enhance educators' work performance.

This study is based on the theoretical assumption that educators perform well where there is a clear support programme in the curriculum implementation. Educators who were trained at college and universities for a particular curriculum have to be supported through different programmes and accommodate the new education dispensation regarding curriculum transformation and change.

Support is a phenomenon that affects all aspects of a person's life and brings about alterations in both personal and employment spheres. Bertels (2003) states that support can be described as the process of helping the individual to elicit present actions required for the future. It involves moving from a present state, through a transitional state, to a future desired state. The focus of support is to introduce an innovation that produces something better, hence the development of a support programme for principals and educators in the implementation of the new curriculum. A support programme and change, as a process, needs to be managed.

Given the poor training of teachers and lack of resources, as well as the toll that apartheid had inflicted on the education system, the majority of teachers found it difficult to grasp what to teach and tended to act as mere technicians without the necessary conceptual and content tools. Training plays an important role on the delivery of quality of teaching and learning through curriculum implementation in their respective schools (Lumadi, 2014). Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg (1964) are relevant in this study as they focus on educators' challenges in implementing the national curriculum, and in the process, result in high turnover.

According to Henning, van Rensburg and Smit (2005), a theoretical framework is a lens on which the researcher positions his or her study. It helps with the formulation of the assumptions about the study and how it connects with the world. It is like a lens through which a researcher views the world and orients his or her study. It reflects the stance adopted by the researcher and thus frames the work, thereby anchoring and facilitating dialogue between the literature and research.

Badugela (2013) states that a theoretical framework is a set of terms and relationships within which the problem is formulated and solved. It is a concise description of the major variables operating within the arena of the problem to be pursued together with the researcher's overarching view of how the variables interact to produce a more powerful or comprehensive model of relevant phenomena that has not heretofore been available for shedding light on the problem.

In this instance, the support programme motivates educators to do well in the implementation of the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement to promote quality teaching and learning. This also implies that the educators should be able to know the challenges and impact of challenges thereof, including relevant support programmes that will help them to implement Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement effectively (Badugela: 2013). Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories of motivation place the educator in a much more active role in the teaching and learning environment. Teaching and learning is modified and transformed based on the educator's cognitive structures, social interaction, previous learning and environment. Interaction with, and manipulation of programmes, is seen as critical to the development of curriculum, which is in the state of development and modification (Kutz, 1991).

According to Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories of motivation, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only the deficiency needs are met. Adam (2005) and Dilkes (2014) emphasise that a motivated teacher explores various pathways and alternatively enjoying the process of teaching along the way. Herzberg's theory of motivation was initially developed to describe the motivation of employees in an organization to deliver higher performance (Hout, Vier, Wilt, Broerse, Ruitenbergh & Wright, 2009). It has been assumed that individuals are capable and have the desire to move up the hierarchy towards achieving their full potential (McLeod, 2016). This study is based on the theoretical assumption that educators perform well where there is are clear support programmes and motivation. Empowerment processes must be planned in advance and needs analysis must be done to identify the areas for support to prepare for the ever-changing curriculum to accommodate the new education dispensation regarding curriculum transformation

and change. In Lumadi (2014), it was found that the majority of teachers (53 %) complained that they did not receive enough motivation and in-service training in preparation for Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).

Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010) agrees with Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories that motivated educators view knowledge as being actively constructed (by individuals, groups and societies), not simply transferred. These scholars further state that it constitutes the interest and the will to achieve, or to take on anything through engaging in experiences, activities, and discussions which challenge the educators to make meaning of their social and physical environment; educators are actively engaged in building a progressively more complex understanding of the curriculum. (Donald et al., 2010; Schunk, 2004).

Motivation is a phenomenon that affects all aspects of a person's life and brings about alterations in both personal and employment spheres. The focus of support is to introduce an innovation support programme that produces something better, hence the development of a support programme for educators in the implementation of the new curriculum. A support programme and change, as a process, need to be managed. Given the poor training of teachers and lack of resources, as well as the toll that apartheid had inflicted on the education system, the majority of teachers found it difficult to grasp what to teach and tended to act as mere technicians without the necessary conceptual and content tools. Motivation plays an important role on the delivery of quality of teaching and learning through curriculum implementation in their respective schools (Lumadi, 2014).

Educators do well in curriculum implementation where they are motivated. Maslow's theory (1943) states that people have esteem needs. This includes factors such as recognition, attention, social status and accomplishment (OSBA, 2009). However, the atmosphere of the South African education system has not motivated educators to the level where they positively promote the quality of teaching and learning as required by the CAPS curriculum; educators feel that they are not supported enough through continuing professional teacher development programme.

Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg (1964) are relevant in this study as they focus on educators' challenges in implementing the national curriculum, and in the process, result in high turnover. Motivational theories encourage educators' reflective thinking. For a new idea to be interconnected in a rich web of interrelated ideas, educators must find relevant ideas that they possess and bring them to bear on the development of the new idea (McLeod, 2016). This can only be realistic if there is a network of support and monitoring processes from the system and the school.

Educator's knowledge is enhanced when an educator is engaged with others working on the same ideas. Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories state that educators can share ideas and results, compare and evaluate strategies, challenge results, determine the validity of answers and negotiate ideas on which all can agree (McLeod, 2016). Vygotsky (1978) focused on social interaction as the key component in the development of knowledge. For example, educators learn more easily when they are motivated to discuss with their counterparts and when they are free to express themselves. Centre of Development Enterprise (2015) argue that the concept of support programme should be expanded to include educators' motivation and any other tools that can help educators to think about curriculum.

2.2.1 Understanding of support programme on different cognitive levels

Vygotsky, in his theory, asserts that the development of cognition in the young and the social construction of knowledge itself are related processes. Both involve the construction and transmission of values, information and ways of understanding through processes of social interaction (Donald et al., 2010). The theory (Vygotsky) stresses the role of the mediator in the developmental motivation of knowledge. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) incorporates the notion of active agency on the part of the teacher. He helps us to understand that knowledge is not passively received (Kay & Kibble, 2016). It is necessary only to show how the curriculum can be used by rural educators and those that will demonstrate that children understand effectively.

2.2.2 The impact of curriculum in rural schools

Van de Walle (2006) alleges that Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories suggests that teaching does not imply transferring information to learners. Furthermore, he explains that curriculum learning is not a process of passive imbibing of information from books. Van de Walle (2006) further charges that in contrast to the traditional classroom, curriculum advocates interaction in the classroom where learners are actively engaged in the process of learning and understanding. This is in line with Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) aims. Curriculum methods form the basis of the support programme (DoE, 2003). The approaches of the proponents of CAPS curriculum stress that educators should take the initiative in constructing their own understanding of curriculum (DoE, 2003). Van de Walle (2006) also claims that the layout of a curriculum designed with practical examples will encourage educators to engage in practical activities. Vaill (1996) also suggested that the curriculum environment should be enhanced by interactive displays of resources that will encourage active learning.

Motivated educators should be characterized by having their own ideas, realization and sharing with others, respect for the ideas of others, realization that mistakes are an opportunity for one to learn and grow as they are uncovered and explained, and coming to understand that curriculum makes sense (Maslow, 1943, Rogers & Herzberg, 1964). Whitin and Whitin (2006) and Marr (2000) argue that motivated educators believe that curriculum is an important tool that helps children to communicate and understand concepts, use group work and pair investigation in the classroom. They further allege that the report back sessions provide children with the chance to discuss their tasks and their involvement in them. These feedback sessions also give learners the opportunity for practical involvement and thus a chance to gain confidence. According Van de Walle (2006), teachers must make a shift from a teacher-centred to child-centred approach in the teaching of curriculum. He further claims that child-centred classes refer to classroom practices and activities that focus on the involvement of children. Van de Walle (2006) asserts that the practice of active participation in learning activities is an effective way to enable rural based educators' understanding of the curriculum.

Researcher's analysis has revealed that CAPS focused too much on the outcomes and neglected issues of support programme, and these were left to individual teachers to construct. In the past, outcomes centred on knowledge in the classroom, where it was reduced to the constructs that teachers and learners individually brought into the classroom, or became simply a product of classroom interaction through some form of progressive education. Some rural schools are referred to as dysfunctional, and this calls for the development of a support programme for educators in these areas. Every child deserves the right to education of quality, hence educators and principals need to be supported through programme of support.

This is consistent with how South African rural educators are expected to teach. Their roles include facilitation, mediation and support of learning. Motivated educators should always view learners as active participants in the learning process. Should learners experience barriers in this process, teachers are expected to mediate through learning support programme processes. The above discussion is relevant for the development of support programme for rural based educators in the implementation of Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).

2.3 CONCEPTUALISATION

Some key concepts are defined, with a view to guiding the readers' understanding of the issues in this study.

2.3.1 Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

The concept Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was first used by Department of Education in the DoE policy in 2009 and meant "Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement" whereby the learners' seven critical and five developmental outcomes were measured at the end of the learning process (Manyage, 2013). CAPS used these outcomes to design learning outcomes and assessment standards. Curriculum considers the process of learning as important as the content. Therefore, the child is seen holistically and cooperative group work is emphasized. There is participatory, learner-centred and activity-based education

(Department of Education, 2007). Furthermore, it emphasizes Integration and progression, high level skills and clarity and accessibility which were crucial to the understanding of OBE (Department of Education, 2007). CAPS is not a new curriculum according to the Minister of Basic Education but a revision of NCS.

Du Plessis (2012) views CAPS as an adjustment to what we teach (curriculum) and not how we teach (teaching methods). Du Plessis further discusses the methods to be used in CAPS in light of the debate and discussion about outcomes based education (OBE) being removed, stating that OBE is a method of teaching not a curriculum and that it is the curriculum that has changed (repacked) and not the teaching methods. Challenges experienced by educators with OBE has led to a new curriculum statement being formulated (Masondo, 2010).

2.3.2. Curriculum

Curriculum, as a field of study, is elusive and fragmentary and what it is supposed to entail is open to debate and even misunderstandings (Graham-Jolly & D Middlewood, 2011). Bogdan (1992) argues that curriculum is a broad concept which includes all planned activities and subject courses which take place during the normal school day. Furthermore, Bogdan (1992) and Christie (1999) emphasize that curriculum is everything planned by educators to help develop the learner and could include extramural activities, societies, sports debates or outings. Rocco (2003) views the curriculum as a selection from the culture of society: certain aspects of our way of life, certain kinds of knowledge, certain attitudes and values regarded as so important that their transmission to the next generation is not left to chance. Jansen and Christie (1999) viewed NCS as a curriculum that has been implemented in the South African schools.

2.3.3 Assessment

Assessment describes the level at which learners should demonstrate their achievement of their learning outcomes and ways of demonstrating their achievement. According to the DoE (2011), assessment shows how conceptual progression will

occur in the learning area/subject. The DoE (2007) asserts that assessment should measure learners on a continuous basis by employing the following strategies: observation and comment, portfolio, self or peer assessment, performance, verbal and written profile and monitoring assessments (Limpopo Province Department of Education, 2000). Assessments should help both the learners and educators to determine whether the agreed upon outcomes have been achieved. It should assist with the identification of learners' requirements and additional support through continuous monitoring of progress. External assessment would be done at the end of Grades 3 and 6 while comprehensive assessment would be conducted in Grades 9 and 12 (DoE, 2007).

2.3.4 Support programme

This concept has been defined as providing people with the opportunity and resources to enable them to believe and feel that they understand their world and have the power to change it (Bogdan, 1992). In this way, the educators' potential is optimally developed. Educators are seen as a curriculum agent whereby they are actively involved in the curriculum and can make it relevant and meaningful in a democratic environment. Educators have autonomy and are accountable so that independent decisions can be taken and their skills, knowledge and attitudes can be enhanced through developmental programmes of support (Bogdan, 1992).

2.3.5 Educator

According to Bernstein (2000), the term educator was mentioned in the National Policy Act of 1996; The South African Schools Act of 1996; The Gauteng Provincial School Act of 1995; The Educators Employment Act of 1994 and The Education Labour Relations Act of 1993 to mean one who teaches, educates or trains other persons or provides professional educational services (including professional therapy) at any educational institution. Such a person has their appointment and terms and conditions of employment regulated by the South African School Act of 1996. Educators reproduce, perpetuate and foster among the learners the vision of the state and meet output expectations that society has of them (Bernstein, 2000).

2.3.6 Rural based Primary School

Rural based primary schools are funded by the government from a public revenue on an equitable basis to ensure proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities (Jacobs, Vakalisa, & Gawe, 2004). Furthermore, the authors stated that every school is a juristic person with legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of the SASA No.84 of 1996. The governance of every public school is vested in its governing body.

Primary schools are divided into two divisions, namely, the Foundation phase and Intermediate phase. The Foundation Phase embraces Grades one, two and three, with the learners ranging in age from five to ten years old. The three learning areas focused on are Numeracy, Literacy and Life skills. The latter term includes Arts and Culture, Technology, Economic and Management Sciences, Life Orientation, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences (National Education Policy Act, 1996). The Intermediate Phase includes Grades four, five and six, with the learners ranging in age from eleven to fourteen years of age. The eight learning areas covered are Literacy, Arts and Culture, Technology, Mathematics, Natural Sciences; Life learning areas are more specialized so different educators teach different learning areas. This results in a variety of teaching styles and role models and will thus influence the learners' career paths (Jacobs et al. 2004). Both phases use the same terminology in the policy documents i.e. Focus area/themes, Learning Areas, Learning Programmes, Work Schedule, Multilingualism and Multiculturalism. Both Phases incorporate the seven critical and five developmental outcomes that were expounded by Spady who introduced OBE into South Africa (Jacobs et al. 2004).

This discussion below is structured in the following manner: Challenges facing rural educators in primary schools in the rural areas in the implementation of CAPS; The impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learner academic performance, Educators' support in implementing CAPS curriculum in the primary schools.

2.4. CHALLENGES FACING RURAL EDUCATORS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CAPS

This section deals with the challenges that faces rural educators in primary schools in rural areas towards the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement.

2.4.1. Rural educators' perception on curriculum development

The way educators perceive curriculum support might be the reason current curriculum support impacts negatively or positively on teaching and learning. Many educators seem to be confused and lack understanding of what curriculum support is. As Wallace and Fleit (2005) note, educators and administrators are faced with the degree to which they choose to accept or reject support programme change. Jackson (1992) points out that educators' lack of clarity concerning innovation skills and knowledge, as well as the unavailability of required instructional materials, reinforces their lack of motivation. This might be the cause of educators' resistance to change in curriculum innovation. Pretorius (1998) posits that there are many educators who consider themselves to be inadequately trained to work with curriculum. Furthermore, Lyman, Green and Dezendorf (2005) emphasize that the reality of educators' resistance to change has led to a significant amount of professional literature on understanding of the curriculum support and change environment and the development of the effective strategies to achieve curriculum change (Tshiredo,2013).

Weakness ranges from a skew curriculum structure, lack of alignment between curriculum and assessment, low quality of learning and teaching support material, lack of proper support programme, time frames that are unmanageable and unrealistic, inadequate teacher orientation and training to limited transfer of learning into classroom practice (Chisholm, 2005). It seems that the ANC government may have been too hasty in the development of a support programme for rural educators towards implementation of the curriculum policy to eradicate racism and sexism from the syllabus (Tshiredo, 2013). It is hoped that these weaknesses are being identified and removed through the production of new curriculum policy documents for Grade R – 9.

Elmore (2010) argues that educators' poor support programme on teaching and or professional background, limited resources and working in difficult environments will find it near impossible to improve the professional performance through this form of outcomes based curriculum. Jansen and Christie (1999) maintain that the language of innovations associated with outcomes based education was too complex, confusing and, at times, contradictory. Although the new curriculum has been simplified, its paperwork is likely to multiply the administrative burden placed on educators. Above all, outcomes based education trivializes curriculum content and describes instances of educators being unable to develop their own learning materials as exemplars.

2.4.2 In-Service Education & Training (INSET)

The first example is that of educators on the Further Diploma in Education programme (FDE) at the University of Witwatersrand who had attended courses, acknowledged the important role of materials in learning, and showed a keenness to make their own materials but had no confidence to develop their own. Educators attributed their inability to their own lack of creativity and not having a safe place to store these materials. Trying to establish how the FDE programme at WITS had influenced educators who participated in it, Adler and Reed (2002) categorized educators in relation to their teaching practices, reflective practices and gaps or mismatches between what they said (theory) and what they did (practice) and concluded that teacher's reflective practices had a strong influence on their ability to take-up new teaching practices.

The lesson for INSET providers here is to consider a teacher's professional capacities and context since they are integral to the reform process. In this particular study, what became clear was that even though training was introduced, the reality of the contexts in which educators worked and their capability to be effective in these contexts was not fully considered. The implications are that INSET providers need to take into account educators' professional capabilities and their contextual reality in the selection of approaches so that they are responsive or engage with the capabilities of the educators and the resources that are available in their contexts. It cannot be assumed that all educators have the necessary skills upon which a reflective approach can be

built (Adler & Reed, 2002). Another study demonstrating the same problem that Adler and Reed (2002) are writing about is Patton's (2002) study of a three-year (1995-1997) In-Service Education & Training (INSET) programme to implement reflective approaches in the training of qualified and underqualified primary school educators in Namibia. The project aimed to aid the implementation of reflective approaches through an action research approach, where the trainer, in a collaborative role, supported educators in conducting research into their own practice and in this way, support implementation of curriculum reforms. Patton (2002) posits that necessary reflective skills can only be developed if reflection is re-conceptualised to include another beginning level of reflection to replace the initial level, the technical - rational level. Furthermore, Patton argues that the transfer of reflectivity is a problem and questions the 'transfer' and appropriateness of a westernized concept of the reflective approach. In this instance, emphasis action research was used as a method to develop a structured reflection approach that was within the teacher's professional capability and was more suitable to the context within which these particular educators were situated. The second was to use Practice-Based Inquiry (PBI) to develop the skills of educators and enable them to translate the educational goals into practice since the Ministry of Education expected educators to critically examine aspects of their teaching, develop problem-solving approach (Patton, 2002).

2.4.3. Educators' training approach

The assumption that educators were uncomfortable with a training approach which focused on their own experiences and ideas is supported by Onwuegbuzie and Leach (2004) who noted that many were uncomfortable with group dynamics, self-analysis and consciousness raising. However, Pryor (1998) described educators as seeing themselves as operatives rather than agents. Above all, it can be argued that educators have not been trained to use reflection to improve their teaching practices and did not know the methods and approaches for higher-order reflective skills such as comparing, analyzing, synthesizing and brainstorming.

In a research done in Malawi by Onwuegbuzie and Leach (2004), it was found that one of the limitations of reflection was precisely that few participants had a wide

enough store of educational knowledge – either of the subject or professional issues – to bring to bear on the problems encountered, so links to meaningful theory were hard to make. A structured reflection approach, about which these authors are writing, is based on a social constructivist view of adult learning. Pajares (1992) is of the idea is that learning is more likely to take place where educators have subject and pedagogical knowledge to draw on in their efforts to understand and structure curricula. As a result, learning and cognition are integrally linked. This concurs with Prawat's (1997) work on vocabulary teaching, that warned against using approaches based on an assumption that knowing and doing take place separately as this ultimately ignores situated learning practices which structure cognition. Rozenholtz (1989) saw such situated learning as involving the transformation of theoretical concepts into practice, and, therefore, believe that the way in which the concept is used reveals how it is understood. Although educators had a good understanding and awareness of the role of learning materials, their motivation for not wanting to design their own materials was due to feeling that they did not have the skills required, that it was not their responsibility, that it was not part of the syllabus and this was drawing them away from their main responsibility which was to ensure that the learners passed their exams (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999). The fact that rural educators have to deal with many changes, with them not understanding what is expected from them, might be the cause of their resistance and negative attitudes towards the curriculum change endeavour.

Wallace and Fleit (2005) state that the acceptance dilemma occurs when educators have to deal with curriculum constraints such as texts, tests, lack of a support programme and staffing as well as systemic constraints such as curriculum guidelines, calling for particular methods of instructions or assessment. Therefore, there could be a considerable mismatch between “what is said and what is done” in schools. Furthermore, rural educators still need to face challenges of adapting with the local environment and some constraints that hinder their progress to implement the changing curriculum needs. Barab and Lechmann (2002) state that while rural educators are still adapting with the curriculum to meet the local needs, they are doing that under more challenging constraints for example, larger classes, difficult behaviour and higher profile accountability. This led to local adaptation that resulted in less

reform type classroom instruction. As a result, this might be the cause of rural educators' frustration and negative attitudes toward curriculum change and support.

Rural educators are still struggling with the sudden changes of policies and approaches in the curriculum and are still facing challenges on whether to adopt or resist the new changes while facing those challenges. The fact that educators are expected to implement one change after another in the curriculum might be the cause of their attitudes toward curriculum reforms which lead them to resistance in knowledge and skills. Bantwini (2009) argues that when rural educators are exposed to or trained in new knowledge and skills, they often resist or reject the new support programme, knowledge and skills. They sometimes select what they want and delay acceptance of new reforms until other innovations supersede them (Tshiredo, 2013). Samson and Vally (1996) argue that educators need to firstly understand what they are doing and why they are doing it, and through a common understanding, they would then have been able to achieve the required objectives. This is important because if collaboration and collegiality among educators, specialists, writers and publishers is to be promoted, it is incumbent upon the policy mediators to ensure that educators are fully informed and can value and share in the goals of the innovation. These educators' accounts did not reflect an understanding of the underlying concepts and principles, which were supposed to inform their practices.

It could be argued, drawing on the studies referred to earlier, that educators in South Africa still appear to be functioning as in previous years, and not appreciating the paradigm shift that has occurred in curriculum policy. Their efforts to implement the new policy reflect a lack of understanding of its essence (Samson & Vally, 1996). Reed (n.d) claims that designers, as mediators of this new policy, have not made the shift, some designers still imagine educators, learners and curriculum in ways that do not sufficiently recognize social, cultural, economic and linguistic diversity within and beyond South Africa. Furthermore, the author argues that textbook designers in South Africa have to visualize three readerships: learners, educators and education department officials when they prepare their texts. Above all, the author is worried that although their work is informed by C2005 and explicit reference is made to it in the introductions to the texts, these designers have not made the shift to the new teaching methodologies linked to multi-literacies. The author also claims that the message,

which is in the introduction to one of the five textbooks in her study, is meant to reassure educators that they will find a lot that is familiar in the new textbooks. The message is: This revised edition of Advance with English Grade 9 has been rewritten to meet the requirements of outcomes-based education. It contains all those original tried and tested features of the course that educators have appreciated over the years, together with a number of brand new features. Reed (n.d) claims that although this outcomes-based version of a textbook is purported to be in line with the latest teaching practices, it appears to be based on earlier pedagogies than current ones. Shepard (2000) emphasizes that the designers are not placing sufficient emphasis on raising the teacher's consciousness, particularly with regard to support programme.

2.4.4. Teacher shortage in South Africa

There are schools that are still under-resourced in the South African education system, particularly in rural areas (Kutame, Maluleke, Netshandama, & Ramakuela, 2014). Furthermore, these researchers posit that educators in these schools still remain poorly motivated and lack skills to provide quality teaching as dictated by the new curriculum. While the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) recommended the RNCS revision for its clarity and accessibility and expressed support for the underlying principles of the revised curriculum (Chisholm, 2005), they did, however, not indicate how teachers in rural areas should be supported as the conditions under which they are working are not similar to those in urban areas. Chisholm (2005) states that the revision by the then Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, was necessary in the light of existing inequalities of under-resourced schools which had large classes and many untrained teachers in learner-centred education.

There is a teacher shortage in South Africa (SA), particularly in rural areas (Department of Education (DoE), Republic of South Africa, 2005; Pretorius, 2008; SACE, 2010). The 26 higher education institutions (HEIs) in SA are primarily responsible for the training of teachers, and together with a number of private institutions, they currently deliver only approximately 13,000 new teachers annually, while the demand is for around 18,000 teachers, and growing year by year (Model Induction Programme, 2013). A UNESCO Press (2013) study shows that the teacher

shortage is a worldwide phenomenon, where 1, 6 million additional teachers were required in primary education alone by 2015, and that this number would rise to ±5, 1 million by 2030. The study also shows that the situation in Sub-Saharan Africa is the worst, with nearly one third of the countries with a teacher shortage being situated here. The fact that the number of school-age children in the region is growing explains why more teachers need to be trained in this region (Barry, 2016). One of the effects of the shortage of teachers in schools is that the learner numbers in classes are high. To help address the shortage of teachers and to ensure smaller learner numbers in classes, the implementation of assistant teachers has become an option (Local Government National Training Organisation [(LGNTO), 2001]. According to Ori (2013), this type of model has been practiced in countries around the world, such as England and the Netherlands (Barry: 2016). To meet the demand for more teachers in South African schools, more teachers need to be trained, which has resulted in a growing enrolment of prospective teachers at HEIs. Increase in more learners puts pressure on the existing infrastructure, as well as on the staff component of HEIs. In S.A., as in other countries, there is pressure on universities to widen access by utilizing technology and other measures, such as the implementation of online and/or blended learning (Neuman, 2014).

To expand accessibility for prospective teachers in SA, a relatively large South African university introduced a Session Based Test Management SBTM for the training of teachers and embarked on implementing this model in 2003. The SBTM aimed at students being trained as teachers, while at the same time, affording them practical exposure as assistant teachers in a school. Gaining experience in the workplace is known as work-based learning (Department of Higher Education & Training, Republic of South Africa: 2011), which is an important training method in various professions, as well as trades like the medical profession (Barry, 2016).

Zamamuzi (2005) posits that teacher development associated with the new curriculum inevitably poses difficulties, and there is widespread consensus that the programmes implemented have been insufficiently effective [Centre for Education Development (CEPD), 2000]. He further said that the state's evaluation of its own pilot programme (DoE, 1997), which is widely regarded as excessively optimistic (Fleisch, 2002),

concludes that insufficient time has been allocated to INSET and recognizes the need for more extensive support programme for educators and principals.

Naicker (1999) and Zamamuzi (2005) state that the initial programme of five-day “crash courses” simply did not work. A long list of training inadequacies was consistently reported (Mkhabela, 1999; GICD, 2000:1; Malcolm, 2000) while the curriculum was rolled out. Participating educators complained about the inappropriate length and timing of workshops, the dubious knowledge and competence of facilitators, lack of consistency between the training and methodologies, and insufficient focus on the practical application of methodologies in the school and the classroom. In province like Gauteng, up to two-thirds of educators found the training they received unsatisfactory, calling for more practical and school-focused forms of teacher development and a slower rate of curriculum change (Mabusela 2016). The evidence is persuasive: Alternative models of teacher development are urgently required if the implementation of Curriculum is to succeed.

The government’s coercive mode in education and its repressive actions during the last three years are not conducive to effective INSET. A highly sophisticated and effective system of INSET cannot easily arise from or be grafted onto an education system suffering from major weaknesses, disparities and tensions, especially if the “population group” exclusiveness of educational provision inhibits or prohibits the interchange and interaction of initiative, expertise and ideas (Zamamuzi,2005). Initiation into Curriculum itself also posed problems and due to major changes envisaged, the education Department required educators to attend in-service training on it.

In Gauteng, each school was expected to send one Grade 9 teacher in each of the eight learning areas, but the aims, objectives and purpose of the workshops were not disclosed in advance. Most of the attendees did not know how to develop a curriculum, did not work as a team and did not involve other educators in their school work. Moreover, although rural and urban educators came from vastly different backgrounds and their schools had different resources, all were expected to go back to school and

implement Curriculum 2005 after the one-week training. Follow-up programmes were promised (Zamamuzi, 2005).

2.4.5. The new curriculum changes in South Africa

Prior to democracy in 1994, the South African education system was divided along racial lines which resulted in unequal distribution of resources between historically white and black schools. Historically, white schools tended to be well resourced compared to black schools. Soon after the installation of a democratically elected government in 1994, the Ministry of Education introduced a White paper on education and training in 1995 (Mabusela, 2016). The White paper provided a policy framework for the development of a new curriculum in the post-apartheid South Africa and also proposed the development of alternative curriculum based on the principles of access, redress, equity, credibility, quality and efficiency, thus transforming the curriculum in order to address the inequalities of the past (DoE, 1995). Taole (2015) posits that a curriculum reform was important for South Africa in order to adapt to changing world and to improve quality and equity. Mohaeka and Mahao (2015) argue that global patterns of educational change have been one of the major reasons for development of new education policies in many countries worldwide. This initiative resulted in the introduction of the curriculum framework that was to introduce outcomes based education (OBE) in the education system. This curriculum framework called Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was introduced in 1997 (Department of Education: 1997).

C2005 was a radical move away from the school curriculum of the apartheid dispensation which was seen to be irrelevant since it was geared to the needs of minorities (Pretorius, 1998; Jansen & Christie, 1999; Blignaut, 2008; Mabusela, 2016). C2005 became the first major curriculum statement of the post democratic South Africa, deliberately intended to simultaneously overturn the legacy of apartheid education and take South Africa into the 21st century. However, the failed plan to implement C2005 from 1998 to 2005 led to its revision in 2001. Above all, Neuman (2014) emphasizes that C2005 was problematic in both its approach and implementation as too much was on acquisition of skills without sufficient content knowledge and subsequent proper training which was driven by the cascade model of

training. Unfortunately, it has been stated that there was some ideological resistance in the revision of C2005, and the imbalance was not sufficiently redressed and the different specific subject contents remained under-specified (Neuman, 2014; Maluleka, 2015).

Change in curriculum can arouse emotions and despair; at the same time, if taken positively, it can raise hope, growth and progress. Tshiredo (2013) and Jacobs et al. (2016) point out that despite training that is meant to prepare rural educators for changes in curriculum, educators always show signs of confusion, lack of support and struggle to apply change in their classrooms. Furthermore, Jacobs et al. (2016) emphasize that the adoption of new approach, CAPS, has shifted the emphasis of learning and teaching away from rote learning to concrete educational results called outcomes. However, Chisholm (2005) posits that the roles of rural educators as transmitters of knowledge changed to facilitators to help learners achieve the desired goals, and the classroom activities mainly focused on a learner-centred approach.

Manyage (2013) states that after 1994 in South Africa, the democratically elected African National Congress (ANC) led government started to introduce changes in education and training system in order to redress the inequality brought about by the previous apartheid led government. A new national curriculum known as CAPS (2009) was adopted in 2010. The curriculum was based on the principles of outcomes based education also known as OBE (DoE, 2011). The advent of a new democracy and global market and needs in South Africa pushed for new reforms in curriculum, which led to the Recurriculation to CAPS. CAPS' curriculum embraced the conceptualization of what Spady helped to consolidate in South Africa. CAPS still emphasizes the constructive approach that supports use of cooperative group learning and the outcomes that the learner will achieve at the end of the lesson (Jacobs, 2016). It builds on the vision and values of the Constitution in a streamlined manner. The National Education Policy Act, 1996 No. 27 states that the learner should be numerate, literate and be a productive citizen of South Africa.

Attention is given to co-operative group work, active discussion, learner-paced and learner-centred education, as well as instilling the correct skills, values and attitudes.

The educator is envisaged to comply with the Norms and Standards for Educators of 2000 (National Education Policy Act, 1996). Educators are mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of Learning Programmes, researchers, lifelong learners, community members, assessors and learning area phase specialists (National Education Policy Act, 1996).

The Department of Education (2011) states that in both the Foundation and Intermediate Phases, system of education is regarded as the tool whereby the holistic learner is emphasized. The learner must progress at his or her own pace, achieve the relevant outcomes at the end of the process and be assessed continually throughout the year. Assessment should help the learners to make judgments about their own performance, set goals for progress and provoke further learning (Gee, 1990). In both phases, critical outcomes (the stress on problem solving, decision making and effective communication) and developmental outcomes (highlights entrepreneurial opportunities, explores educational and career opportunities and encourages cultural sensitivity) are taught (Gee, 1990). According to the researcher, the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is not a new curriculum but a streamlined and strengthened version of Curriculum 2005. The NCS became an official government policy in May 2002 and states clearly what each learner should achieve in terms of learning outcomes standards by the end of each grade (DoE, 2011).

2.4.6. Transformation of education

It is part of the process of transforming education and training to realize the aims of our democratic society and of the Constitution. As far as the researcher is concerned, the OBE approach, integration, learning programmes in the foundation phase and eight learning programmes in the senior phase remain; Maths and languages remain separate learning programmes in the intermediate phase, and the only difference is that they have been repackaged the curriculum (DoE, 2011). The changes made to NCS attempted to relieve educators and schools of some of the challenges experienced as a result of the current curriculum and assessment policies. This would free up more time for teaching and learning. The report recommended targeted support for educators and schools.

The following were some of the changes that were recommended: develop syllabi for implementation in 2011, discontinue the use of portfolios from 2010, reduce the number of learning areas in Intermediate Phase, emphasize the use of English from as early as possible for the majority of learners that use English as a language of learning, require only one file for administrative purposes from educators, clarify the role of subject advisers and reduce the number of projects required by learners (DoE, 2011). Jansen and Christie (1999) state that economics researchers established that schooling is an investment that forms human capital, and that it is knowledge, skills and problem-solving ability that have enduring value. While a country receives a good return on investment in education at all levels from nursery school and kindergarten through college, the researcher reveals that the returns are highest from the early years of schooling where children are learning to read. Above all, Jansen and Christie (1999) emphasize that early years set the stages for later learning without the ability to read, excellence in high school and beyond is unattainable. The policy stipulates an increase in contact time for Numeracy and Literacy. It is sound educational practice that all three are done every day. Davis (2003) argues that the provision of assessment standards for each grade will greatly assist educators in planning, assessment and in making decision around progression. Moodley (2013) states that as societal expectations and political and social priorities change, they place new demands on schools and educators.

Amimo (2009) posits that there will never be a perfect curriculum for all ages as the environment keeps changing and creates new needs in the society. The curriculum has to change continuously in order to address these needs. DoE (2011) emphasizes that the curriculum, as stated in the constitution of South Africa, provided the basis for the transformation. Its aims, as stated in the preamble, were to heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights, among other things (HSRC, 2009).

Cañas, Novak and González (2004) in Moodley (2013) argue in favour of the importance of change as a component of curriculum dynamics, and that this should be studied and managed for a better future. Literature shows that the implementation

challenges of C2005 started almost immediately after 1998, and the Department of Education was unable to stick to its time table. The minister's office was ready to start the process, but educators were not properly prepared and trained to cope with the new system (Gallo, 2016). There were no support and monitoring mechanisms in place for those who would be stressed by the process. The philosophy behind OBE and training was not fully understood in the education system and by some provincial education departments responsible for implementation (Maphalala, 2006; Van Rooyen & Prinsloo, 2003). Taole (2015) and Mabusela (2016) argue that C2005 brought challenges of greater professional autonomy which required teachers to have new knowledge and applied competencies, including the use of technology in planning and presenting their lessons.

What became known as OBE training for educators was clearly problematic, given that the time between the completion of curriculum development and its implementation was not sufficient for optimal training of educators. The Department of Education provided 40 hours training (per educator) to prepare educators for the curriculum, while principals were not trained at all (Gauteng Department of Education, 2005; Lessing & De Witt 2007). Mabusela (2016) posits that the Department of Education and its various provincial counterparts had no choice but to provide crash course training for educators (Mabusela, 2016). The main problem with these teacher training workshops was that they were presented during school holidays, and teachers felt that they need the school holidays to recover from all their hard work during the term (Lessing & De Witt, 2007). Training was contracted to a range of consultants and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), hence the quality of training was uneven. The cascading models which were used during training was problematic since many educators were not sufficiently equipped to replicate the training with their districts and schools (Chisholm, 2004).

2.4.7 Curriculum implementation

The implementation of the National Curriculum Statement was problematic to the culture of teaching and learning in various South African schools. If challenges experienced by educators, such as inadequate resources, financial constraints and

lack of training, are not addressed, this will have far-reaching consequences not only for our education system but also for the type of skilled learners that will be produced and for the economic growth of the country (Badugela, 2013). She further said that the introduction of OBE in South African schools brought complex curriculum reform with inadequate preparation and support for already insecure educators who were expected to play central roles in its implementation. Stoffels (2004) examines why classroom practices are hard to change. Against the background of the implementation of the post-apartheid outcomes-based curriculum reforms, he critiques popular scholarship that explains policy failure in terms of resources or teacher resistance to imposed reform concerns the (mis)alignment between the intended curriculum and the cultural values of educators. Since cultural values are deeply personal and inform pedagogical practice, no reform process can ignore the values of educators as the agents of change. In educational change, a teacher's role is central, and change theories which ignore the personal domain are bound to miss its objectives. Smit (2001) states that the role of principals and educators can no longer be overlooked, for policy change will not have the desired effect if they are not accompanied by a supportive process intended to strengthen the role of principals and educators. However, OBE was a problematic and contentious issue. It did not appear to be working at a classroom level (Jansen & Christie, 1999; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999) and its focus seemed to be vocationally orientated because of its labour and economic links to the NQF (Samson & Vally, 1996; Chisholm & Fuller, 2005). He further said that while the most hype has declared that the outcomes based education (OBE) is dead and the country will get a totally new curriculum, this has been disputed by other educationist, resulting in mixed messages and considerable public confusion (Elmore, 2010).

According to Manyage (2013), research has documented the impact of educators' beliefs on instructional practices. Personal belief systems strongly influence what educators learn from educational reform schemes, and these belief systems affect educators' curricular and instructional decision-making and teaching. However, educators tend to adopt new classroom practices when the assumptions underlying new practices conform to their epistemological beliefs (Fetterman, 2001). It is as if beliefs form an intuitive screen through which teaching reforms are interpreted (Ball,

2002). For example, educators with more traditional beliefs about teaching and learning tend to use didactic instructional methods, whereas educators with more constructivist beliefs tend to use student-centred, inquiry-based methods (Brunner, 1999).

Recent studies of educators' conceptions of teaching and learning generally agree that educators own a finite number of conceptions of teaching and learning. Educators' views on teaching range from a view of teaching as imparting knowledge or information presentation learning views (Giroux, 1992). Manyage (2013) states that literature also contains several conceptions of learning, and the most dominant of these are the six ways to understand learning, as suggested by Elmore (2002). This view proposes a conception of learning as a continuum of three views reflecting a quantitative view, or a surface approach to learning that conceives learning as a process of memorizing and reproducing materials, and three views of learning that conceive learning as a meaning-making process, thus reflecting a deep view of learning. Particularly, beliefs about learning range from a view of learning as increasing one's knowledge, through a view of learning as applying and understanding knowledge, to a view of learning as a continuous change process in which understanding new things makes one grow and change as a person (Kember & Kwan, 2000).

Gutmann (1995) states that educators' beliefs have a powerful effect on teaching and learning, and that key serves as a filter for educators' instructional and circular, and decisions and actions. Based on the complex, non-linear pattern of belief change reflected in the idea of multiple conceptions (Gutmann, 1995) and on the theory of complex developmental stages (Kelly, 1995; Wenger, 1998), researchers challenge the idea that different paradigmatic beliefs are not necessarily contradictory. They also argue that individuals do not have to choose between beliefs and explore this through a longitudinal analysis of educators' beliefs on teaching and learning in the context of their teaching in a trans-disciplinary curriculum. Such researchers examine not only educators' explicit explanations of their views of teaching and learning but their metaphors of teaching and learning-which have the power to enhance the educators' understanding of educational concepts and processes. Due to lack of a single term to describe educators' educational beliefs, we use the terms beliefs, personal theories,

perceptions, and views on teaching and learning interchangeably, even though slight differences exist in the various interpretative terms, with each mirroring a different aspect of belief (Richardson,1996). Taylor and Vinjevold (1999) argue that in the context of South Africa, it is unrealistic and impractical to expect educators to possess and put into practice the competences implied in the new curriculum without training or support in the required skills. The skills that are required are the ability to: understand and interpret support programmes provided by the DOE; design their own developmental programmes; analyze barriers to learning which may be overcome by the design and creation of innovative support programmes; prepare lessons that take into account the needs of learners as well as new teaching methods/approaches; understand how these learning materials can be utilized to create more flexible and individualized learning environments; evaluate and adapt support programmes and materials through learner assessment and feedback from learners.

In short, the new policy expects a very sophisticated degree of curriculum literacy from educators. Professional development initiatives have to help develop and or reinforce this literacy (Manyage, 2013). Nsibandé and Modiba (1999) support the need for clarifying conceptual underpinnings of policy in teacher development support programmes. They found that limited understanding constrained the effective promotion of the continuous support programme in their study on Swazi educators who were expected to implement it. Robinson (2003) argues that it is difficult to implement a ‘sophisticated policy reform within a context of difficult educational and social circumstances’. According to her, at neither the conceptual level, nor at the policy implementation level, was the ability of the teacher to ‘make sense of the task’ taken into consideration by policy, in particular, regarding the prescribed roles of educators. Therefore, it is important for the policymakers to follow the implementation process closely because if educators are not able to understand the requirements or identify with the policy, then its goals may not be fulfilled.

Concepts such as practical, foundational and reflexive competences that are essential to the implementation of the policy requirements need to be clearly understood. Furthermore, Robinson (2003) illustrates four categories that should be used to understand how educators experience policy reform. They are: personal motivation; professional interaction or communities of practitioners; systematic support or a

reform-supportive infrastructure; and the global, national, social, political and economic contexts. Informed by these insights, examining the curriculum support programme would be useful to ascertain whether they encourage educators to interact professionally and begin supportive structures in which they can collaborate with their colleagues, discuss and clarify for each other the requirements of the policy and what is essential for translating them into effective teaching strategies (Manyage, 2013). Challenges facing educators in educational reform today are that: The vision of practice that underlies the nation's reform agenda requires most educators to rethink their own practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations for student outcomes, and to teach in ways they have never taught before – and probably never experienced as learners. The success of this agenda ultimately turns on educators' success in accomplishing the serious and difficult tasks of learning the skills and perspectives assumed by new visions of practice and unlearning the practices and beliefs about learners and instructions that have dominated their professional lives to date (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).

Manyage (2013) emphasizes that changes need to begin with the teacher's knowledge and skills because the empowerment of the teacher in the form of professional development, rather than structural changes that lead to changes in pedagogy. The view is invaluable to any attempt aimed at assessing the relevance of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) to educators. In this study, what Elmore says provided grounds for establishing how a support programme compels educators to reflect on their taken-for-granted view of effective practice. Darling-Hammond (1996) states that the problem facing schools today is not necessarily declining school quality but rather the pressure on educators to prepare learners from diverse backgrounds and capabilities at levels of competence prescribed by a standardized curriculum. According to Tomlinson (2003), when material writers address the curriculum a course book must not only be informed by curriculum aims, objectives and learning outcomes but also by the context, needs and capabilities of the teacher who has to put it into practice. What the support programmes are actually demonstrating to us is what needs to be foregrounded when policy is to be delivered. Furthermore, Tomlinson (2003) argues that editors should address questions about the use of course books by educators. The argument from this author is that writers should use this as a framework to guide the materials development process. Frameworks should be more

“principled, coherent and flexible” to provide a more theoretical justification for the different stages and sequences of the materials development process. He further suggests that curriculum developers, materials developers and educators should use feedback to interact in an open dialogue. Feedback from both evaluation and piloting is useful to publishers for improving and revising materials. This would be in keeping with the empowerment principles advocated by Fetterman (2005) where all stakeholders are involved in the three stages of developing a mission statement, taking stock, developing strategies and documenting and negotiating progress. Feedback would be integral to this process. According to Ball and Cohen (1996), although the textbook has the potential to influence the work of educators and provide a common curriculum particularly where school systems are fragmented or unequal. In practice, curriculum materials have played an uneven role in education and suggest a number of reasons for this. Firstly, insufficient consideration is given to how educators’ need to learn how to use the new materials.

Secondly, educators play an important role in shaping the curriculum in fundamental ways and their practice is strongly guided by their beliefs and values, understanding of the material, their own role and how they view their learners. They, therefore, select and adapt materials to suit their own learners and classroom context. In this way, the materials become ‘ingredients’ rather than ‘determinants’ of the curriculum and a ‘gap’ is created between what the designer intended and what occurs in practice. A third reason is that textbooks are frowned upon by educators in favour of their own original teaching materials and as a reflection of their good teaching and professional autonomy. “This hostility to texts, and the idealized image of the individual professional, have inhibited careful consideration of the constructive role that curriculum might play” (Ball & Cohen, 1996:94).

There is little or no dialogue or consultation between educators and designers (Ball & Cohen, 1996). What these authors are advocating is a need to pay closer attention to the enacted curriculum and not set the curriculum materials apart from educators and learners in the classroom. This would require designers to consider the interactive role played by educators, learners and materials in the enacted curriculum when they design their materials. A framework for textbooks, which Tomlinson (2003) finds interesting, is that of Jolly and Bolitho (1998), which includes identifying the need for

materials; exploring that need; the contextual realization of materials; the pedagogical realization of materials; the production of materials; the use of materials by learners; and finally, the evaluation of the materials against the objectives. Educators' books are to provide guidance and should have notes which are useful and explicit; there should be tape scripts in the course book, answer keys, vocabulary lists, structural/functional inventories, a description of the unit template, a rationale and lesson summaries included. The materials should allow opportunities for educators to adapt and localize these to suit their context. They should allow for teacher agency so that the teacher can add, delete, change and improvise where desired and also have a choice and control over the content. Educator guides should also allow for reflection and encourage innovation and experimentation especially with regard to implementing curriculum change. The teacher should be encouraged to be creative, imaginative and exploratory and also to reflect on and evaluate the lessons provided Tomlinson (2003) argue that: A good teacher's guide will supplement materials with useful alternatives and adaptations, but where this does not happen or a teacher does not have the teacher's guide, adaptation will become part of the creative dialogue between educators and published materials.

Neuman (2014) disagrees and argues that because evaluation and adaptation are important in the learning process, this should not be left to chance but should rather be built into the development of the materials. He further asserts that time and training should be set aside so that educators can develop these skills.

2.4.8 Learning materials

Ball and Cohen (1996) believe that if materials are well-designed, they could be a resource for teacher learning and professional development. They suggest that when new materials are introduced, consideration should be given to the provision of instruction to educators on how to use them. Educators should be encouraged to engage with the materials in a manner that would be capacity-building by encouraging professional development and improving their teaching performance. What are the implications for designers of support programme? Ball and Cohen (1996) state that: If we want the intended curriculum best to contribute to the enacted one, we must find ways to design the first with the second clearly in view. This would entail a redrawing

of the boundaries (framing) between curriculum materials and educators and a closer relationship between the enacted curriculum of educators and how designers construct curriculum materials. If educators and designers are seen as partners in practice, then the curriculum and designers' work should be re-conceptualized (Bernstein, 2000) as sites for teacher learning and curriculum materials should provide opportunities for educators to learn. This means that instead of seeing the textbook, as only learners' and the educators' guide and only as an instructional manual for educators, both should be used as sites for teacher learning. The provision of concrete examples of the type of work expected, and student understanding and thinking what other educators have done would also be of assistance to educators' learning and practice.

While allowance should be made for teacher autonomy, creativity and different teaching styles and personalities, pedagogical practices and concepts implicit in the curriculum need to be explicitly illustrated and communicated to educators. These are the few issues that the current research has isolated concerning support programme. Firstly, we need to look at how the support programmes are addressing the curriculum requirements. Secondly, we need to ask how they are dealing with the requirements of the subject-content. Thirdly, to what extent do they address the understanding of teaching and learning implicit in the curriculum, and how do the materials help educators to realize what they need to do to promote the ideals of the curriculum? The way that support programmes engage with each curricular theme reveals the way to facilitate but not the effective implementation of policy requirements and teacher change (Ball & Cohen, 1996).

Curriculum cannot address issues faced by rural educators and learners. In South Africa, despite government efforts to relieve adversity, poverty in rural areas is still rife, and poor education still fails to lift people out of it (Joubert, 2010). Equality is essential in ensuring that all South African children have access to quality education where they can learn in an environment free from bias and discrimination (Asmal, 2001). South Africa needs its own, 'indigenous' solutions to indigenous problems arising from curriculum development. Importing an alien system such as Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) fails to account for, let alone address, the complexity of this country and its culture (Shangase, 2013). The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) states

that the curriculum seeks to create critical and active citizens, lifelong learners who are confident, independent, literate, multi-skilled and compassionate in society. Educators are encouraged to inspire rural children with values based on respect, democracy, equality, human dignity and social justice. However, educators and learners, in rural primary schools face challenges that hinder their ability to reach the goals required by the NCS (DoE, 2001).

Curriculum may be represented by three main layers. The first layer (representation) is the intended, planned, prescribed, official or formal curriculum which is a written policy of ideas that are framed by educational vision with goal/s as well as the intentions of the teaching/learning curriculum (belongs to curriculum designers/developers). The second layer is implemented, enacted or practiced curriculum, also known as curriculum in action (Khoza, 2015), which is the interpretation of the intended curriculum as perceived by teachers, and the actual process of teaching in operation belongs to teachers. The third layer is the attained, achieved or assessed curriculum which is the learning experience perceived by learners, as measured through their achievement of learning outcomes. Therefore, defining the curriculum from the first layer, the curriculum becomes the plan for teaching/learning and defining it from the second or third layer, it becomes the plan of teaching/learning. The curriculum or teaching vision which is divided into personal vision, societal/social vision and content (professional/discipline) vision is the central concept that controls all other curriculum concepts (Berkvens, Van den Akker & Brugman, 2014). Over and above these three propositions of visions, Schiro (2013) identifies the fourth one as the reconstruction vision.

Personal vision is the vision for teaching that puts the individual teacher or learner at the centre of teaching/learning environment. This vision for teaching creates an environment that helps teachers and learners to construct their own unique individual identities (Khoza, 2015). When teachers create this supportive environment, they include experiential and subjective activities that support the teachers and learners in order to construct and repeatedly reconstruct knowledge and, hence, take the form of personal meaning (identity). According to Schiro (2013), personal meanings make up the knowledge that is unique to each individual that possesses it; they hold personal significance to each person since the particular environmental context in which it is

assimilated or constructed, is a result of experiences in a particular teaching/learning environment at a particular time. As a result, knowledge is viewed as a fundamental or basic part of learning because it is not a separate entity that has to be learned from outside the individual teacher or learner. Whatever is viewed as a teachers' or learners' habitual action helps them to understand themselves and also enables them to predict their societal responses as according to their stages of developments or experiences. The teachers' personal visions help them to choose whether they follow societal/social, professional/content or reconstruction (critical awareness) visions in their teaching. Therefore, personal visions become a foundation of societal, professional or reconstruction visions (rationale/reasons) and are determined by individual choice (Schiro, 2013).

Social vision places society at the centre of the teaching learning environment. This teaching/learning environment is called the competence/integrated/horizontal curriculum (Bernstein 1999). In South Africa, competence curriculum was driven by specified outcomes that were divided into seven critical outcomes and five developmental and learning outcomes. Achievement of observable/measurable outcomes is the major practice in this type of curriculum or vision. Levels of outcomes (lower, middle or higher order) were not important; instead, achievement of outcomes became an end to itself. As a result, learning was mostly influenced by opinions, local every day or general knowledge and oral conversation. In this type of curriculum, knowledge is mostly generated horizontally from simple sources or local known sources.

Assessment is mostly about what is present or what the learners have achieved, not what the learners should have achieved based on international standards (Khoza, 2015). In other words, learners are sometimes compared to one another for achievement so that those who achieve more outcomes than others will be praised by society. In this type of curriculum vision, the vertical process of knowledge from lower level to higher level is not important because the vertical process is a function of professional/content (discipline) vision for teaching. Professional vision is a vision that places a discipline or profession at the centre of teaching/learning environment. This teaching vision is called performance/collection/vertical curriculum where cognitive

domain is given more privilege than other domains (Bernstein 1999). Cognitive domain is used to decide whether learners are successful or not within a specific discipline by mastering specific content. In performance curriculum each subject or discipline stands on its own and has its own collection of terminologies (concepts, theories, language, culture, ideologies and knowledge). It is driven by identified content where all learners learn the same body of knowledge from the lowest to the highest levels. South Africa introduced the performance curriculum (Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement – CAPS) in 2012, and each subject was given its own internationally identified content (Khoza, 2015).

The teachers have to constantly reflect on/in/for their practices in such a way that reflection becomes a result of their conscious mind (critical awareness of reflection), which may promote critical reflections that answer the questions of ‘what’, ‘who’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘how’ and ‘why’ within one’s teaching practice, discipline and society. According to Schiro (2013), reconstruction vision in teaching is used to eradicate social injustices in the prevailing culture and replace it with values and social practices that are more advantageous; it works towards reconstruction of a better culture in which all people achieve the maximum fulfilment of their spiritual, social, cultural, and professional or resource desires. In addition to that, Khoza (2015) posits that for this curriculum or vision ‘knowledge is not an impartial quantity and knowing is not a neutral affair’, and as such, it should be interrogated because real knowledge supports the realization of a better society, discipline and learners. These curriculum visions are unpacked by teaching/learning goals.

2.5. THE IMPACT OF THE CHALLENGES FACING EDUCATORS IN RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CURRICULUM ON LEARNER ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE?

In this section, the researcher focuses on the challenges that are facing educators in rural primary schools based on the implementation of curriculum towards learners’ academic performance. The researcher discusses the effectiveness of the implementation of curriculum.

2.5.1. The effectiveness of implementation of CAPS

Themane and Mamabolo (2011) maintain that curriculum has been ineffectively implemented in the schools because it reproduces social class divisions that have widened the gap between the historically advantaged and disadvantaged schools. Research shows that the new curriculum has a particular educator and school in mind that is mainly founded in former model C schools (Williamson & Payton, 2009). The disadvantaged communities were enthusiastic about the new curriculum due to its political significance but were not well prepared to handle it. The educator had to give up space, corporal punishment, content and text books (Jansen, 2002). Jansen questions why the problem of what policy claims and what practitioners experience remain dislocated from each. The gap persists in what the educator claims to do in the classroom and what they actually do in practice (Shangase, 2013).

The implementation of the effectiveness of curriculum is also hindered by the idealized image of the educator as having good attributes, but they have been living in a society where poverty, racial oppression and pedagogical neglect exists (Williamson & Payton, 2009). Imemelman (2010) agrees that the view of teacher cannot be homogenized because they come from different views on the curriculum. Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that for schools to be effective, they should use the action research model and satisfy the needs for the parents and learners. Let the educator be autonomous and innovative and make the work force feel important so that improvements can result (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998). The curriculum is a learner-centered with both multilingualism and multiculturalism being encouraged (Shangase, 2013). Prior to 1994, educator training and development was very prescriptive, with educators being told how to behave, what to do and were regularly suspended by inspectors. Today things have changed but not for the better. There was no situational analysis made in the schools so that their unique circumstances and needs could be considered prior to their training and development; this resulted in the quality of training differing from place to place and from province to province (Sayed, 2002). Jansen (1998) concurred that there was lack of support programmes and focus on writing the curriculum. The educators were ignorant and uniformed with the under lying curriculum theory, and this would cause inefficiency in the in the implementation. Fleish (2002)

found that Grade one was regarded as a failure and that scheduling, location and duration were problematic. In both foundation and intermediate phases, there was misunderstanding and uncertainty after only a week of training. The department officials were trained for nine weeks, and educators had forty hours of training (William & Payton, 2009). There seemed to be many unanswered questions that the facilitators would not answer, and this would hinder the effective implementation of CAPS in schools. Bertels (2003) and Moodley (2014) argue that if there are weak channels of communication and an absence of evaluation based on feedback, then both the curriculum design and development programme are doomed to fail.

The introduction of CAPS in the school undoubtedly brought about changes in the use of resources, adequate teaching and learning resources are some of the requirements for successful implementation of the curriculum. The term resource can be interpreted in a variety of ways, depending on content. According to Yochum (1996), the term can represent: teaching staff, support staff, materials, services and premises as resources, but Sayed (2002) refer to resources as knowledge, technology, power, material, people, time assessment, information and finance.

Other scholars like Wenger (2002) indicate that the term resource may include finance, materials, staffing and time. For the purpose of this study, the term resource is taken to include people, materials and equipment. In order to achieve the core purpose of the school, which is teaching and learning, the most important resources in this context are resources that will enable educators to implement the new curriculum in the classroom (Wenger, 2002). Children learn better in classrooms that are well resourced and equipped with developmental and age appropriate materials (Lofland, 2009).

2.5.2. Textbook dependence

A study done by McKinney (2005) criticized dependence on textbooks as the main resource, arguing that these failed to increase overall learner performance. Most disadvantaged South African schools do not have enough sets of textbooks and workbooks, and as a result they experience challenges in curriculum implementation. Educators need to be well oriented on how to effectively use textbooks for effective

teaching and learning. On the contrary, Ngware (2010) defended the use of textbooks and claimed that their effectiveness depends on pedagogically sound, culturally appropriate and durable presentation. Countries such as Ghana, Philippines, Brazil, and Guinea showed improvement in learner performance due to sufficient supply of textbooks (Ngware (2010).

However, Ngware further emphasized that educators need training in the use of textbooks. In South African rural schools, educators still experience a lack of textbook supply. Recently, the Minister of Basic Education in South Africa initiated a programme of workbooks from Grades 1 to 6. This was meant to assist educators to improve learner performance in Numeracy and Literacy in their classrooms. Generally, educators have limited resources in schools and do not know how to use them because of lack of training. Disadvantaged children who come from poor environments and economic backgrounds are more likely to perform poorly at school because of their different home environments and school mathematics that do not align with knowledge, skills and dispositions that these (children) may bring to schools (Pal, 2009). He, furthermore, alleges that children who come from disadvantaged groups such as those from poor urban settlements are more at risk to finding learning mathematics as a complex process because of their varied socio-cultural experiences and lack of “out-of-school” educational support.

Therefore, lack of pre-school experience and language training places these children in an untenable situation in their education right from the beginning (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993). Teaching and learning require support and scaffolding to ensure that educators and learners operate at their optimal skills levels. This means that educators’ different learning styles and needs must be given serious attention. As a result, this will enable educators to internalize the use of various approaches and pedagogical knowledge in their teaching practice (Bantwini, 2009). Bantwini (2009) emphasizes that good learning opportunities for teaching build on their current knowledge, skills and attitudes. Rogan and Grayson (2005), Bantwini (2009) and Lekgoathi (2010) caution about educators’ training, lack of support programme and deficiency in the use of various instructional approaches and knowledge and that these problems still persist in our schools. The fact that many rural educators possess neither the subject knowledge nor pedagogical content knowledge required to

implement the curriculum effectively, therefore, a clear understanding of policy, support programme and practice is needed.

Bantwini (2009) states that at various levels, educators who possess different content knowledge, levels of teaching experience and teaching qualifications are needed. Witz and Lee (2009) emphasize that it is necessary that educators' intellectual experience of the power of the discipline, to figure in their lives, should be taken into account in both in-service and service teacher education. Sayed (2002) and Tshiredo (2013) note that taking into consideration the development of support programme for rural educators to suit changes in curriculum might be a stepping stone towards success of curriculum implementation in rural schools (Tshiredo, 2013).

2.6. EDUCATORS' SUPPORT ON IMPLEMENTING CAPS CURRICULUM IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The following section deals with the implementation of CAPS curriculum in primary schools. The following items will be discussed: support programme and changes in the curriculum, reflection on teacher development, Institute for Science and Technology Education (ISTE) teacher development programme, development of support programme for rural educators, rural teacher educational support programme in other countries, Quality teaching, initial teacher education support programme, teacher education induction, curriculum development and monitoring support programme and curriculum.

2.6.1. Support programme and changes in the curriculum

Support programme and change in the curriculum should be innovative; however, some people see a support programme and changes as threatening, messy, dangerous and time consuming (Jackson, 1992). These authors suggest that collaboration frameworks should exist in a new curriculum so that differences can be worked out and strength can be built. Williamson (2009) encourages educators to be proactive to change whereas, Themane (2011) reiterates that a support programme

requires patience and resilience whereby schools should examine their individual needs and use their communities to help them transform.

A support programme should be seen as a process and not as an event so that people can be committed to a long-term process of transformation (Fetterman, 2005). A support programme remains an ever-present aspect of experiences of people in virtually all industrial, commercial and service organisation in public and private sectors of the economy (Taylor & Vinyenyd, 1999). According to Thesen (1998), a support programme may be described as the process of analysing the past to elicit the present action required for the future. It involves moving from a present state, through a transitional state to a future desired state.

A support programme is inevitable, necessary and universal. Adler (2002) indicates that the focus of a support programme is to introduce an innovation that produces something better. According to Tomlinson (2003), a support programme takes place on two levels: the first level is influenced by the external factor such as changes in the educational policy e.g. from C2005 to CAPS, whereas the second level is influenced by internal factors such as a new vision and mission. In the light of the above, the conceptualization, production of knowledge, roll out of training and orientation as well as the monitoring and evaluation of CAPS was left to the bureaucrats. It is very difficult for one to train others if one does not possess sound knowledge of epistemological issues (Adler, 2002). Patton (1990) defines the term as a sort of judgment or measurement that has taken place: an attainment of goals, whereas Mouton (2001) defines support programme as schools making progress in areas of curriculum such as record keeping, parental involvement, maximum communication between educator and learner, structured lessons and purposeful leadership within a positive climate of teaching and learning. Management plays a crucial role in the effectiveness of a school by being the glue in the organisation that holds all the strands of the organisation together (Mac Milan, 2006).

Teacher development and educational support programmes, as means to help, close the performance gaps between teachers from different social and economic backgrounds in developing countries and have been increasingly on the forefront of

South African education agenda in recent years (Biersteker & Dawes, 2008; DoE, 2011, 2013). The need for the development of quality support programmes and for increased access to such programmes is well recognised by the relevant departments of Social Development, Health and Education. Early childhood development (ECD) was also included in the Human Resources Development Report for the first time in 2008.

According to Biersteker and Dawes (2008), the authors of the chapter on ECD in that document, this indicates the extent to which the South African government has realized how important ECD is for laying the foundation for success in the schooling system and how important it is to introduce, especially those children who come from poverty environments to quality ECD provisioning (Atmore, 2012). Several models of early childhood development approaches have emerged during the past two centuries and are still being followed across the world (Anderson, Shinn, Fullilove, Scrimshaw, Fielding & Normand, 2003; Edwards, 2002) and principles of many of these could be, and have been, applied in varying degrees towards the development of support programmes in South Africa. Exactly which components of early childhood interventions would be the best to include for optimal effect within developing contexts, and for what reason, is unclear from an analysis of international evidence of the benefits of 30 early childhood interventions in 23 non-US countries (Nores & Barnett, 2009).

A support programme and effective education occurs if there is quality in the aims and curriculum and if there are community links. Stress is placed on “output indicators”. Kelly (2004) highlighted eight principles of effectiveness which include: delegation of responsibility, autonomy, task orientated, hands-on value driven management, focus on the core purpose, a balance of control and trust, closeness to the customer and productivity. Hornby (1989:168) defines seven aspects of support as being proactive, begin with the end in mind, put first things first, think win-win, seek first to understand then to be understood, synergize and “to sharpen the saw”. Above all, Hornby (1989) and Taylor (2008) summarizes the concept by stating that effectiveness is the relationship between the way the school is organized and the extent to which it achieves its goals.

Juvane (2007), Brown (2010) and Matshidiso and Mncube (2012) stated that pre-service and in-service educator education programmes do not address the curricular and instructional demands of rural schools teaching, thus leaving educators unprepared for the challenges they will face in practice as rural educators. The assumption is that they will adapt the curriculum to suit the circumstances. However, educators need specialized skills to be able to adapt the curriculum. In most instances, they are left stranded with no support from the Department of Education. This lowers educators' morale and affects their performance (Juvane, 2007; Brown, 2010).

As a response to comments from educators, parents, teacher unions, school management and academics over a period of time on the implementation of the support for educators, the Minister appointed a task team in 2009 to investigate them. The brief of the Task Team was to identify the challenges and pressure points that negatively impacted on the quality of teaching in schools and to propose the mechanisms that could address the challenges facing rural based educators (DBE, 2011). Although there was positive support for the new curriculum, there is a need for a support programme for educators in rural primary schools. In the NCS, there has been considerable criticism of various aspects of its implementation such as lack of a support programme (Moodley, 2013). This resulted in teacher overload, confusion, stress and widespread learner under-performance in international and local assessments. Reasons stated by the Minister for re-evaluating the curriculum documented in the media (Ball & Cohen, 2003) were the inability of a large number of learners to read and write and complaints from learners' educators and parents.

The minister was reluctant to call the curriculum an abject failure in the media, although she did concede that the curriculum had major flaws which included a weak and superficial curriculum that was 'unrealistic' and lacking in 'specific objectives, the assumption that learners had access to research facilities such as telephones, the Internet, libraries and newspapers; and since it was open to a wide variety of interpretations, and educators had no clarity about what was required of them (Masondo, 2010). The Department of Basic Education (2011) indicated that there were four main concerns of NCS which contributed to the change to CAPS: complaints about the implementation of the NCS, overburdening of educators with administration,

different interpretations of the curriculum requirements and underperformance of learners. The ANC Health and Education chairman Dr Zweli Mkhize said the party was pushed into rethinking its education policies due to the large number of learners who could not read or write. 'We are removing the last ghost of 1998,' said Motshekga, referring to the year in which OBE was implemented by her predecessor, Sibusiso Bhengu (Masondo, 2010).

Themane and Mamabolo (2011) state that the NCS failed to support educators to select socially valued knowledge, which is the scope, sequence, depth, skills and content and concentrated on nation building and the broad philosophy underpinning the education system, and left schools and educators to apply it to their contexts. There were no clear policy guidelines on assessment, thus resulting in confusion with its implementation. The use of various forms of assessment resulted in too much paper work and became onerous for educators. The training of educators was inadequate to cover the workload. The task team appointed by the Minister consulted widely with educators and other stakeholders through hearings and interviews, and three main issues were identified as contributing to the difficulties experienced. They are as follows: The contribution of NCS documents to teacher overload, problems in the transition between grades and phases, and the need to question whether there was clarity and appropriate use of assessment. Two other areas were added to the review, namely, teacher support and training and support programmes. In July 2009, the Report was presented to the Minister who, after consultation with senior officials in the Department of Basic Education, implemented the recommendations of the Report (DoE, 2012).

CAPS was the result of the review of NCS. The need for strong leadership to address the unequal levels of provision in relation to curriculum implementation support and the central role of the DOE in the development and dissemination and support of curriculum should be asserted. This is because educators are weary of change, and their confidence in their teaching has been compromised, and their authority in the classroom needs to be re-established. Attention must be given to the amount of time and energy educators have in order to teach; guidance should be given on what they are required to teach and the third issue that the report argues for is greater alignment

in curriculum processes (DBE, 2009). The task team recommendations, as presented in the review report (DoE, 2012) are detailed below: there should be support for rural educators, annual external assessments of mathematics, home language and English (FAL) be offered in grades three, six and nine in order to reduce the workload on learners, educators projects must be reduced to one per learning area and learners' portfolios were to be discontinued, the Department should provide targeted in-service development training and the higher education institutions (HEI) should align their teacher training programmes with the national curriculum, the nature of classroom and school support by the subject advisor should be specified, the role of the textbook should be reasserted, and in this regard called for the development of a catalogue of textbooks aligned to the NCS (DBE, 2009). 'Bantu Education' and the Christian National Education of the old administration could not continue, and had been replaced with new values prescribed by the new Constitution. These values were the outcomes desired by the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system and would remain, but the manner in which the outcomes would be obtained was in review (DBE, 2009).

The Ministerial Task Team identified key areas for investigation based on the major complaints and challenges encountered since 2002, when the National Curriculum Statement was introduced for the first time (DBE, 2005). The key areas were identified as: rural educators' support, curriculum policy and guideline documents, transition between grades and phases, assessment, particularly continuous assessment, learning and teaching support programme (particularly textbooks) and teacher support and training (for curriculum implementation). Kvale (1996:63) states that "what is done in the classroom are bits and pieces of odds and ends conducted in fits and starts". This means that a disjointed approach and a support programme lacking in focus will hinder the effectiveness of the implementation of new curriculum. There are efforts to incorporate multiculturalism and multiracialism in the classroom with the use of textbooks using people of different colour, but the educator has not been trained to deal with its wider implications (Shangase, 2013). It can be envisaged that the implementation of the new curriculum can be fraught with difficulties and that its effectiveness could be curtailed if change is not positively handled in schools and classrooms.

Taylor (2008) states that despite insults and discrimination of public opinion, South African educators are dedicated and work hard to educate children under difficult circumstances. However, rural educators, who need to plan and prepare for lessons face special challenges. Beukes (2006) notes the absence of a clear support programme and guidance for the combination of grades; inconsistent learner attendance; lack of classroom management skills; mother tongue influences; grouping and time management as some of the difficulties faced by rural educators in South Africa.

According to Joubert and Jordaan (2010), the Department of Education (DoE) has yet to recognise the pedagogy of rural based primary school teaching. Teacher training programmes and curriculum support programme have not been developed to support rural educators. The South African curriculum lacked a sufficient developmental support programme and systematic theory of curriculum design related to a suggested pedagogical approach or set of pedagogical principles likely to be recognised and understood by educators within their particular social and historical content. 'The NCS did not represent a curriculum that the average South African teacher would be able to use easily' (UMALUSI, 2011:78).

Eloff, Engelbrecht and Swart (2000) posit that a support programme needs to respond effectively to the demands of an educational system and in particular to the needs of the educators who will be directly involved in the day-to-day implementation of these programmes. To do this effectively, educational support must move away from an outdated focus on exclusion, individualism and isolation to an emphasis on Eco systemic values such as promoting sustainability, alliance, co-operation and mutual support. The latter elements form the basis of collaborative relationships which are based on direct interaction among co-equal partners, who voluntarily participate, make decisions together and grow to trust and respect one another. Generally, there is a need to interweave a network of varying supports into a comprehensive and coordinated system of support at a national, district and school level. All parties involved can then enter the interaction as co-equal parties, work towards successful inclusion and share responsibility and accountability for the outcomes of the interaction. Ellof, Engelbrecht and Swart (2000) state that educators and members of traditional support services are facing significant changes in their roles, responsibilities

and expectations. Furthermore, the members of a collaborative team will vary, depending upon the needs of learners and if necessary, parents, learners, peers and other school and community members deemed necessary, may be included in the team. They further state that traditionally, mainstream educators have worked in relative isolation within their own classrooms and have been primarily responsible for being instructional leaders and managers in the classroom. When learners experienced difficulties, the teacher referred the learner to a professional for assessment and possible placement in a separate educational setting. It is now accepted that educators have to wear a number of hats to be successful in helping all learners gain the skills necessary for becoming independent and productive members of society (Ellof, et al. 2000). Professional support providers, such as educational psychologists also have to move out of their traditional role as independent experts who focus on the individual needs of learners.

There is now a need for professionals such as educational psychologists knowledgeable in the facilitation of supportive relationships and who can coordinate inclusion programmes, communicate with other professionals, educators, parents and learners through informal and formal consultation and collaboration (Sands, Kozleski & French, 2000). However, Tshiredo (2013) notes that the United Kingdom (UK) Government tried to raise standards of rural teachers' knowledge in both pre-service and in-service teacher education to improve teaching in their rural schools. Moreover, Parker (2006) emphasized that this development needs trainees develop not only relevant personal knowledge of how to translate and represent this knowledge effectively in classroom practice. It is suggested that educators need support programmes and encouragement to take responsibility for their own learning and professional development (McCombs & Whistler, 1997)

Sharp, Hopkins and James (2009), in a research done in the (UK), indicated that the successive revisions of the national primary curriculum have brought about many changes, each impacting on the primary profession in different ways and reflecting the political and educational landscapes of the day. Parker (2006) argues that the programmes of development should serve a dual purpose by supporting rural educators in developing personal knowledge of curriculum and their pedagogical

knowledge appropriate to effective translation in teaching. Tshiredo (2013) argues that not all rural educators who receive professional development and support curriculum have gained experience, and that has caused them to change their practice or move to urban schools.

A tool for change will be an initiative that can empower teachers with necessary capacity to manage curricula changes and enhance effectiveness. In turn, teachers, as members of a community, have responsibility to co-operatively take joint action to find and create solutions to learning problems confronting their communities. Teacher development programme (TDP) improves teachers' content knowledge. It addresses the question: How has the teacher development programme offered by the Institute for Science and Technology Education (ISTE) as a community engaged initiative been designed to improve rural teachers' content knowledge? ISTE is a research institute at the University of South Africa that renders community-engaged oriented programmes to mathematics, science and technology teachers; conducts research; and provides post-graduate education and training in mathematics, science and technology education (Barry, 2016).

2.6.2. Reflection on Teacher Development Programmes (TDP)

There has been teacher development programmes in South Africa undertaken to empower rural teachers so that they can manage the demands and challenges posed by the curricula. The respective goals of the programmes were distinct. For example, Okumus and Biber (2011) focused on familiarising teachers with curriculum changes and improving their content knowledge and classroom practice. The programme by Okumus and Biber (2011) introduced teachers to a particular instructional approach; the Mpumalanga schools Science Initiative (MSSI) was intended to improve the teaching of mathematics and science at junior level in the province of Mpumalanga (Rogan, 2002). The Holistic Professional Development Model (HPD) was built on a university non-formal programme intended to improve teachers' Physics content knowledge and classroom practice while the Data Informed Practice Improvement Project works with grades 7 – 9 mathematics teachers on understanding and engaging learner errors as a mechanism for teacher learning (Shangase, 2013). Evident in these

programmes is the fact that the needs of teachers are presumed because there is no evidence of needs analysis or rather basing a programme on the needs of the participants. In other words, the planning and designing of the teacher development programme was more top-down rather than bottom-up where there is consultation with the teachers in order to determine their needs for development (Barry, 2016).

What is also notable about the programmes is the design and approach used in each one. For example, Okumus and Biber (2011) adopted a systemic approach and designed their programme ranging from teachers in the centre to school district manager on the outside. The roles and responsibilities of stakeholders at each level of the spiral were clearly spelt out. The Materials and Surface Science Institute (MSSI) followed a cascade approach and clustered teachers according to their respective districts. Cluster leaders met periodically for professional development activities with a view to sharing their experiences with their cluster members in their school settings (Serrao, 2007). The Holistic Professional Development (HPD) model used an engaged-participatory approach to optimise the effectiveness of the non-formal programme (Okumus & Biber, 2011). The HPD model was designed to avail material and conceptual resources to teachers and engaging them through a participatory mode on strategies for adopting, adapting and applying the resources in a teaching context. Even though each of these teacher development programmes tends to follow an approach and use a design that is compatible with its goal(s) and purpose, it is not based on the needs of the teachers (Barry, 2016).

2.6.2.1. ISTE Teacher Development Programme

The Institute for Science and Technology Education (ISTE) TDP is a research-based teacher-centred model of a community engaged approach that considers the needs and priorities of the community (i.e. mathematics and science teachers) and creates a space to encourage rural teacher participation. ISTE TDP is offered by facilitators who have been purposefully identified and then attuned to the needs of the teachers and the goals of the program. The programme is evaluated annually and the outcomes thereof serves as basis for the improvements to be effected on the subsequent one. The benefit of the envisaged development programme is a capacitated community of

teachers which will hopefully teach better and effectively, and thus bring about meaningful learning. ISTE TDP aims to empower mathematics and science teachers to be more knowledgeable about aspects of the curriculum. This is done by improving the content knowledge of the teachers (Barry, 2016).

A support programme of rural teachers is a cornerstone of the provision of quality of teaching and learning in a country's education system, affirmed by the literature, with programmes central to proposals for improving the quality of teaching and transforming education. Competencies of rural teachers in South Africa have not improved as envisaged, according to studies conducted, with many professional development programmes not yet implemented or not taking into account teachers' perspectives (Tsoetsi, 2016).

2.6.2.2. Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

CPD obligations are common to most professions. Many professions define CPD as a structured approach to learning to help ensure competence to practice, taking in knowledge, skills and practical experience. CPD can involve any relevant learning activity, whether formal and structured or informal and self-directed. There are, however, some factors to be considered when dealing with CPD. The Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (ISPFTEDSA) 2011/2025 Technical Report (2011) states that continuing professional development should consider the following, that is, responsibility for continuing professional development should be devolved to more local levels, and allow for the participation of a variety of role-players, while ensuring that national and provincial priorities are addressed. The personnel and paperwork required in order for teacher development to occur should be reduced. Teacher development should be separated from performance appraisal (Mashau, 2016), and meaningful teacher induction programmes should be developed and supported. Teachers in all schools should be encouraged and supported, through an informational and advocacy campaign and use of appropriate facilitators, mentors and guidelines, to establish new or strengthen existing professional learning communities.

Time for teachers to participate in professional learning communities and engage in quality teacher development must be deliberately and formally scheduled. Teacher knowledge and practice standards for all teaching specializations and professional practices should be developed. Diagnostic self-assessments tailored to assess teacher knowledge and practice standards should be developed and made available, with associated professional developmental resources, in both paper-based and electronic (including online) formats. Continuing professional development courses that are pedagogically sound, content rich, curriculum relevant and quality assured, should be identified and/or developed. Specific groups of teachers and schools in need of targeted development should be identified on the basis of the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements National Curriculum Statements (CAPS) implementation review, National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination results, Annual National Assessments (ANA) and research on teacher qualification profiles.

All Grade R teachers should be encouraged and supported to become professionally qualified. All unqualified and under-qualified teachers should be encouraged and supported to become professionally qualified at REQV 13 level or higher. All special needs teachers and teachers in special needs schools should be encouraged and supported to improve their qualifications and their competence to teach in sign language and/or braille. All subject advisors should be encouraged and supported to improve their curriculum competence. The number of subject advisors should be increased, possibly by redeploying competent excess provincial managerial staff, recently retired teachers and/or 'excess' teachers. All provincial and district managers involved in teacher development should be encouraged and supported to improve their competence. The kinds of programmes, services and partnerships offered via teacher development institutes and education resource centres need to be regularized and quality assured. Direct incentives and other support should be provided to teachers in rural and remote schools to improve their qualifications (Mashau, 2016).

Ways and means of encouraging and supporting private higher education institutions to increase their contribution to developing practicing teachers should be investigated. Rural teacher education in South Africa has challenges, although the challenges are not insurmountable. The challenges include amongst others, the capacity, quality,

cooperation, and relevance of teacher education to be improved, Continuing Professional Development (CPD) to be taken seriously and giving attention to inducting novice teachers. An induction program, which is neglected, should be considered in order to retain trained teachers for longer period. If educators are to become skilled professionals, they need to be inducted, and if they are to stay in the field, stakeholders need to take coordinated action to expand and improve induction programmes and to make them more universal.

Teacher education is composed of three components, which are of equal importance. They are initial teacher training, induction and teacher continuous development. If all these components are equally considered, South Africa will never run short of teachers. Initial teacher training, recruitment and selection of candidates should be more effective in order to attract and retain the best candidates for the teaching profession and to promote teaching as an attractive career (Mashau, 2016). The induction program should be developed in order for novice teachers to acclimatize with their new profession. Induction is the process of introducing the employee to the organization and the organization to the employee, and it should begin at the time of appointment (Mashau, 2016).

The strategy to implement a CPD support programme has to consist of various partners involved in the programme. In establishing the team driving the initiative, a democratic process must be followed. Democratizing the process promotes its ownership while the inclusion of various partners promotes multiple perspectives. In order for the team to work collaboratively towards a common goal, training on policy and programmes' implementation is of paramount importance (Tsotetsi, 2016). The activity paves the way for a common vision, and a consultative process has to be followed to have a common vision. The SWOT analysis appeared to be the third component in the implementation of the CPD support programmes as parents and district-based officials should be amongst the participants.

Schools must be separated to enable each of them to reflect on how it manages and runs its CPD programmes whilst employing PAR as a methodology creates a discursive space in which participants can discuss matters with the hierarchy structure

flattened (Chilisa, 2012). In the team, parents, teachers and district-based officials should have the same status. The NGO can first provide support in monetary terms, when there is a need. Secondly, it can employ staff to provide additional support to schools. The local university, in partnership with the DBE, can provide service in terms of classroom management or subject-specific needs. The extent of support given to schools will depend on their needs. The DBE has a crucial role to play in the provision of professional development; however, teachers need not depend solely on the programmes of the DBE (Tsotesi, 2016).

Rural teacher support programme will enable teachers to learn from one another and try out new ideas. Sharing stories of success in classroom practice and enhancing teachers' beliefs in their power to make a difference in the learners' learning process are amongst the advantages of teacher collaborations. Rural teacher support programmes could be under the leadership of NGO facilitators, the advantage of this approach being that it gives weight to support based on subject expertise. The second form of support occurs when rural teachers meet and draw up their own agenda, the aim being to encourage the independence of rural teachers in running and owning their development and growth. The last form of teacher support programme takes place when rural teachers from more than one school plan activities or revise question papers with learners. The distinct feature about this is that learners in groups answer questions and thereafter, a discussion of the answers takes place in which teachers of the same subject are present. In this way, it is not only the learners who are learning, but also teachers, from their counterparts on how to attend to specific questions. A Strategic Plan is to have a coordinated plan, as the coordination of activities serves to inform members well in advance of the activities to take place as planned (Tsotetsi, 2016).

A key aspect of the effectiveness of CPTD programmes is their relationship with the established principles of adult learning (Knowles, 1980). At the same time, part of being an effective teacher involves understanding how adults learn best. One of the fundamental principles in a support programme that may be essential for the effectiveness of CPTD is the fact that rural teachers are inherently motivated and self-directed (QOTFC: 2005). Ever since Knowles' (1980) work on teacher learning theory,

many studies have applied the concept in an attempt to understand, more explicitly, how teachers learn (Lessing & de Witt, 2007; Lee, 2011; Killeavy & Murphy, 2012; Steyn, 2013; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015).

According to Steyn (2013), teachers do not like information, ideas or actions to be imposed on them during the process of learning. Doing so results in a negative attitude towards learning because; often, learners tend to refuse to go along with learning that comes from outside. Moreover, Craig (2009) suggests that coercing rural teachers into training activities without first establishing whether those teachers recognize the need for such training would be futile in the context of CPTD. In other words, rural teachers must intrinsically see the need for CPTD programmes for them to participate wholeheartedly, and subsequent for learning to take place. Furthermore, it is part of the above CPTD principle that professional support development of participating teachers become a continuous process that applies throughout the teachers' working life. That is why Neuman (2014) suggest that teachers be responsible for controlling and managing their own development. Another key principle which relates to the effectiveness of CPTD programmes concerns the fact that, as adults, rural teachers bring life experiences and knowledge to the learning environment and situation. Personal experience, as supported by Shangase (2013), has shown that adults like to be given the opportunity to use their pre-existing understanding about a situation in tackling a new challenge. This is a similar view to Craig (2009) who claims that teachers bring into the learning situation a background of experience that is a rich resource. This view concedes that rural teachers have a broader base of experience on which to attach new ideas and skills to give them richer meaning. This is a view supported by Steyn (2013) who posits that, since knowledge is embedded in experience and is personally constructed, it is necessary that the CPD programme situate learning in authentic, real-world contexts that involve collaboration and social interaction. It is also supported by Lessing and de Witt (2007) when they state that professional development does not only require the informal and spontaneous learning of teachers from one another, but also relies on prior knowledge, and the wealth of potential and experience of each participant, which can be built upon and incorporated into further initiatives (Okeke, 2016).

CPTD programmes' effectiveness appeared to revolve around a sense-making mechanism that enabled participating rural teachers to feel the value of various programmes. Without placing values on the programmes, teachers may feel it is a waste of their professional time. CPTD now refers to any activities aimed at enhancing knowledge and skills of teachers by means of orientation, training and support (Lessing & De Witt, 2007). As a result, for a CPTD programme to be implemented, and for its success to be largely guaranteed, teachers need to know why they should engage in such learning (Craig, 2009). This means that effective CPTD should first be aware of and address the specific needs of teachers. That is why Lessing and de Witt (2007) state that the best results are obtained if the programme is formally and systematically planned and presented with the focus on enhancement of personal and professional growth by broadening knowledge, skills and positive attitudes of the teachers. In support of the above, Steyn (2013) advocates for professional development programmes to enhance deeper, ongoing teacher-directed learning, which removes teacher isolation as a barrier to effective professional development, and quality teaching. Steyn (2013) also views professional development as a dynamic, job embedded, classroom focused supportive, collaborative and ongoing process that actively involves teachers in learning and development opportunities. This is the reason why traditional approaches to continuing professional development such as a one-day workshop where teachers are provided with information that they need to apply in practice, have been criticised (Steyn :2013). Professional developmental support programmes should, therefore, reflect individual teachers' needs and aspirations, the needs of the school as well as national strategic priorities (Okeke, 2015).

Studies suggest that teachers would most certainly want to know that what they spend time learning is context-relevant (QOTFC, 2005; Steyn, 2013; Adu & Okeke, 2014; Lazarus, 2014). Moreover, teachers want to know the relevance of what they are learning to what they want to achieve (QOTFC, 2005). This curiosity of wanting to know the relevance of the CPD programmes is aroused because teachers have become aware that their professional learning is shaped by the different classroom contexts in which they work. It is, therefore, necessary for the planners of training programmes to take as first priority, a consideration of what they (and teachers as

well) wish to accomplish through training. One other very important principle on which CPTD revolves is the issue of practical relevance.

Most teachers, wish to assess from the onset the measurable objectives of any programmes they want to invest their time in (Menlah & Mays, 2013; Selemani-Meke & Rembe, 2014; Mentese, 2014). This is what the success of such programmes may depend on. According to Lessing and de Witt (2007), the success of the CPD programme is shown by the participants' ability to apply their new knowledge and skills in their own context, and by practicing the techniques explained during workshops. For instance, the positive aspects of a workshop are only valuable based on how it would impact the overall teaching career of particular teachers in the long run.

Therefore, it is crucial for programme designers to endeavour to be explicit about how applicable such learning may be to the teachers' overall working competence. Despite the usefulness of such programmes, they may fail even before they are implemented, as they are designed for the benefit of learners, adults in particular. For this reason, programmes as well as designers should not ignore the importance of respect and human dignity. Many studies have indicated that adult learners like to be respected (QOTFC, 2005; Taylor, 2011; Selemani-Meke, 2013; Smith & Harrison, 2013). For instance, the QOTFC (2007) notes that one way to show respect to adult learners is to ensure that CPD providers acknowledge the wealth of experience which adult learners bring to the context and environment of their learning. Respect for adult learners entails acknowledging the expertise that they bring into the learning context. This singular act would enable the cultivation of ownership, as respect for teachers' wealth of experience in a learning context may result in teacher ownership of the programme (Okeke, 2016).

Teacher ownership is necessary for CPD support programmes to achieve the desired goals (Selemani-Meke, 2013; Adu & Okeke 2014; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). Rural teachers would prefer on-school-site professional development programmes. Participating teachers in the study considered an on-site CPTD programme as the most valued professional development programme of their choice. Professional developmental support programme should be job-embedded and site-specific. This

meant that District officials have to integrate professional developmental support programme into the normal work day. Such programmes must be facilitated in their places of work, rather than having different sessions of out-of-school CPTD programmes.

The teachers prefer a shift towards work place professional learning, as they recognised that the continuing professional development of teachers was poorly implemented. This came from the claim that they were unable to implement what they learnt from the out-of-school CPTD programmes. Their preference, therefore, was based on continuous work place learning that acknowledged and understood the unique contextual nature of each teacher's working and learning environment. Since they were based in rural schools, they knew how best to devise means of practice (Zemelman, Daniels, Hyde, & Varner, 1998) that would suit their unique conditions of work. Most of the rural teachers considered themselves to be already engaged in communities of practice, but what seemed to be lacking was the anticipated support from the District officials (Okeke, 2016).

Teachers are taken to a workshop, when they go back to school, teachers of the same subject need to hold an onsite mini workshop report to give information to each other when teaching the same subject. Teachers were, therefore, alone in the schools and had no choice but to find the means of implementing policy programmes through communities of practice. Rural teachers agreed with the statement that there were no school-based programmes from the Department of Basic Education to support the teachers. Hirsh (2012) also suggests that successful professional learning communities enhance the sharing of effective practices among teachers and are more likely to lead to improved student performance. This is why communities of practice are regarded as ongoing teacher-directed learning which removes teacher isolation as a barrier to effective professional development as well as to quality teaching (Chappuis, 2009). In order to improve the effectiveness of CPTD programmes, teacher preferences pertaining to such programmes must be considered by the education authorities. As the efforts to transform rural education through CPTD programmes grow, teacher preferences pertaining to their development should be considered by the education authorities.

Given that rural teachers had already started their own development, these can only be strengthened with support from the District officials, and from government, generally. Out of these innovations, teacher change must be sustained through the organisational processes. This means that short-term programmes of teacher professional development must be modified to be school based and include local communities of practice (Okeke, 2016). Discussions and debates concerning improvement of rural teacher education include teachers themselves. Education departments, as well as programme designers, take into account the context of rural schools and their unique location so that rural-schools-specific policies are built into the CPTD programmes for teachers. School-focused CPTD models must continue to exist as such programmes drive forward professional development for rural teachers that builds on collaboration, collegial interactions and the fostering of relationships.

Based on rural teachers complaining about travel costs to central venues which were far from their schools, it would be desirable for the relevant authorities to come up with an implementable transport policy for teachers attending CPD programmes outside their places of work. No policy for funding travel for teachers attending out-of-school CPD is in place in South Africa. Lack of furniture was a major constraint against CPD participation by teachers, as most rural teachers complained about the inconvenience of standing for many hours at workshops. The Department of Basic Education should come up with an effective policy for rural infrastructure development, specifically for the CPD of rural teachers in the long term; while a short-term policy measure would be to earmark some community halls in designated places with furniture for all CPTD programmes (Okeke, 2016).

According to Taylor (1999), the purpose of support programme was for educators to experience learner centred teaching practices first-hand and in this way, develop their own models to enable them to put the policy into practice. Educators were exposed to the theory on learner-centred teaching and expected to practice it in the classroom. The researchers hoped to gain a better understanding of the difficulties encountered by educators in their take-up of new ideas and to understand the effectiveness of implementation of NCS within the context of an in-service programme. What was found

was that the constraints related to the contexts and positioning within which educators work; and teacher knowledge, affect teacher's performance (Taylor, 1999). Educators made structural changes regarding group-work and learner-centred activities, and their conceptual changes were procedural rather than related to the actual promotion of learning.

Strydom (2000) refer to this as taking up the forms rather than the substance of learner-centred teaching practices. The forms that they refer to are the strategies of learner-centred teaching and the substance is the learning theory upon which this approach is based. What this research found is that educators tend to develop a hybrid teaching style as they adjust from an old practice to a new one; that the context of the under-resourced teaching environment has a constraining effect on the ability of educators to implement changes; and that the pace of change has been too fast, and educators need more support and time to help them through the transitional stages of adapting to reforms. Their research findings support Jansen and Christie (1999) who argue that context, positioning and knowledge influence and result in teachers taking-up new innovations differently. They believe that this research has implications for in-service teacher education. The educators who found this approach problematic were themselves struggling to cope with other aspects of their teaching. This would seem to indicate a need for a better integration of pre-service and in-service programmes. Curriculum packages of materials need to provide sustained support and guidance, more research is needed on how educators understand learners' learning and more research is needed on learning in South Africa for purposes of scaffolding and mediating new knowledge. It is however interesting that these authors seem not to be aware of the importance of mediating concepts or theory in a manner that is sensitive to the circumstances within which educators work for its implications to be grasped and subsequently translated into effective practice (Straydom, 2000).

This is only possible if inset or preset providers could implement Swanson's (1995) notion of border pedagogy. He uses border pedagogy to illustrate the interconnectedness of knowledge and the metaphor of border crossings to describe a meeting place for the voices of differing perspectives. This allows the crossing "over into borders of meaning, maps of knowledge, social relations and values that are increasingly being negotiated and rewritten as the codes and regulations which

organize them become destabilized and reshaped” (Swanson, 1995). The message here is that both educators and teacher-educators need to transcend barriers and find a meeting place that Monyokolo (1993) wrote about, where old perspectives of knowledge can be re-evaluated and new values and perspectives can be reconceptualised and accepted.

To gain access to this knowledge, educators need to meet mediators of the curriculum in the middle ground (between the borders). Here, in this meeting place, educators will have access and can create a new product out of their existing practices and new practices required of them. What this is reflecting is what Moore (2011) emphasizes, namely that what is being taught needs to be opened up. We need a kind of intervention that is sensitive to the positioning of educators. This was what Jansen and Christies (1999) appealed for specifically in the context of South Africa. Due to the concerns raised with regard to South African teachers’ ability to implement the then curriculum for schools post 1994, a committee was appointed by the Minister of Education in 2000 to review its structure and design, which had to deal in clear and simple language with what the curriculum requirements are at various levels and phases, to begin immediately.

It is vital that all educators are consulted when developing a support programme for rural educators towards implementing a new curriculum. This cannot be done in an autocratic environment because it alienates and deepens the spirits of educators (Murphy, 1993). From the researchers’ observation, they feel marginalised and disempowered. To effectively develop a support programme in the implementation of a new curriculum, alliances and networks should be established among all the educators (Pajares, 1992). Strauss and Corbin (1998) advocates that the school must involve all stakeholders so that meaningful support programme can be developed. Stenhouse (1998) and Tshiredo (2013) recommend psychologists, special education educators, support staff be consulted so that there are shared values and a sense of ownership and commitment towards development of a support programme.

2.6.3. Development of a support programme for rural educators

Rural education remains an area of great concern for policymakers and the people who populate rural areas worldwide. Some researchers have argued that although rural and urban schools often have much in common in terms of levels of poverty and lack of resources, the bulk of the current educational literature is directed at an understanding of urban school districts (Barrett, Cowen, Toma, & Troske, 2015). However, literature on rural education also asserts that there are qualities unique to rural sites that demand increased attention in the field of educational research (Khattri, 1997; Beeson & Strange, 2000; Arnold, 2005; Eppley, 2009; Eppley, 2009). Considering that a large portion of the world's schools are located in rural areas, it is important to attend to the unique needs of rural teachers and learners (Gallo, 2016). The issue is important both within the United States and around the world. In the United States alone in 2003, more than half of the nation's school districts and more than a third of the nation's public schools were in rural areas (Provasnik, Kewal, Ramani, McLaughlin, Coleman, Gilberston, Herring & Xie, 2007).

Despite these statistics, national education policies often do not fit with the needs and material circumstances of rural school districts (Eppley, 2009; Gagnon & Mattingly, 2015). In her critical policy analysis of the 2001 No Child Left behind Act, for example, Karen Eppley (2009) found that the only response from policy makers to rural schools regarding highly qualified teacher mandates thus far has been the so-called flexibility provision, a misdirected and inadequate attempt to mitigate the law's effects in rural schools.

Murtaza (2010) defines a support programme as the sum of all continuing activities, formal and informal, carried out by individuals or systems to promote staff growth and renewal. The support programme of rural teachers is a continuous process, described by Barnes and Bennel (2010) in terms of continuing professional development (CPD) programmes for teachers that follow pre-service education and the induction phase. A number of initiatives have been introduced by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) to improve the competencies of rural teachers in classes in South Africa. One aspect which has influenced the failure of the CPD programmes for rural teachers has been the non-involvement of practitioners when programmes are designed. Ono and Ferreira (2010) confirm that rural teachers have been excluded in the design of

programmes and policies for professional development (PD) that are expert-based with the knowledge and experiences of teachers not being considered. Rural teachers become absorbers of knowledge transmitted to them in a top-down approach presented in a rigid way, without room for context or for teachers to construct knowledge based on their experiences. It thus becomes difficult for them to translate and contextualize the CPD programme into the classroom, particularly in rural schools with their own characteristics.

Designed from a uniform perspective Myende (2014), Ono and Ferreira (2010), Papastamatis (2009) and Villegas-Reimers (2003) argue that any education reform or improvement that fails to consult teachers in their CPD programmes has not been successful. The balance between experts' knowledge and teachers' experiences has to be forged. Sacrificing either is detrimental to any form of teacher development (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). For schools in rural areas a number of initiatives have been put in place by the DBE to attract rural teachers. For example, the Fundza Bursary Scheme, by which prospective teachers are given a bursary for a number of years to complete a full teaching qualification, upon receipt of which they are expected to make available their services to a provincial education department especially in the rural area for the same number of years (Bennel, 2004). The recipients are placed in different areas, including in rural areas, where there is a shortage of teachers. However, the same teachers who are placed in rural areas are often attracted by opportunities in urban areas, leaving behind teachers who, in most cases, are not specialists in their subjects (Nelson Mandela Foundation 2005) but who regard themselves as 'caretakers', often spending longer than anticipated in the post. A further challenge for teachers in rural areas is the lack of teaching and learning aids (McKinney, 2005), particularly for those who teach Natural and Physical Sciences as these require experiments to enhance understanding; absence of teaching and learning aids impairs the competencies of teachers (Kanyane, 2008). The challenge becomes how and where to access appropriate professional development or support programmes that will enable them to improve in their teaching (Tsoetsi, 2016).

Rural educators need to provide clear explanations to policymakers about what constitutes a highly qualified rural teacher, and provisions to laws need to account for the distinct differences needed for high quality instruction in diverse rural communities. Without policies tailored to the unique context of rural schools and communities,

ensuring equity of access, resources, and opportunity in schools across the United States becomes a difficult task (Gallo, 2016). The importance of this issue is also striking at the international level. Globally, there were still 121 million children and adolescents out of school in 2012, despite progress toward the 2015 Education for All (EFA) goals for universal access to education (UNESCO, 2015). Although there has been progress in reaching these goals, it is clear that there is still a lot to do and that educational quality remains a challenge.

The rural-urban gap is particularly acute in developing countries and is reflected in a variety of areas including adult literacy, pre-primary education, primary school completion and the likelihood that a child will transition from primary to secondary school (Gallo, 2016). While multiple factors have been implicated in addressing global concerns about education such as concerns about infrastructure, overcrowding, lack of textbooks and high quality learning materials, at every turn, issues related to teacher preparation, recruitment and retention are among the most widely acknowledged barriers to solving the quality challenge. A wide-ranging evaluation of rural educational research in the United States conducted by Arnold, Newman, Gaddy, and Dean (2005) identified nine priority topics for future research. Teacher quality, especially as it relates to the recruitment, development, and retention of teachers in rural contexts, was among the areas of identified need. In 2011, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) estimated that around the world, two million new teaching positions were needed to ensure universal primary education by 2015, and by 2030 the worldwide demand for teachers would rise to 25.8 million. UNESCO acknowledged that the shortage of qualified teachers was an obstacle to reaching the Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The UNESCO Strategy on Teachers 2012-2015 emphasized the importance of teacher preparation and building a high-quality teaching force in countries hampered by the lack of teachers (UNESCO Strategy on Teachers, 2012).

Moreover, lack of qualified teachers contributes to other concerns related to educational quality such as overcrowding and high learner/teacher ratios. Efforts to address the lack of teachers – such as hiring teachers that are not trained in national standards – further contribute to problems of educational quality. The 2013/2014 EFA

monitoring report emphasized the importance of investing in teachers, noting that “in around a third of countries, fewer than 75% of primary school teachers are trained according to national standards (Russels, 2006). Additionally, in a third of countries, the challenge of training existing teachers is worse than that of recruiting and training new teachers” (UNESCO, 2015).

In preparing the pre-service teachers to listen closely to their learners’ life stories and inviting family members into the classroom, pre-service teachers are better prepared to be culturally relevant teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse children. Teacher education programmes focused on preparing teachers for rural school contexts (Mashau, 2016). Many of the rural schools which are mostly located in poor and isolated areas have to practice CAPS teaching. When rural schools have to practice new curriculum teaching methods the scale of the problems is heightened (Matshidiso & Mncube, 2012). Furthermore, the educators in remote rural schools are not only involved in teaching but also have to carry out lots of administrative work. Many educators teaching in rural areas see it as a forced exile because of the political, economic, geographical, social and cultural structure reasons (Aksoy, 2007). In many developing countries, educators do not want to work and live in these rural remote schools for years – so as soon as they complete their obligatory service period, they tend to leave for better areas and countries (Aksoy, 2007). In South Africa, to compensate and provide adequate numbers of educators in rural areas, a bursary scheme has been set which contributes to the training of educators such that once the training is completed the educators will be deployed into a rural area in her hometown. This is a way of ensuring that rural schools attract and retain properly qualified educators. Under this scheme, an educator will have to serve the school for a period equal to the number of years for which funding was granted (Matshidiso & Mncube, 2012).

In implementing a new curriculum, literature provides some words of caution. Ball (2002) states that a new curriculum cannot be provided to identical schools as they exist in diverse contexts, and actual experience shows that it is impossible to do so. The uniqueness of each school must be understood in the context of its own vision and mission statements. Little (1997) asserts that policy information is to be seen as

multi vocal in that it tries to satisfy the diverse set of stakeholders who share “paradigmatically oppositional views” of teacher educational reform and transformation. Hinde (2003) emphasized that all stakeholders must be bound by a common framework so as to secure a future for the common education system. A new curriculum should, therefore, make a real paradigm shift whereby aspects like support programme, school diversity, school autonomy and updated contents must be examined. Education must respond to the need of the people in holistic manner. There must be shared goals and values that address equity, democratization and transformation (Little, 1997).

Crossley and Watson (2003) expressed concern about the context of South Africa’s under-resourced schools and under-qualified educators. Hord (1997) also argued that the context of the teacher needs to be taken into account because what should be (policy requirements) is obscured by what is the reality of the classroom. Potenza (1997) concurs that a right balance must be struck between shared vision and ability to pursue one’s own individual goals, if one is to place a school at the centre of education. Fleisch (2008) advises that there must be communication between the educators in the different phases so that there can be continuity and the curricula can be interrelated, it is assumed that by so doing, less misconceptions, suspicion and tension would be avoided between the phases. Support programmes are designed through a non-linear, system-oriented process, grounded in constructivist and complexity theories, and marked by open-ended planning and freedom for educators’ and learners to meet the challenges of spontaneity and conceptuality (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The underlying assumption of the trans-disciplinary curriculum is that the important issue is how its components are used to enable powerful learning situations that help learners to extract meaning from complexity and encourage educators to restructure their educational role and views.

Modiba (1999) is concerned about the capacity existing within the different sectors to interpret policy in an appropriate manner. She is worried about the unrealistic ‘missionary’ ideals underpinning the norms and standards. Rogan (1999) is concerned with how educators are expected to make sense of the criteria. According to them, the three kinds of competence expected from educators can only make sense “from within the moral and political values and pedagogic preferences embedded in the

educational perspective held by the competent educator". The concerns that Rogan (1999) was raising have been captured in the Adler and Reed's (2002) study on teacher change through in-service education and support programme. They critique two key assumptions underlying the performance and assessment criteria in the Norms & Standards document. One is how the inside of a practice is revealed and the other is the transference of generic capacities. They are concerned about the transparency of the criteria and argue that as facts, they do not necessarily lead to an understanding of the internal concepts involved in good teaching. The argument that they are making is that the 120 criteria of the Norms and Standards cannot, on their own, be expected to immediately transform the inadequacies and inequalities of education in the present context.

Wenger's (1998) different paradigmatic beliefs are not contradictory, and do not require the individual to choose between them, as each reveals the element of the truth, although not necessarily allowing one reality to be visible while another is practiced or explored. Furthermore, it is also possible that the contextual perspective of learning, which maintains that educators' beliefs are influenced by their professional experiences, also explains why educators have multiple views on teaching and learning. The educators in this study were exposed not only to a constructivist trans-disciplinary environment, but also to other teaching experiences in the non-experimental part of the school curriculum. Since these experiences were discipline-based and not necessarily constructivist-based, the educators inhabited a dual professional world in terms of their role, thus suggesting that we can conceive the evolution of beliefs as a continuous and gradual process in which new kinds of beliefs are added to old ones, and both the old and new beliefs can co-exist side-by-side before some gradually fade. This also fits in with the results on the development of educators' epistemological beliefs showing that development in reflective thinking is characterized as waves across a mixture of development stages (Kallaway, 2002).

There is no need for educators to relinquish their old ideas and replace them with new ones. Rather, educators can broaden their ideological assumptions and refine their organization and coherence through support programme (Kallaway, 2002). Thus, multiple and contrasting views may reflect differences in the beliefs that educators identify and focus on simultaneously. Therefore, when considering educators' change

in beliefs, the assumption of either a 'deficit' model or a 'conceptual change' model should be replaced with an 'adaptive and dynamic system' model, or an 'ecological' model: seemingly conflicting views can exist side-by-side and interact with each other. The characterization of a system's organization and expression in educational practices requires a discerning evaluation of specific and contextual circumstances and needs.

Furthermore, an 'ecological' approach to understanding/describing educators' beliefs suggests that multiple or compound beliefs about learning and teaching need not be well organized and coherent but can be best characterized as independent, or loosely coupled. Beliefs are not a coherent body of knowledge, although, somehow, educators find their own ways to reconcile different approaches, themes and philosophies (Lofland, 2009). Otherwise educators' kaleidoscopic beliefs may be seen as 'resources' that they employ differently, depending on their learning and teaching experiences and context (Russels, 2006). There exists period of transition, surprise and flux, as educators' beliefs are challenged and reviewed, and as they confront new educational ideologies and revised educational practice, educators may not even be aware of their own newly formed beliefs. He further says difficult to interpret metaphors provide a valuable tool for understanding of information that is different or lacking concise, recognizable parameters. He concurs that belief change is a consequence of educators' continuous inquiry into their curricular and instructional decisions and practices, and that it is an integral aspect of educators' lives; then exploring educators' beliefs through both metaphors and direct statements offers a powerful vehicle. They can enrich comprehension of the innovative curriculum context, and help them understand the implications of the context with respect to classroom processes and educators' professional growth (Jansen, 2000).

According to the researcher the transition from content-based approach to outcomes-based approach in the South African education system necessitated the retraining of educators, developing support for educators and circuit managers; enhanced community involvement in education; and the development and supply of adequate learning support programme. A wide variety of educator development programmes were initiated in order to equip educators with NCS aspects in their classrooms. This

was also found in the Eastern Cape where the educators were still using the traditional approach to teaching (Moore, 2011). Moore further noted that their lessons were only based on the questions-and-answers where there were no classroom discussions.

Most educators used drill and practice and were not aware that it was inconsistent with OBE (Jansen, 2000). It was also indicated that adequate clarification lacked with regard to how the available resources should be utilized. According to Pontenza and Monyokolo (2001), most classrooms activities in the Eastern Cape were not well organized because the educators were not familiar with the materials they were using. Most educators were confused and did not know what, where and when to assess (Gauteng Education Training Council, 2000). The Gauteng Education Training Council further states that most educators' understanding of support programme imply that they should test the learners more frequently. Teacher education in South Africa is a matter of concern because learners who choose teaching as a career are few. The profession is surviving because of learners who pass Grade 12 and find out that they are not qualifying to pursue their first prioritized, desired or chosen career in the university and hence turn to teaching as an alternative career. It becomes important to keep these teachers in the profession and it should always be remembered that teaching is a noble profession. It needs a professional individual who is dedicated to his work and who will practice roles of a teacher as per the norms and standards for educators. Teaching needs a professional individual who will be a role model to his learners. Learners who choose teaching as a second choice and even those who choose teaching as their first priority career path need to undergo three components of teacher education in order for them to remain in the teaching profession for their entire career. The three components of the curriculum are initial teacher training, induction, and teacher development or continuing professional development (Khoza, 2016).

As the area of continuing professional teacher development (CPTD) is currently receiving great attention locally and internationally, the researchers explore the effectiveness of strategies for implementing CPTD among rural teachers in South Africa with the view to contributing to the growing international literature in this area that is intricately linked to all national and global developments. In South Africa, a lot

of evidence exists which suggests that the Department of Education (DoE) is well aware of the role and value of CPTD in the overall improvement in the quality of teachers as well as in learning (DBE, 2011; Steyn, 2013; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). Various approaches to and models of CPD are in place in many schools in the country (DoE, 2010; DBE, 2011; Taylor, 2011; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015).

Notwithstanding this, it is necessary to introduce CPTD programmes because the situation in schools remains unchanged, especially in rural schools. Despite numerous interventions through on-going CPTD systems, research indicates that rural teachers have not shown enough observable improvement in their approaches to teaching and learning, nor has the quality of learner outcomes improved (Burton & Johnson, 2010; DBE, 2011; Steyn, 2011; Adu & Okeke, 2014). Evidence also suggests that many rural teachers are still practicing the old traditional classroom teaching methods, with no improvement in the expected learner performance (Steyn, 2011; Pitsoe & Maila, 2012). A large number of teachers have not shifted from the old patterns of practice or past orientations to new ones (Okeke, 2016).

2.6.4. Rural Teacher Educational support programme in other countries

It is said that in England, evidence about who is attracted into teaching is encouraging, that is, where once the average degree class of those joining postgraduate initial teacher training was below average for the graduate population, it is now above average. Nevertheless, England has a long way to go before the status of teaching matches its status in the highest performing countries, that is, forty-three percent of the teachers rate the status of teaching as low, and sixty-six percent of final-year students at 30 top universities believe that teaching offers slow career progression and limited chances for promotion. The country continues to struggle to attract enough graduates in subjects like Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics.

While some countries draw their teachers exclusively from the top tier of graduates, only two percent of graduates obtaining first class honours degrees from the Russell Group universities go on to train to become teachers within six months of graduating from university (DoE, 2010). The initial training of teachers is the most important part

of their professional development. Over a twenty-year period, initial teacher training has tended to focus more sharply on classroom practice. Even so, new teachers report that they are not always confident about some key skills that they need as teachers, for example, the teaching of systematic synthetic phonics as the proven teaching and leadership (DoE, 2010).

A study by Darling-Hammond (2006) contends that the appropriate empowering of teachers, particularly in developing countries, is crucial. According to Zafeirakou (2007), support programme entails a process in which “teachers need to be actively involved in the change process. Based on these sentiments, studies unanimously agree that practical training based on the realities of the classroom and ongoing on the-job support is a critical factor for any successful teacher education (DoE, 2004, 2008; Gardiner, 2008; Wallin, 2008; Mpahla & Okeke, 2015). To Harmon et al. (2007), improving the professional practice of rural teachers requires actions that address the unique context and conditions in rural schools. These views reveal that claims of improving teacher practices are little more than rhetoric, unless the realities surrounding these challenges are addressed. Another critical challenge is to change teachers’ attitudes and those of community leaders.

Teachers have to be assisted to avoid the accepted norm, as this seldom produces good results for their classroom practices (Okeke, 2016). Regarding the above concerns, Ntombela (2011) confirms the existence of structural imbalances in the education system. In 2010 Gulston, recommended a systemic and intensive training programme to develop rural teachers’ confidence and competence, as change occurs through ongoing staff developmental support programmes. What is noticeable is that after several years’ experience in the classroom, rural teachers become set in their ways of thinking about teaching and learning. To avoid such a situation, it is imperative that retraining takes place over time, and that the components of such retraining have both theoretical and practical elements.

School reform is, therefore, challenging as it involves a change in thinking - a paradigm shift. According to Boyer (2006), reflecting on support programmes, education reform cannot succeed if it arrives pre-packaged from the outside. He insists that these reform

efforts must be locally led by teacher communities, local educational leaders, parents and business leaders. These ideas are supported by Steyn (2013) and Okeke (2016) who add that more meaningful teacher developmental support programme occurs when teachers collaborate in on-going and intensive interactions with their colleagues.

2.6.4.1. Quality Teaching: European Union rural Teacher support programme education

According to Erden (2010), teachers, school leaders and teacher educators are key actors in maintaining and improving the quality of education and training systems in Europe. Ministers of Education have on three separate occasions identified priorities for improving the quality of teacher education systems. Taken together, these statements describe a vision of teacher education in Europe based upon high quality standards, professionalism and effective support. Teacher quality is the most important within-school factor affecting student performance. As such, it is vital to the achievement of Lisbon goals. The key role played by teachers and trainers in creating quality education and training systems was recognized from the very beginning of the Open Method of Coordination in Education and Training (OMCET).

Erden (2010) states that early work led to the drafting and validation by representatives of all Member States and stakeholders of a key document named, 'Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications'. Council Conclusions of November 2007, 2008 and 2009 describe a vision of Teacher Education in Europe in key professional values and attitudes such as: reflective practice, autonomous learning and collaboration, practical teaching competencies, recruitment and selection being effective so that Member States attract and retain the best candidates for the teaching profession and promote teaching as an attractive career, improved quality of Initial Teacher Education, with all teachers having a HE qualification that is evidence-based, balanced theory and practice, all beginning teachers, during their first years in the profession receiving professional and personal support ('induction'), all teachers being engaged in relevant and effective Continuing Professional Development, based upon regular reviews of their training needs, the recruitment and development of school leaders as leaders for learning, improved quality of Teacher Educators

(Teacher Trainers), and each Teacher Education System being organized as a seamless continuum that is adequately resourced and quality assured (Mashau, 2016).

There are lessons to be learnt from England's and the European Union's strategies on teacher education development in South Africa. South Africa should emphasize the growth of teacher development like what European Union is practicing. This is to emphasize reflective practice, autonomous learning and collaboration, practical teaching competencies, quality of teachers, recruitment and development of school leaders as leaders for teaching and learning, and quality of initial teacher education. It is of importance for researchers to point out that South Africa should incorporate initial teacher training/education, induction and teacher development or continuing professional development. According to DoE (2005), a professional teacher is a person with educated competences and abiding commitments needed to engage successfully in the professional practice of teaching.

A professional teacher is characterized more by a commitment to the ideals of the profession and flexible competences to pursue those ideals in a variety of circumstances, than by mere obedience to the legitimate requirements of an employer. The practice of teaching is a situated and interpretative contextual practice. Although this practice does involve skills and routines, it cannot be reduced to just that. Variations in what the exercise of this practice involves are dependent on variable contextual realities that include the level of learners and socio-historical, political contexts of practice. Expert teaching involves making situated, interpretive judgments, and this is one reason for saying that it is a professional practice (Mashau, 2016).

Teacher education in South Africa cannot look further than the Report of the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education 2005, the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa of 2007, and Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (ISPFTEDSA) 2011-2025 Technical Report. The Report of the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education 2005 has been shaped by the following broad principles (DoE, 2005): the right to quality education for all is a right without limitation, and it is one of the basic

rights in a democratic South Africa; schooling is a public good, for which public funding is provided; teachers are the key agents in the quality of the education system, and they should be treated and conceptualized as members of a profession (as opposed to as 'service workers'), and higher education qualifications for teachers need to be protected and benchmarked. One of the key principles of a healthy democracy is that there should be various sources of authority to prevent the abuse of power by any one authority. This principle is of particular significance in relation to defining professional teaching and the 'public good', conceptualizing teacher education, and benchmarking 'quality education for all'. The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa of 2007, which has the motto or slogan of "more teachers, better teachers", has the following scope and purpose, that is, it is designed to equip a teaching profession to meet the needs of the democratic South Africa in the 21st century. It brings clarity and coherence to the complex matrix of teacher education activities from initial recruitment and preparation to self-motivated professional development.

The framework deals with teachers from schools and is not directed at teachers in adult education, early childhood development, or further education and training colleges (Mashau, 2016). The policy framework aims to provide an overall strategy for the successful recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers. More specifically, it aims to ensure that teachers are properly equipped to undertake their essential and demanding tasks, able to continually enhance their professional competence and performance, appropriately qualified to fill all vacancies in all schools, and that there is a dynamic balance between demand and supply of teachers, there is a community of competent teachers dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance as well as ethical and professional standards of conduct, and teachers are deservedly held in high regard in South Africa(Mashau, 2016).

According to the Teacher Development Summit Declaration, the new, strengthened, integrated national plan for teacher development should define clear roles, responsibilities and innovative, collaborative relationships among the key stakeholders for the improvement of teacher development, relate key decisions to the broader

context of teacher supply, utilization and demand, define the appropriate institutional arrangements for the delivery of key components of teacher development such as teacher education and professional development, contain clear priorities and realistic timeframes for implementation, recognize the needs of Early Childhood Development (ECD) practitioners and Foundation Phase educators as a particularly important aspect of the plan, reduce the overload of policy prescriptions and regulations, provide for an equitable, adequate and efficient allocation of funds and other resources (including the source and destination of such funds and resources) to enable all teachers to perfect the art of teaching, which is the central concept underpinning the summit, and provide a platform for the development of robust human resource management and information systems that facilitate equitable and efficient provision of and support for teacher development (DoE, 2011).

2.6.5. Teachers' Training and Development

The DoE (2010) states that the state provides more opportunities for a larger proportion of trainees to learn on the job by improving and expanding the best of the current school-based routes into teaching, that is, school-centered initial teaching training and the graduate teacher program. A central application system makes it easier for potential trainees to find a suitable place. Their strongest schools take the lead and trainees are able to develop their skills, learning from best teachers. Increased opportunities for school-based training suits career changers, new graduates and existing members of the school workforce wanting to learn on the job and receive a salary as they train (Mashau, 2016). As part of its work, the Department of Education expects schools to draw together outstanding teachers in an area, who are committed to supporting other schools. There are currently many designations for these teachers, including Advanced Skills Teachers, Excellent Teachers and Leading Teachers.

The Department of Education has re-examined this range of designations to create a single simple designation, which identifies more clearly practitioners who work to support others. Alongside this, the education department has created the national network of teaching schools, and also designated 'Specialist Leaders of Education',

who are excellent professionals in leadership positions below the head teacher (such as deputies, bursars, heads of department) to support others in similar positions in other schools (DoE, 2010). The DoE (2010) further states that at the same time, it works to support the professional development of all teachers. As opportunities to observe and be observed are central to effective professional development, the government makes it clear that there is no 'three hour limit' on the amount of time a teacher can be observed. The Chartered London Teacher model provides a reward for teachers reaching the 'threshold', where they have undertaken a program of collaborative professional development and meet challenging standards. The department looks at the scope for learning lessons from this, nationally (Mashau, 2016). It is also vital that teachers are given the opportunity to deepen their subject knowledge and renew the passion which brought them into the classroom. An independent panel gives awards to support those who wish to pursue further study in their subject or broaden their expertise (DoE, 2010).

2.6.6. Initial Teacher Education support programme

According to Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa 2011-2025 Technical Report (2011), initial teacher education should consider the capacity, quality, cooperation, relevance, and initial teacher education programmes should be improved. The total output of new teacher graduates should be increased to around 12,000 per annum by 2014 and 18,000 per annum by 2019. More aspirant teachers should be encouraged and supported to qualify as FET Phase mathematics, mathematical literacy, physical sciences, language, life orientation, economics and geography teachers. More aspirant teachers should be encouraged and supported to qualify as Senior Phase mathematics, natural sciences, economic and management sciences, arts and culture and language teachers.

More aspirant teachers should be encouraged and supported to qualify as Intermediate Phase mathematics, natural sciences, arts and culture, economic and management sciences and technology teachers. More aspirant teachers should be encouraged and supported to qualify as Foundation Phase teachers, with particular

emphasis on the ability to teach in an official language other than English or Afrikaans. Ways and means of encouraging and supporting private higher education institutions to increase their contribution to producing new teachers should be investigated. Direct incentives and other support should be provided to newly qualified teachers to teach in rural and remote schools and in quintile 1 to quintile 4 schools. Efforts to attract and recruit more teachers into the profession should be redoubled, including targeting foreign educators and retraining unemployed teachers or teachers employed elsewhere (Mashau, 2016). Many researchers have noted that while a support programme had been provided, it was not always relevant to the realities of the classrooms of teachers in rural areas (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Ono & Ferreira, 2010; Villegas-Reimers, 2003), most of which were previously disadvantaged communities, presenting yet more challenges, such as transportation to and from the in-service training centres and lack of relief educators (Stack, 2011).

Bantwini (2009) challenges the cascading model of presenting CPD programmes for teachers as it regards them as passive recipients of the designed programmes and consumers of knowledge produced elsewhere (Tsoetsi, 2016). The national DBE trains the provincial DBE officials, who, in turn, will train in the districts, then cluster teachers and train them. Understanding of the process is pivotal because in formal education access to the learner's mind begins with the teacher (Mahlomaholo, 2012). An exclusively top-down approach will not always work. Another challenge to the implementation of the CPD programmes has been a lack of leadership to ensure that they are relevant at school level. Biputh and McKenna (2010) found that rural teachers had observed a lack of opportunities for improvement on the basis of Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) professional development needs. Administrators were rarely prepared to offer useful advice or provide an opportunity for learning.

Rural teachers did not have a chance to sit down with their Development Support Groups (DSGs) or Staff Development Team (SDTs) and no time was created for working on the issues raised in their personal growth plans (PGPs). Teachers submitted all of their documentation and went through the rule book scrupulously, but with no follow up. Principals were able to settle scores with teachers rather than attending to the teachers' professional development (Kutame, 2010). Besides school

principals, districts are also mandated to look at the immediate PD needs of teachers. According to the IQMS policy document, the district/local office has the overall responsibility of advocating, training and proper implementation of the IQMS [and] the district/local office has a responsibility with regard to the development and arrangement of professional development programmes in accordance with identified needs of educators and its own improvement plan (DoE, 2003). However, an earlier study by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013) showed a lack of support from the district office. If schools themselves requested assistance from the district offices, the response was often negative and rude (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). Hlongwane (2009) found lack of support from the district office, not only in terms of infrastructural requirements but also in content and pedagogical practices, corroborating the Nelson Mandela Foundation findings.

School Management Governance Developers (SMGDs) and learning facilitators (LFs) normally come thrice a year per school; but their attendance is normally not to support or back up teachers but rather for administration and the policing of schools (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). A prioritized item was the support given to teachers and the school at large. The team made use of the NGO to train teachers, SMTs and SGBs on team-building where the focus was more on what makes a team succeed. The NGO appeared as a complementary role player in the implementation of CPD programmes, taking the two schools to a hotel away from the schools in which they were situated. Expenses incurred were paid for by the NGO (Tsotetsi, 2016).

Rural teachers had to indicate topics which they were interested in discussing. Besides the presence of the LFs and the facilitators from the NGO, the greatest proportion of the time spent on teacher collaboration was utilized by teachers, where facilitators divided teachers into groups to solve problems. The second form of rural teacher collaboration took place when teachers were expected to form clusters, in the absence of facilitators but with teachers of the same subjects determining their agenda. The sessions served also to build leadership as they alternated roles. Ownership and determining their needs were the greatest achievement of the process. The last benefit was for the teachers to share their experiences and approaches in tackling some of their challenges (Tsotetsi, 2016).

2.6.7. Teacher Education Induction

South African policies on teacher education do not state induction as part of teacher education. Policies and strategic framework emphasize initial teacher training and teacher continuous development and leave out the component of induction, which is part and parcel of teacher education. Induction is a program of teacher education which takes place during that critical period at the beginning of the newly qualified teacher's career, usually the first year after qualifying as a teacher. Induction, as the process of introducing the employee to the organization and the organization to the employee, begins at the time of appointment. Its purpose is to help new staff achieve competence quickly by possessing the necessary knowledge, support and guidance to carry out their duties effectively within a system that provides a foundation for further development (Early & Kinder, 1994).

To be effective, the induction should lay a foundation for a lifelong professional career (Coleman, 1997). Recognizing the importance of the continuum of teacher education, the induction aims to develop a culture of lifelong learning in each teacher. The purpose of an induction program is to offer systematic professional and personal support to the newly qualified teacher (Mashau, 2016). Mashau, further states that beginning teachers face many challenges and often have many problems and areas of concern. There is evidence from literature that a teacher's first years in the profession are often challenging. These beginning years have been described as the "discovery and survival" phase of teaching.

Educators and education researchers have long recognized the importance of teacher reflection as a means to foster teachers' growth in their professional practice. Since first years are different from what has gone before and what comes after, these years represent a special time in a teacher's career. Some examples that a novice faces could be problems that originated from instruction, school environmental problems, workplace problems, and supervision problems (Mashau, 2016).

The first year is a difficult year to overcome problems for novice teachers. A new teacher faces the challenge of understanding and fitting into the culture of his or her

new school, so, it is needed to support them. These include administrative support, continued support from teacher preparation institutions, colleagues with similar beliefs about teaching, and a supportive school community. In addition to the classroom specific and school problems that new teachers often have, they are also adjusting to new situations in their personal lives (Okumus & Biber, 2011). After teachers have completed initial teacher training and are employed in different schools, they need to be inducted in order to understand transition from theory and practice. Induction is a comprehensive process of sustained training and support for new teachers.

In concurrence, Kengwee and Adjei-Boateng (2010) state that a significant mark of the teaching profession is its ability to ensure the smooth transition and success of its new entrants by bridging the gap between classroom learning and actual field practice. Beyond the initial excitement of joining the teaching profession, beginning teachers generally experience multiple challenges related to the profession. The discrepancy between their vision of teaching and the reality on the ground makes things more difficult than they had anticipated. Kengwee and Adjei-Boateng (2010) and Mashau (2016) state that induction and mentoring are necessary to help beginning teachers succeed in their first years and remain in the profession; beginning teachers who are provided with support are less likely to leave their schools and the noble profession.

The South African Constitution declares the rights of children to education. To this end, the Department of Education (DoE) has committed itself to ensuring that the number of learners enrolled at primary school increased to 85% by 2015 (DoE, 2005). This endeavour is in itself a good thing; however, appropriate measures need to be put in place to ensure that these learners receive quality education even in rural areas. It should be mentioned that achieving excellence in teaching and learning in a rural context remains a challenge for educators and other sectors of the educational change endeavours (Matshidiso & Mncube, 2012).

Educator development should be regarded as a national priority to enable educators plan for the changes ahead of them and understand such changes. McNeil (2003) maintains that education is a labour-intensive field that requires educators' training; therefore, educators' development is regarded as a major key in the success of curriculum change and implementation. Training should equip educators with the

ability to plan in an integral way, to deliver the content using appropriate teaching strategies and to use a variety of methods to assess whether the outcomes have been achieved. According to McNeil (2003), this would boost the ability and knowledge of the educators and success of learners and the OBE implementation process. Curriculum innovations depends is the in-servicing of educators in the use of new approaches.

In order for any sort of change to be successfully implemented, educators need to receive orientation and training. Policies devised by the policymakers can be viewed as useful in theory but can be ineffective in practice if educators are not allowed adequate time to study and comprehend them before implementation. Williamson and Payton (2009) argue for the synergy between curriculum design and classroom routines, pointing out that innovation in the arrangement and composition of the curriculum implies an innovation in practice. Training is required to change teacher thinking and behaviour in its application. They further said that this is time consuming, especially at the outset of the process. Some form of professional development is necessary for educators to understand the introduced reform as they need to be given time to understand what is expected of them and time to reflect on it.

Educators need to be afforded opportunities to share their successes concerning the reform initiative to maintain momentum and 'sell' the idea to their colleagues and even to students. The time element is a crucial, but often an overlooked aspect of school change (Mata, 2012). Programmes of support should be connected to teacher learning and practice being done at the beginning stages for reform to be enacted. Hinde (2003) provides a summary of Little's (1997) six statements concerning effective professional development: professional development offers meaningful intellectual, social, and emotional engagement with ideas, with materials, and with colleagues both in and out of teaching, professional development takes explicit account of the contexts of teaching and the experience of educators, professional development offers support for informed dissent, professional development places classroom practice in the larger contexts of school practice and the educational careers of children. It is grounded in a big-picture perspective on the purposes and practices of schooling (Hinde, 2003). This will provide educators with a measure to gauge and act upon the connections among

students' experiences, educators' classroom practice, and school wide structures and cultures, professional development prepares educators (as well as students and their parents) to employ the techniques and perspectives of inquiry. It acknowledges that the existing knowledge base is relatively slim and that our strength may derive less from educators' willingness to consume research knowledge than from their capacity to generate knowledge and to access the knowledge claimed by others (emphasis in original), the governance of professional development ensures bureaucratic restraint and a balance between the interests of individuals and the interests of institutions (Hinde, 2003).

Mclea (2010), one of the 'architects' of OBE, welcomed the proposed Schooling 2025 system; he nevertheless issued a warning in the media: 'The minister can announce until she's blue in the face in Pretoria, but the provinces have to deliver.' He emphasized the importance of proper teacher training by making the following comment: 'Saying that the system is doing away with paperwork is not going to mean that our Maths educators are suddenly brilliant. It will help educators to focus but it is not enough.' Du Plessis (2005) concurs with other authors that training is a prerequisite for meaningful and successful implementation of change. The education authorities (DBE, 2011:24) stated: 'We will intensify teacher development to prepare educators for the implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement and pay special attention to the training of principals, particularly those in underperforming schools'. They have delivered on their promise by conducting training for Subject Advisers from all nine provinces. This was done in order to prepare for the introduction and to ensure that other stakeholders were equally well versed on the implications of the introduction of CAPS in the Intermediate Phase. The training was attended by more than 3000 officials to receive orientation on Further Education and Training CAPS and more than 1000 General Education and Training officials also received orientation in 2012. In her Opening address of the workshop, Mrs. Marie-Louise Samuels who is the Chief Director for Curriculum at the DBE, stated that the education sector should not be complacent in any of its achievements as there is still lots of work to be done (DBE, 2011).

For the success of CAPS, there is a need to identify the appropriate instructional methods required to equip learners with knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. The DoE (2011) indicates that the methodology based on a learner-centered model is preferred to equip learners with skills, knowledge, values and attitudes. Some examples of learner-centered instructional methods are: group work, discussion, research and problem solving methods. In all these models, the educator becomes the facilitator of learning (Kubitskey, 2006). For successful implementation of CAPS, adequate teaching and learning materials are important as they form a crucial part of teaching.

As Potenza and Monyokolo (1997) point out, these materials should be accessible to everyone, including educators and learners. John (2004) states that materials are important because they provide the vehicle by which learners are taught to read and are tools of the trade in teaching, reading. Like any tools, they are only as good as a craftsman using them. A balanced and flexible reading program requires balance and flexibility in the choice and use of instructional materials. John (2004) states further that among the other materials used for reading instruction in the classroom are supplementary, literature related enrichment materials, skill building materials, computer, Audio and visual technologies. For successful implementation of OBE, the following aspects are essential: learning materials, development of support programme, and these aspects should be aligned to ensure successful transformation of what is happening in the classrooms Monyokolo (1993).

2.6.8. Monitoring support programme and Curriculum

Tshiredo (2013) argues that an effective support programme requires commitment to developing necessary resources, including indispensable knowledge, skills and training. However, there is a need for the development of quality rural teachers programmes and for increased access to such programmes; this is recognised by the relevant departments of Social Development, Health and Education. ECD was also included in the Human Resources Development Report for the first time in 2008 (Russels, 2006). According to Biersteker and Dawes (2008), the authors of the chapter on ECD in that document, this indicates the extent to which the South African government has realised how important ECD is for laying the foundation for success

in the schooling system and how important it is to introduce, especially those children who come from poverty environments to quality ECD provisioning.

Significant progress has been made over the past 12 years to enhance early childhood development in the country. Examples of these are: the establishment of formal structures concerned with the sector, within relevant departments; free healthcare for pregnant women and children from birth to 6 years; increased expenditure in the form of child grants and money earmarked specifically as subsidies to ECD sites; the introduction of grade R and the formal documentation of aspects of early childhood development such as The Children's Act (Atmore, 2012).

Several models of early childhood development approaches have emerged during the past two centuries and are still being followed across the world (Anderson et al., 2003; Edwards, 2002), and principles of many of these could be, and have been, applied in varying degrees towards the development of ECD programmes in South Africa. Exactly which components of early childhood interventions would be the best to include for optimal effect within developing contexts, and for what reason, is unclear from an analysis of international evidence of the benefits of 30 early childhood interventions in 23 non-US countries (Nores & Barnett, 2009).

Another study aimed at analysing the findings of 40 studies representing 28 different ECE programmes noted two characteristics of those programmes reviewed (Chambers, 2010). The first was a clear cognitive or academic focus, which was noted as giving 'structure and objective content to guide the educators' work in the classroom. The second pertains to educator training - extensive training, with intensive support and regular 'follow-up coaching by the development or researcher' (2010). In their review of literature on early childhood education which aims to assess the impact of various programmes and their suitability to the Madagascan context, Loomis and Akkari (2014) found that determining which of the huge diversity of preschool programmes (Russels, 2006).

Rogan (1999) mentions that the success of curriculum implementation depends on the willingness of educators to change their practice in line with new approach and their

level of understanding of the new approach. The educators should be given time to discuss and make input so that they may have the sense of ownership. In the South African context, change in curriculum policy is necessary if the education system is to be responsive to the continuing challenge of poor learner achievement in schools. For such change to have desirable effect, educators, as key players in curriculum implementation, should be brought on board at every stage of the process. Educators play an important role in curriculum change process. Their role is not limited to the implementation of change in the school, but also includes guiding the change process (Clark, 2004). For this reason, they need capacity in the form of a support programme, training and information in order to adopt and implement the change (Kubitskey & Fishman, 2004).

The preparedness of educators was questionable because after training most of the educators still had hazy knowledge of new curriculum. For example, Jansen (2000) noted that in the Kwazulu-Natal and Mpumalanga Provinces, educators held different views about new curriculum knowledge. Jansen further states that most educators in Kwazulu-Natal and Mpumalanga defined NCS as synonymous to C2005. According to Moemi (2001), training was a one-shot workshop per grade without follow-up support in the Eastern Cape. The training left most educators without the necessary OBE knowledge. This was also evident in Jansen's (2000) study conducted in Kwazulu-Natal and Mpumalanga where the educators regarded the new curriculum training as inadequate.

According to Jansen (2000), there were two groups of opinions regarding the issue of training. The first group felt that training was useful, but much more training was still needed. The second group was disillusioned about the training they got and as a result, they felt that a totally different training is required. According to Moemi (1996), that not all educators in the Malamana district had received the training and support, especially in the so-called farm schools, because many farm schools are one educator schools with multigrade classes. It is, therefore, necessary to determine the importance of developing a support programme for rural based primary school educators. According to the Moemi 1996), the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement streamlines and strengthens Revised Curriculum Statement and continues

to be committed to outcomes based education. It is a part of the process of education and training to realize the aims of our democratic society and of the constitution.

The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) deals with what the curriculum requirements are at various levels and phases and a clear description of learner expected at the end of the General Education and Training (GET) band in terms of knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes (Moemi, 1996). In other countries, the challenges of the new curriculum in rural schools in the Netherlands demand educators to attain new skills in order to match the needs of the new curriculum reform. Therefore, more effort was needed in the Netherlands to introduce support programmes for all rural educators to the new curriculum (Vos & Bos, 2005). The most important factor that influences the successful implementation of a CAPS depends mostly on the quality of training afforded to the educators. As pointed by Bennel (2010), high quality professional development programme is important in helping educators to cope with the changes that challenge their profession.

Among others, the training should help educators to change their traditional roles and practices. In South Africa, teacher education is concentrated on initial teacher training and continuous professional development. The component of induction is neglected, which is a concern to the researchers. Teachers enter the education system without undergoing the induction program that will be of assistance for their survival in their new role as teachers. One of the greatest challenges facing the South African education system is lack of production of sufficient qualified, competent teachers that can provide quality teaching for all school subjects and phases Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) (Mashau, 2016).

Perraton (2015) states that teacher education includes four elements, which are improving the general educational background of the trainee teachers (initial teacher training), increasing their knowledge and understanding of the subjects they are to teach, pedagogy and understanding of children and learning (induction), and the development of practical skills and competences. The balance between these four elements varies widely. On the other hand, teacher education institutions have the potential to bring changes within educational systems that will shape the knowledge and skills of future generations. Teacher education institutions serve as key change

agents in transforming education and society, such that a future is possible (Mashau, 2016).

According to Bennel (2010), principals and educators require training in order to implement curriculum effectively. Recent investigation of curriculum implementation in rural primary schools in the foundation phase has revealed that educators experience numerous challenges regarding teaching and learner achievement internationally and nationally (Fleisch, 2008; Moalosi & Molwane, 2010). They further said that challenges emanate from lack of effective teaching and learning of Mathematics and Literacy in the foundation phase. Fleisch (2008) noted that educators in disadvantaged schools tend to have lower expectations of what learners can achieve and therefore tend to interpret the official curriculum to support their lower expectations.

According to Mohd Meerah, Halim, Rahman, Abdullah, Hassan and Ismail (2010), to ensure the effective implementation of curriculum, educators need to be well trained, highly motivated, dedicated and professionally competent. In order to explore the nature of educators' knowledge and understanding of the curriculum, it is necessary to evaluate the training programmes they received for implementing the curriculum, which are in the form of workshops. Ngware, Abuya, Mutisya and Oketch (2010) noted the success of planned in-service training in Malawi and Madagascar, arguing that good performance depends on carefully planned programmes. Similarly, Bennel (2010) highlights the positive outcomes of planned in-service training programmes and acknowledged that educators in Malawi and Madagascar received appropriate curriculum training. The findings of Bennel's (2011) research highlight that teaching and learning had improved in Malawi and Madagascar, implying that well-planned curriculum guidance and support had a positive influence on educators' knowledge and experiences in teaching practices. The successful implementation of curriculum requires well trained educators across the education spectrum, including education officials at all levels of government. There should be a flow of information through the levels about the aspects earmarked for change. The people at the grassroots should not be forced to accept change, but change should be open to them. Parents and other members of the community should be involved in the education of their children and in the process of school development. Hence, the researcher intends to examine the

role of foundation phase educators in the implementation of national curriculum statement in foundation phase (Fetterman, 2005). Therefore, Rogan and Grayson (2003) emphasize that much work needs to be done in development of implementation theories that can act as a guide for school-based practitioners, in-service training provides or change agents as well as policy makers in South Africa and other developing Countries.

The success of CAPS implementation requires careful planning that entails one's efforts, time and action. Parker and Deacon (2005) indicated that the implementation of OBE should be manageable and feasible for the average educator. Planning should relate to the desired and identifiable change that is to be implemented. The success of curriculum implementation requires careful planning that entails one's efforts, time and action. Parker and Deacon (2005) indicated that the implementation of curriculum should be manageable and feasible for the average educator. Planning should relate to the desired and identifiable change that is to be implemented.

Jansen and Sayed (2001) mentioned planning as an important guide to one's daily activities and commitment, and to help the teacher in choosing goals which involve subject area, objectives to be achieved, skills to be developed, teaching approaches or methods, assessment, timeframes and the kind of learner that educators need to develop. In a study on the National Curriculum Review, educators highlighted that planning requirements had become unevenly complicated and appeared to make little contribution to improving teaching and learning (DoE, 2009). In her research into educators' experiences in teaching First Additional Language in rural primary schools, Nsamba (2009) found lack of proper planning for lessons, and that although educators knew the stages of planning they found planning to be a difficult task. Since planning is usually the responsibility of the teacher, this research sought to explore how the foundation phase educators' understanding and experiences meet the requirements of curriculum planning to support learners in developing skills, knowledge, and values that can be demonstrated across other curricular fields. The Department of Education had undermined the complexity and costs of implementing Curriculum in 1998. It is seems as if there was a lack of clarity regarding the plan of implementing CAPS. Lack of clarity and planning regarding the implementation made it difficult for the provincial

departments and publishers to develop plans around the developing of CAPS-related LSM (Potenza & Monyokolo, 1997). The postponement of phasing in CAPS in Grade 3 in 2010 was the evidence of lack of planning and unrealistic timeframes (Duplesis, 2012).

Fetterman (2005) indicated that the report found, from observation and interest, that much of the success of training depend on the individual presenters. Mohd Meerah et al. (2010) also reported that educators were unaware of alternative approaches, and had no confidence in using inquiry-based teaching methods in their classroom practices. Peat (2009) concurred that South African educators in rural schools were struggling to use multiple teaching strategies that demand creativity in Arts and Culture, as they were not commonly exposed to them.

Research in the foundation phase showed that learners were not ready to pursue more challenging activities (Jansen, 2009), and teaching and learning in rural areas was at an extremely low level of achievement (Fleisch, 2008). Despite the shortage of monitoring report of the curriculum orientation programme for intermediate phase, the importance of both of trainers and course material is highlighted (Fetterman, 2005). Lincoln (2002) states that change is necessary in every organisation and it is part of human existence and the experiences of people in virtually all industrial, commercial and service organisations in public and private sectors of the economy. According to Harbemas (2003), change may be discovered as the process of analysing the past to elicit the present actions required for the future.

Jansen (2005) conceptualized educational change as consisting of two major components reactions changes of educational. Change is necessary in every organization, and it is part of human existence. According to Lincoln (2002), change remains an ever present aspect of the experiences of people in virtually all industrial, commercial and service organisation in public and private sectors of the economy. According to Jansen (2005) change may be discovered as the process of analysing the past to elicit the present actions required for the future.

According to Human Science Research Council (HRSC, 2009) report of the working committee for curriculum development in Du Plessis (2005), the training of educators is one of the key activities in the curriculum management process. In addition, the ministerial review committee recommended that implementation of the new curriculum needed to be strengthening by improving teacher orientation and training. McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) state that the training of educators in a new curriculum is needed to be ineffective if it is concentrated and scheduled to take place prior to the implementation only, like in the form of once-off training. In order to do justice to learning areas such as Life Orientation, educators need to have sound understanding of its various facets, as well as skill to successfully integrate them into a continuous meaningful whole (Mouton, 2001). Educators will only have a sound understanding of various facets of learning areas if they are properly trained in and orientated towards the curriculum. However, many educators never shifted an inch from the old approach with a positivist point of view in teaching and learning of science in many schools in South Africa (Glewe, 2007).

Since 1994, major legislative have been adopted and implemented to address the irregularities of the past. CAPS is a curriculum that has been integrated to try and address those disparities. Zelmman and Daniels (1987) are adamant that redesigning learning process entails a radical shift in the mind set of educational leaders. In the context of South Africa, the disparities between areas exist as well as in England, especially when it comes to the provision of support. Furthermore, Sharp (2009) points out the fact that perception among rural educators and coordinators on how well schools are prepared to implement the curriculum from one area to another were unexpected and problematic in an education system striving to achieve positive results (Sharp et al., 2009). According to Tshiredo (2013), the curriculum designers in South Africa seem to be focusing mainly on the desired results of the curriculum and are unmindful about the how part of its implementation. Core problems that manifested in the curriculum change seem to have been overlooked. This might be the reason that the curriculum rural schools in South Africa is still faced with many unresolved problems that are causing curriculum changes to impact undesirably in teaching and learning. Fleit and Wallace (2005) argue that the inability of reform makers to accurately diagnose the systemic problems or to correctly evaluate programmes

before implementation affect the success of curriculum. Taylor (2008) holds the view that policy is developed to address the needs, aspirations and problems of the people to whom it is addressed and its scope and nature is then developed in response to public pressure and is located within the broader legal and political framework. Fleit and Wallace (2005) view public policy as that which is made on behalf of the state to steer the conduct of individuals like educators or learners and organisation like schools.

Educational policies ensure that education occurs in the public interest and is prescriptive as regards the condition of employment of educators and non-educators (Taylor, 2008). It is not sensible just to limit curriculum management to what is taught to whom by whom. He indicates that there are written policy documents, the scheme of work and the decreed parameters of national curriculum. He points out that there are also hidden extras which, while not being the intended outcomes, are still taken away from school by learners. He regards the hidden extras as curriculum which is represented by the values and attitude that are conveyed by the way the school operates and the way the educators behave (Smit, 2001).

It appears that without support programmes, CAPS will be a great challenge for all stakeholders involved in the South African education system. A study of this nature is therefore imperative in an endeavor to develop support programme for rural based primary school educators. This study intends to develop the support programme for rural- based educators in the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement in Vhembe district of Limpopo province.

2.7. CONCLUSION

It has been indicated in this study's preliminary review of literature that development of effective support programme for rural educators help in the implementation of Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement. In this chapter, literature studies revealed various forms of support to be given to rural educators. Rural primary school educators should understand the relevant support programme for the implementation of Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement. The following sections of this study documents study's design and quantitative methodology.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 focused on the literature review which included the theoretical framework of the study under investigation. This chapter presents the research design and the methodology used for data collections which include instrumentation, sampling strategy, ethical measures and data analysis.

3.2. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

There are a number of schools in rural areas where challenges are dominating, resulting in some being declared dysfunctional. However, these schools are governed by the same curriculum, the same conditions of service, national legislation, policies and other public schools in the country (Michael, 2008). Schools differ from one another, and this is an indisputable fact of life.

The challenges facing rural educators in educational reform today are that the vision of practice that underlies the nation's reform agenda; this requires most educators to rethink their own practice, construct new classroom roles and expectations for learners' outcomes, and teach in ways they have never taught before—and probably never experienced as learners (Mudzielwana, 2012:173). However, little is known regarding the kind of support that these educators need for them to promote good quality teaching through CAPS.

The main aim of this study was to develop a support programme for primary schools educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning. The following were the objectives of this study:

- Determine the challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS;
- Determine the impact of the challenges rural primary school educators in Vhembe district are facing in CAPS implementation on learner academic performance;

- Develop a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning.

3.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As the main of this study was to develop a support programme for primary schools' educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning. The following main research question served to delineate the problem more plainly:

What are teacher's perceptions on the impact of developing a support programme for primary schools' educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning?

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS?
- What is the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learner academic performance?
- What support programme can be developed for primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in the implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning?

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodology is presented in this section.

3.4.1 Research paradigm

This study fell within a quantitative research approach. A positivist research paradigm foregrounds this study with the purpose of developing a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning. Quantitative research methods were deemed appropriate for meeting the aim of this study and have been used in a similar study on implementation of curriculum by (Maphalala, 2006; Mabusela, 2014).

3.4.1.1 Quantitative survey design

The study design is a survey and involves data collection by means of questionnaire. A survey was deemed appropriate for this study as it provided a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population. A Quantitative research design is probably the best method available to the social scientist who is interested in collecting original data for describing a population which is too large to observe directly (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Studies (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Krathwohl, 1998) define quantitative approach as the best measurement of the properties of phenomena, which is the assignment of numbers to the perceived qualities of phenomena. Various educational studies have been undertaken using survey as the research design tool and it has been shown to be a reliable tool in data collection (Maphalala, 2006; Bezuidenhout, Jager & Naidoo, 2013; Shumaba & Naong, 2013; Mabusela, 2016).

The researcher administered the questionnaires to collect data on teachers' perceptions on the development of a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning.

3.5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology includes the population, sample and sampling strategies, instrumentations, data collection procedure, data analysis and interpretation. The research methodology of this study is detailed in the sub-sections that follow:

3.5.1 Research design

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a research design indicates the programme to guide the research in collecting, analyzing and interpreting observed facts, from whom, when and under what condition the data was obtained. A research design also describes how the study will be conducted and again summarizes the procedures for conducting the study, i.e. it indicates the general plan on how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, and what methods of data collection are used (McMillan & Schumacher, 1999). Creswell (2014) stated that research designs are plans and

procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. It is the plan according to which we obtain information from research participants/subjects, collect information from them and also describe what we are going to do with the participants with a view to reaching conclusions about the research problem, research hypothesis and research questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Research design is a plan for how the researcher will study and answer the question at hand. The purpose of the research design is to determine methods used by the researchers to obtain subjects, collect data, analyse and interpret the results Creswell (2014).

This study is a survey of the teachers' perception on the development of a support programme for primary schools' educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning. Surveys are used frequently in educational research to describe attitudes, beliefs, opinion, and other types of information (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). They further stated that a survey design was suited to the study as it is regarded as an excellent vehicle for measuring perceptions and orientations in a large population. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) alluded to this and indicated that usually, the survey research design is designed in such a way that the information about a large number of people (population) can be inferred from the responses obtained from a smaller group of subjects.

3.5.2 Population

Earlier literature by McMillan and Schumacher (2006) states that population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research. The population for this study consisted of educators from rural schools in the Vhembe District of Limpopo province.

3.5.3 Sample and sampling strategy

According to Yin (2011), sampling methods refer to the process of selecting a subset of cases in order to draw conclusions about the entire set. Schumacher and McMillan

(2010:38) define the concept sample as the number of individuals selected from a population for a study. Kumar (2014) stated that a sample comprises elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study, or it can be viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which we are interested. It is a group of elements drawn from the population which is considered to be a representative of the population, which is studied in order to acquire some knowledge about the entire population (Schumacher & McMillan, 1999). This study used a simple random strategy for a quantitative survey design.

3.5.3.1 Simple random procedure

Kumar (2014) states that the simple random sampling strategy involves selecting at random from the list of the population the required number of subjects for the sample. A simple random sampling procedure was used for quantitative study designs to select 500 participants from rural schools in the Vhembe District. Permission to collect data was granted by Department of Education, the principals and teachers of the identified schools. A sample consisted of rural teachers from primary schools in Vhembe district. Using a simple random sampling procedure, every fifth number from the list of the populations until a desired number of five hundred subjects was reached. Thus, 490 participants from rural primary schools in the Vhembe District returned the questionnaires, and the return rate was (98%), which is acceptable in a research.

3.5.4 Research instrument

Earlier work by Kumar (2014) stated that a questionnaire is a set of questions formalised to obtain information from respondents and can be called a schedule, interview or observation form or measurement instrument. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) state that a questionnaire is the most widely used technique for obtaining information from subjects about current conditions and practices and to make inquiries concerning opinions and attitudes. It is relatively economical, has the same questions for all subjects and can ensure anonymity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

In this study, the researcher constructed a Teachers' Perceptions Questionnaire to establish how teachers perceive the development of a support programme for primary school educators in the implementation of CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas in promoting quality teaching and learning. A five point Likert scale questionnaire consisting of closed-ended questions with 37 statements was constructed with two sections. Section A was made up of four items which established biological details from the respondents. Section B comprised closed-ended items using a 5 point Likert Scale (Strongly Agree=SA, Agree, Not Sure=NS, Disagree=D and Strongly Disagree=SD) from which the respondents responded to the statement made. The researcher constructed the closed-ended Likert scale statements based on my own personal experience and guided by literature reviewed.

3.5.5. Pre-testing the questionnaire instrument

In constructing the questionnaire, the researcher took care to ensure that sentences, statements and main questions were brief and clear to the respondents. The questionnaire was pre-tested before being utilised in the investigation to enhance their reliability. Pre-testing of the questionnaire involved ten colleagues whom were requested to complete and give feedback regarding the clarity of questions. The researcher also requested them to report any error on the questionnaire and whether they thought the questionnaire was user friendly. In cases where the statements were found to be vague and not clear, appropriate corrections were made.

Pre-testing of the questionnaire also involved rigorous checking by my promoters to ensure technical errors are eliminated. The questionnaire was again given to ten teachers to complete. Those teachers were instructed to indicate where they are failing to understand the statement/s or a word. Some of the teachers who were used for pre-testing also formed part of the respondents who completed the questionnaire as they were available during sampling processes. This ensured that the study's results were credible since they were able to respond well to the statements they had once responded to with corrections effected. Lastly, five hundred copies were made and hand delivered to the sampled educators from different rural schools around Vhembe district.

3.5.6 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher collected data by administering questionnaires to teachers who were the respondents. Teachers from rural primary schools in the Vhembe District served as the respondents and participants for this study. Quantitative data collection process took four weeks to be completed. The whole data collection procedure is elaborated below.

3.5.6.1 Quantitative data collection procedure

Once permission to collect data was granted by the DoE's District Senior Manager of Vhembe, the process of identifying schools to be sampled began. Rural schools around Vhembe District area were used for data collection. Copies of the permission letter were taken to the principals of the sample schools. Before the researcher distributed the questionnaires to teachers, the purpose of the study was explained in detail. The researcher personally handed the questionnaires to teachers who were sampled to complete at their own time. Arrangements were made as to when those questionnaires could be collected. Such questionnaires were collected at a later stage in which time if problems in the completion of questionnaires were encountered, these were solved. Teachers who requested to complete the questionnaire in my presence were allowed to do so and were afforded a maximum of an hour to complete the questionnaire after which such questionnaires were collected. That was solely dependent on the teachers' time and the fact that the day-to-day school activities were not inconvenienced in anyway.

3.5.7 Data analysis

A robust statistics (inferential) Chi-square was used for data analysis. A computer loaded with the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program was used to analyze quantitative data from questionnaires as it is more powerful and accessible on the personal computer. It is advisable that in quantitative studies, data analysis

should be coded by assigning numerical values to answers obtained from respondents (Kumar, 2014). Data captured from completed questionnaire were coded in excel and imported into SPSS. Creswel (2014) posits that statistical procedures that the researcher applies to the data are depended not only upon the purpose of the analysis, the way the researcher wants to communicate the finding to the reader and knowledge of statistical procedures, but also on the capabilities of the software. Literature suggests that once the data has been correctly entered according to prescribed instructions, the possibility of errors is vastly reduced (Volcker & Asher, 2005).

3.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Though the study was aimed at investigating teachers' perceptions on the impact of developing a support programme for rural primary schools' educators in the implementation of CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas in promoting quality teaching and learning, particular attention was only paid to the sampled schools around Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. Vhembe District area is only one of the 5 districts in Limpopo Province, and one of the nine provinces in South Africa. However, it was felt that the findings might be consistent in all schools in South Africa.

3.7. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Neuman (2014), contends that validity and reliability are salient issues because constructs in social theory are often ambiguous, diffuse and not directly observable. LeCompte and Goetz (1982), maintain that while validity is concerned with the accuracy of scientific findings, reliability is concerned with replicability of the research findings. According to Hammersley (2000), validity is the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers.

For this study, the instrument was shaped and enriched by consulting a wide range of literature on the subject to ensure its validity. A pre-test of the instrument was also carried out using ten rural primary school educators. These educators were excluded from the main study. A test-retest reliability of the instrument during the second round

of administering the instrument yielded Cronbach's alpha of 0.81 which indicated a high internal consistency and reliability.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Creswell (2014) asserts that most researchers who use a quantitative approach address the importance of ethical consideration. Macmillan and Schumacher (2010) indicate that ethics are generally considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. On the other hand, Chamber (2010) indicates that the ethics of science concern what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of research because scientific research is a form of human conduct which has to conform to generally accepted norm and values. The following ethical issues were considered for this study:

- **Informed consent**

Denzin and Lincoln (2008) indicate that this is the research's code of conduct, and that participants must agree voluntarily to participate without any physical or psychological coercion. The purpose of the study was clearly explained to respondents before completing the questionnaire survey. A covering letter requesting the respondents to participate in this study was provided explaining the value and the purpose of the study. All the participants were notified on how the information they are going to contribute will be utilized. After consulting the Department of Education, educators were further asked to sign the consent letter during the first phase of the study to verify their willingness to take part in the study. The consent form indicated clearly that their participation was voluntary.

- **Confidentiality and anonymity**

During the data collection process, respondents were informed that the data collected will be confidential and only used for the purpose of this study. Their names would not be revealed in any way, and that they may refuse to allow publication of any information that they think might harm them in any way. They

were also assured that their refusal to take part is not punishable lawfully or in any other way.

- Respect for respondents

This study was not, in any stage, intimidating to the respondents and the interaction was characterized by mutual respect throughout the process. No deception of respondents occurred. The researcher also ensured that there was no misinterpretation or deliberate misrepresentation of facts provided by the respondents.

I have read the university policy and procedure on research ethics and its policy and procedures. I undertake to:

- Respect the dignity, safety and well-being of the participants and respect their anonymity and confidentiality;
- Acknowledge and attribute others' ideas, designs and writing that are not originals;
- Reference my work accurately according to my chosen reference technique;
- Seek ethical clearance certificate from the university of Zululand Research Ethics Committee to allow this study to progress; and
- Give each participant a consent form and covering letter that explains the purpose and nature of research.

3.9. CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher used a quantitative method that was engaged in the study, as well as the tool that were used to collect data. The sample was described and the sampling procedure explained. Steps that were followed in preparing for the field investigation were elucidated. Validity and reliability of data collection of the findings were also discussed. Ethical issues were also discussed. The next chapter presents an analysis, and interpretation of data derived from the questionnaire. In chapter five synthesized findings for educational contexts of the subject of the study, support programme model and recommendations for further future studies on a similar subject are made.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented quantitative survey design which indicates the structure and procedures that were followed to answer the study's research questions. Quantitative survey design involves data collection by means of questionnaire. It is appropriate for this study as it provided a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population. This chapter presents the results from the analysis of questionnaires completed by educators from rural based primary schools of the Vhembe district showing the demographic profile and the main trends and patterns in the data are presented.

4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC REPORT

The demographic characteristics of the educators who completed questionnaires were analysed to determine which variables correlate best with their responses on Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe District rural-based primary schools' educators to promote quality teaching and learning.

4.3. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Presentation of results and analysis focuses on the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe District rural-based primary schools educators. Four major themes emerged from the analysis of quantitative data, and these are: (1) challenges facing rural primary school educators on the implementation of CAPS, (2) department of education support on rural educators towards supplying of learning materials, (3) infrastructure and human resource in rural areas and (4) support given to rural based educators on the implementation of CAPS. The results to the questionnaire items were presented with the help of tables showing frequencies and frequency percentages.

4.4. RESPONDENTS' BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

The following tables (below) illustrate the distribution of educators (n=490) according to their biographical details.

4.4.1. Gender distribution

This section presents the gender distribution of educator respondents who took part in this study.

Table 4.1. Gender distribution of educators (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Female	249	50.8
Male	241	49.2
TOTAL	490	100

Table 4.1 above illustrates the distribution of educators according to their gender. The questionnaire was administered to 490 educators with 173 (47%) males and 241 (49.2%) females 249 (50.8%).

The results show that the majority of educators teaching in rural areas were females. These results are in line with the finding of the work of Filmer (2000) who stated that rural male teachers regard teaching in Foundation and Intermediate phases as the duty of females. These results also support Chamber (2010) findings in which they note that rural male teachers like to work with more grown up learners than young ones. This might be the reason why there are more female than male educators in rural schools.

The biggest challenge that female educators may have is the patriarchal culture that looks down on women. For example, in rural schools, there are bigger numbers of

over age learners; it might be difficult to discipline them, and this may result in poor implementation of the curriculum. Implementation may be difficult as female teachers may feel overwhelmed by the fact that teaching and home demands prevent them from actively implementing the curriculum. When there are more female educators in rural schools, it makes the implementation of the curriculum more difficult, taking into account the household responsibilities that female educators have.

4.4.2. Respondents' age range

The following table presents the age distribution of the respondents who took part during the survey of this study.

Table 4.2. Age of respondents (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
20-29 years	67	13.7
30-39 years	241	49.2
40-49 years	133	27.1
50 years old and older	49	10.1
Total	490	100

Most respondents who took part in this study were middle-age educators of between ages 30 – 39 (49. 2%) and 40-49 (27. 1%). Only (13, 7%) respondents were educators who were younger than 30, and 49 (10. 1%) were aged 50 years old and above. These results suggest a different view to that of Russels (2006), who found that in South Africa, most teachers quit the system before the normal time of retirement. These results suggest that the majority are middle aged, and older rural teachers are no longer willing to be developed because they are tired and no longer willing to learn because the area has younger teachers who might be willing to be developed and go into the profession.

There may be some more appealing remuneration to attract young teachers to the profession. The teacher/pupil ratio should be reduced to enable young teachers to enjoy their work instead of them being overwhelmed by large numbers of learners. If there were younger teachers, they could be willing to learn and be ready to roll out the curriculum.

4.4.3. Respondents' teaching phase

Table 4.3 presents the results on the phase that educators are currently teaching.

Table 4.3. Teaching phase (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Foundation phase	155	31.6
Intermediate phase	198	40.4
Senior phase	137	28.0
Total	490	100

A large number (40.4 %) of the respondents who took part in this survey teach in the intermediate phase. Of all four hundred and ninety respondents, only 28.0% were teaching in senior phase. These results indicate that there are more teachers in foundation and intermediate phase who are qualified to teach in those phases than in senior phase. The reason is that it is only Grade 7 that is in the primary school while Grades 8-9 are in the secondary school; the focus of the study was on primary school teachers.

These results are consistent with the findings of Hunt (2008) which indicated that in many countries, primary schools have qualified teachers than in secondary schools. These results, however, indicate that support given to rural educators towards implementing CAPS curriculum is more challenging in the foundation and intermediate phase than in the rural primary schools because the intermediate phase attracts more female teachers than the senior phase as there are no specialization in both foundation and intermediate phase.

4.4.4. Learners class enrolment

The following table (4.4) presents the number of learners in class for all the respondents.

Table 4.4. Learners class enrolment (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
0-30 learners	94	19.2
31-50 learners	185	37.8
51-69 learners	120	24.5
70 learners and more	91	18.6
Total	490	100

Table 4.4 presents number of learners in each class. A large number (37, 8%) of the respondents in this survey had a class of between 51-69 (24.5%). Only (19, 2%) had less than 0-30 learners in class while (18. 6%) had a class of 70 and more learners.

It can be concluded that most classes in rural areas are overcrowded because in rural areas, there are few schools which are a distant apart, hence a support programme of educators needs to be developed by the department to help rural educators with skills to work with overcrowded classes. The situation at hand is that there are overcrowded classes, and there is no way learners can be denied access to education. So the government should come up with new ways of equipping teachers to deal with large numbers; for example, school hours can be reduced for learners to allow teachers to deal with few learners in blocks. The study may perhaps suggest that rural schools should initiate programmes for teachers to equip them with skills to deal with overcrowded classes to positively influence and control such big overcrowded classes.

4.4.5. Language of instruction at school

The following table presents the language of instructions in respondents' schools.

Table 4.5 Language of instruction at school (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Tshivenda	154	31.4
English	141	28.8
Xitsonga	137	28.0
Other languages	58	11.9
Total	490	100

Table 4.5 above presents results showing the language of instructions at a school. A large number (31.4%) of respondents indicated that the schools where they teach use Tshivenda as the medium of instruction, while (28.8%) use English as a medium of instruction at their institutions. Only 28.0 use Xitsonga as language of instruction. Furthermore (11.9%), respondents use other languages for teaching and learning. This is due to the geographical nature of the Limpopo province where in the same province, there are more than four ethnical groups, that is, Vendas, Tsongas, Sothos and Whites.

The results are consistent with the finding of Govender (2013) who recommends that: teacher orientation, training and support processes should be refined; a high teacher-pupil ratio needs to be phased out and discouraged; a variety of quality Learner Teacher Support Material should be readily available and easily accessible to educators in the classroom to enhance the teaching and learning of languages and mathematics; on-going supervision, monitoring and support from the staff management team and subject advisors/specialists are necessary with regards to curriculum implementation; and finally, professional development programmes and school based activities currently in place need to be evaluated and reviewed.

Rural educators in Vhembe need to be supported as they teach in mother tongue, and this might pose a challenge to learners as they will struggle with English as a medium of instruction in higher phases. Programmes such as breakthrough to English could be incorporated to enable learners to use their mother tongue to learn and be able to translate what they learn to English, and this may ease their learning. The study might, therefore, call for a rethinking of traditional usage of mother tongue approaches as it is also vital to use English as first additional language.

4.5. CHALLENGES FACING RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATORS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CAPS

This section discusses challenges facing rural primary school educators on CAPS implementation.

4.5.1. Teachers quit the system

It was also important to know whether or not rural school teachers are quitting the system because they do not understand CAPS or not. Table 4.6 reflects educators' responds on this statement.

Table 4.6 Teachers quit the system (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	71	14.5
Agree	143	29.2
Not sure	146	29.8
Disagree	103	21.0
Strongly disagree	27	5.5
Total	490	100

The majority (43.7 %) of respondents agreed that teachers were quitting the system because they did not understand CAPS. Only (29.8%) of educators were not sure. A further (26.5 %) disagreed or strongly disagreed that teachers are quitting the system because they do not understand CAPS or not. It is the responsibility of the department of education to see that educators are trained and also understand curriculum assessment policy statement.

The results are consistent with the finding of the work of Berger (2011) indicating that successful implementation of CAPS requires the involvement of all education officials at all levels of government. It is interesting to note that if 29.8% of the respondents are not sure about teachers quitting the system because they don't understand CAPS, then it may indicate that perhaps there are other reasons that are causing teachers to quit the system.

The Programme to Improve Learning Outcome (PILO) in Kwazulu Natal suggests that teachers are leaving rural areas due to poor conditions, and this negatively impacts on the curriculum implementation. It would be difficult for fewer teachers to implement the curriculum effectively. A greater number of educators who are quitting the system are quitting due to shortage of educators, poor salary, medical insurance, and working conditions; limited budget for professional development affects a comprehensive in-service education programme on how to implement the curriculum to learners while shortage of educators result in educators having work overload and this results in educators being affected by stress (Metcalf, 2014).

A Pearson's chi-squared test (χ^2) (a statistical test applied to sets of categorical data to evaluate how likely it is that any observed difference between the sets arose by chance) revealed significant equality in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 6.784, $p < 0.148$, Cramer's $V = .118$). Respondents believe that by providing an effective support programme, teachers may effectively stop quitting the system.

Growth in teachers' emotional intelligence and tolerance of constructive criticism from colleagues should be applied. This will ensure that senior or old teachers gain confidence and implement the new curriculum and changes with ease, thus stopping

the out flow movement of teachers. Most teachers are leaving rural schools for greener pastures because there is nothing attracting them to stay in rural areas. The government should come up with a rural allowance to attract teachers to stay in rural areas.

4.5.2. Overcrowding of classes and one-on-one contact.

Educators' knowledge of preparation for all CAPS is the ultimate goal of the department of education. Educators should know how to prepare for all CAPS learning areas after getting proper training from the department of education. It was important in this study to determine whether rural school educators know how to make CAPS preparations for teaching of all subjects. Table 4.7 below reflects educators' responses in that regard.

Table. 4.7 Overcrowded classrooms in rural schools (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	125	25.5
Agree	126	25.7
Not sure	126	25.7
Disagree	88	18.0
Strongly disagree	25	5.1
Total	490	100

The majority (51. 2%) of educators agreed that they were experiencing a challenge of overcrowding in their schools. On the other hand, (25. 7%) were neutral on the idea that rural educators are experiencing a challenge of overcrowding in their schools. Only (23. 1%) revealed that they disagreed that rural educators are experiencing a challenge of overcrowding in their schools.

The results are consistent with the finding of the work of Schiro (2013) which indicates that overcrowding can be detrimental to the quality of learning and teaching and contributes to the failure to improve educators' academic performance. It is difficult for a teacher to support individual learners in an overcrowded classroom. The results are also consistent with the finding of the work of Taole (2015), who indicated that overcrowded classrooms make it difficult, if not impossible, for teachers to successfully to implement the curriculum. She further indicated that overcrowded classrooms have been an issue for years and confirms that the issue of overcrowding requires further investigation and improvement.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 10.772, $p < 0.29$, Cramer's $V = .148$). Respondents believe that by providing effective support programme, teachers may effectively stop quitting the system. The results are significant with gender as both male (49.2) and female (50.8) averagely agreed that they experience overcrowding of classes, making it impossible for them to have one on one contact. Educators regard overcrowding as having a negative impact on the implementation of curriculum and this is detrimental to the promotion of learning and teaching. Teachers cannot teach effectively in crowded classes while learners may also not learn properly in classes that are overcrowded. Overcrowded classes are unmanageable and the quality of teaching and learning is compromised. Further, mentor/mentee training programmes within rural schools should be introduced so that staff who are more knowledgeable are able to help the lesser knowledgeable ones on controlling the overcrowded class without causing an embarrassment to either party.

This suggests that one of the problems that affect curriculum implementation is the teacher-pupil ratio; most methods that are in the CAPS curriculum do not fit in rural schools. This expects teachers to do group work but with such a large number of learners in the classroom, it is not easy. The reduction of a teacher-learner ratio could bring relief to overworked and overloaded teachers. This will reduce paper-work, which, most teachers lamented as hindering effective implementation of curriculum.

4.5.3. Lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators.

Another question which was asked of the respondents was whether or not lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire about the impact of lack of implementation of CAPS on rural educators. Table 4.8 indicates the educators' response on the statement – in descending order.

Table 4.8 Lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	84	17.1
Agree	138	28.2
Not sure	131	26.7
Disagree	107	21.8
Strongly disagree	30	6.1
Total	490	100

Only 28. 2% of the educator respondents agreed with the idea that educators in rural schools are frustrated by lack of CAPS implementation in rural schools. When educators implement CAPS in rural schools, it led them to depression and stress and end up quitting the system. Table 4.6 shows that (26.7%) of educator respondents were not sure on whether lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators or not. Additionally, (21.8%) disagreed with the statement that lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators in rural schools. The results are consistent with the finding of the work of Schiro (2013) which indicates that to improve educators' academic performance, compulsory workshops on curriculum development and implementation should be done for rural based educators. The results show that only hundred and thirty-seven (27. 9%) of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the notion that lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators in rural schools.

The results are consistent with the finding of the work of Taole (2015) who indicated that rural educators are frustrated by the programmed approach, curriculum development which takes place before implementation. She further said that implementation is regarded as the application of the pre-specified model. This approach solves the implementation problems by concentrating on flaws in the specification of the product such as the gaps in the existing specification of innovations practices.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (**Chi-Square** = 20.760, $p < 0.008$, Cramer's $V = .146$) and by teaching phase (40.4%) that educators are teaching. A significant majority (40.4%) of intermediate phase teachers confirm that poor implementation of CAPS frustrates them, resulting in them experiencing stress which may result in quitting the system in large numbers. Perhaps school authorities should design a school holiday block training programme for old teachers who are facing difficulties in understanding how the curriculum should be implemented as this can improve their teaching competences.

4.5.4. Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries.

It was also important to know whether or not rural schools are experiencing a shortage of libraries or not.

Table. 4.9 reflects educators' response on this statement.

Table 4.9 Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	66	12.2
Agree	195	39.8
Not sure	177	36.2
Disagree	49	10.0
Strongly disagree	9	1.8
Total	490	100

Slightly more than half (52.0%) of respondents were of the idea that educators in rural schools experience a great shortage of libraries. When educators have a shortage of libraries in their rural schools, it promotes poor performance and lack of skills and quality of teaching on the part of learners and educators, respectively. Table 4.9 shows that 36.2% of educator respondents were not sure on whether educators have a shortage of libraries in their rural schools. A total of 11.8% disagreed with the statement that educators in rural schools have shortage of libraries in their rural schools. The implication behind this shortage of libraries in rural schools might be the cause of poor performance on rural school learners as they do not have time to read and spend most of their times on other things than in libraries.

The library is a common resource in most urban schools and areas. The results are consistent with the finding of the work of Saiti (2005), who indicated that most rural communities do not even know what a library is yet alone what its function is.

A highly significant effect in the rating of this item by level (**Chi-Square** = 35.661, $p < 0.01$, Cramer's $V = .191$) and by number of learners in class (37.8%) and the teaching phase (40.4%) that educators are teaching was observed.

It is shown in Table 4.10 below that the only observed differences in perceptions due to number of learners in class were with respect to "Schools in rural areas have teachers' support programme that helps them to implement curriculum" ($P < 0.00$). However, highly significant effects of teaching phase of educators were found regarding "Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries" ($P < 0.001$).

Establishing a library in schools in rural areas help improve the illiteracy rate and enhance rural education. These libraries can eventually evolve to include computers to help train scholars in computer literacy. The major problem is diagnosed in the intermediate phase because this is the phase where learners start to read on their own, hence they need libraries. A significant majority (37.8%) of classes in rural areas are overcrowded.

Table 4.10: Significant effects of number of learners in class and teaching phase

Variables/ perceptions	Effects of			
	Number of Learners in class		Teaching Phase	
	χ^2	Sig	χ^2	Sig
1. Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries	37.8	**	40.4	***
2. Schools in rural areas have teachers' support programme that helps them to implement curriculum	37.8	**	40.4	**
3. Teachers have sufficient learning materials for all their learning	38.8	**	40.4	**

Key: * = P < 0.05 ** = P < 0.01 *** = P < 0.001 sig = significance

4.5.5. Teachers have sufficient teachers guide for all their learning areas.

Another question which was asked of the educator respondents was whether or not educators in rural schools have sufficient materials for all learning areas. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire whether teachers have sufficient materials for all their learning areas. Table 4.11 indicates the educators' response on the statement.

Table 4.11 Availability of teachers guide for all learning areas (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	96	19.6
Agree	107	21.8
Not sure	140	28.6
Disagree	111	22.7
Strongly disagree	36	7.3
Total	490	100

The majority (28.6%) of the educator respondents were not sure whether what they had were teachers' guides or not. When educators have teachers' guides, it helps them to know what is expected of them to implement curriculum assessment policy statement. Table 4.10 shows that slightly more than a quarter (30%) of educator respondents disagree that teachers have insufficient teachers' guides and teaching materials for all their learning areas. A total of 41.4% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that educators in rural schools had sufficient teachers' guides for all learning areas.

These results show that availability of CAPS resources such as teachers' guides might be a challenge and if it can be addressed properly by making it available, it can help to improve quality of teaching in class in rural areas. The findings of the study indicated that most of the teachers in rural schools do not have sufficient teachers' guides for all the learning areas, this might perhaps mean that they are still engaging in old forms of teaching. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (**Chi-Square** = 20.903, $p < 0.007$, Cramer's $V = .146$); gender (28.6%) as both males (15.9%) and females (12.7%) were not sure whether teachers have sufficient textbooks for all learning areas or not, language of instruction was (28.8%). The number of learners in class was (37.8%), and rural schools averagely agreed that shortage of CAPS teachers' guides has a negative effect on the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools.

It is shown in Table 4.12 below that the only observed differences in perceptions are due to gender of educators and language of teaching in class: Tshivenda (31.4), English (28.8), Xitsonga (28.0), Sesotho (4.9), Isizulu (3.7) and other languages (3.3). Only (28.8%) of rural teachers use English as their medium of instruction. The majority of rural teachers use mother tongue as their medium of instruction.

Table 4.12: Significant effects of gender of educators and language of instruction

Variables/ perceptions	Effects of			
	Gender of educators		Language of Instruction	
	χ^2	Sig	χ^2	Sig
1. Teachers have sufficient guide for all learning materials	37.8	**	40.4	***
2. Schools in rural areas have a teachers' support programme that helps them to implement the curriculum	37.8	**	40.4	**

Key: * = P < 0.05 ** = P < 0.01 *** = P < 0.001 sig = significance

Teachers might still be using their own methods of teaching even though there are new ways of teaching that is provided by the Department of Basic Education. If there are no teachers' documents in rural schools, then it may mean that academic performance of learners cannot be improved. The results are significant with the number of learners in class. The majority of classes in rural areas are overcrowded (37.8), and this may result in insufficient distribution of learning materials for all learning areas.

It is shown in Table 4.13 below that the only observed differences in perceptions due to number of learners and teaching phase may be given the autonomy to implement the curriculum given the context from which they are operating, this may enable them to be creative, resourceful and independent. The results are significant with the teaching phase of educators. The majority of interphase educators (40.4) show that there are insufficient learning materials for all their learning areas, and this might be due to the government focus on the entry level of foundation phase.

Table 4.13: Significant effects of number of learners in class and teaching phase

Variables/ perceptions	Effects of			
	Number of Learners in class		Teaching Phase	
	χ^2	Sig	χ^2	Sig
3. Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries	37.8	**	40.4	***
4. Schools in rural areas have a teachers' support programme that helps them to implement the curriculum	37.8	**	40.4	**

Key: * = P < 0.05 ** = P < 0.01 *** = P < 0.001 sig = significance

4.5.6. Rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material resources

Educators were further requested to indicate whether or not rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material resources.

The following table (Table 4.14) shows educators' views regarding their observations on whether or not rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material resources.

Table 4.14. Shortage of CAPS material resources. (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	78	15.9
Agree	126	25.7
Not sure	160	32.7
Disagree	102	20.8
Strongly disagree	24	4.9
Total	490	100

The majority of respondents (25.7%) agree that rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material. While (15.9%) strongly agree with the statement, (32.7) respondents were not sure about the notion that rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material. Slightly more than a quarter (25.7%) of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that educators in rural schools have a great shortage of CAPS material.

The results are consistent with the finding of Taole (2015) who indicated that Educational reform movements have resulted in tremendous challenges in the education system and for the role players, teachers in particular, around the globe. This is particularly true in South Africa. Taole further indicated that many education systems, including the South African system, are implementing radical reforms in order to adapt to a changing world. However, issues surrounding education reform have posed challenges to educationists in both developed and developing countries such as the United States of America, New Zealand, Botswana, Australia and Namibia. South Africa is no exception. Taole (2015) argues that in South Africa, curriculum implementation has been beset by problems and negativity that have seriously hampered the realization of the new education system that could be based on quality and democracy. Love to know Teens (2008) supports these results when it argues that shortage of curriculum material contributes to poor performance of learners. These results suggest that if educators in rural schools have a great shortage of CAPS material, this might contribute to the poor performance of rural learners. A highly significant effect in the rating of this item by level (**Chi-Square** = 23.598, $p < 0.03$, Cramer's $V = .155$) was observed on the perception that rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material resources.

The results significantly suggest that the Department of Basic Education should be aware that rural schools have a great shortage of CAPS material as more than half of the respondents are either not sure or disagree that there are sufficient or enough learning materials in rural schools. It is therefore pivotal that all the role players should make sure that they do their work so that rural communities and learners should be developed academically. Shortage of material is a serious challenge in South Africa

as there have been media reports recently that schools have not received the materials that they needed to implement the curriculum.

4.5.7. Impact of shortage of educators in rural schools on the quality of teaching and learning.

Shortage of educators in rural schools has an impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

The following table (Table 4.15) shows educators views regarding their observations on whether or not shortage of educators has an impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

Table 4.15 Impact of shortage of educators in rural schools on the quality of teaching and learning (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	85	17.3
Agree	159	32.4
Not sure	134	27.3
Disagree	94	19.2
Strongly disagree	18	3.7
Total	490	100

The majority (32.4%) agreed with the idea that shortage of educators had an impact on the quality of teaching and learning. Educator respondents (17.3%) strongly agreed with the statement while (27.3) of respondents were not sure about the notion that shortage of educators had an impact on the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools. The total of (22, 9%) disagreed with the statement that shortage of educators had an impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

The majority of respondents agree with what was earlier found by Lemmer (2007), that shortage of educators had an impact on the quality of teaching and learning. These statistics shows that shortage of educators in rural schools is a challenge. These

results may indicate that, if shortage of educators has an impact on the quality of teaching and learning, then it might imply that the department of education should deal with the staffing as most rural schools are under staffed. The calibre of teachers in rural schools should be the one who loves rural environment and its conditions so that they cannot be demotivated by rural schools and their conditions for effective implementation of teaching and learning. Teachers' prior knowledge and expertise, an amount of efforts senior teachers put on the system, stress and health contributes to the poor implementation of the curriculum, hence it contributes to poor academic performance of learners in rural schools.

4.5.8. Poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS

Another question which was asked of the educator respondents was whether or not, poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire whether poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS. Table 4.16 indicates the educators' responses on the statement.

Table 4.16 Poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	216	44,1
Agree	175	35,7
Not sure	53	10,8
Disagree	29	5,9
Strongly disagree	17	3,5
Total	490	100

The majority (44. 1%) of the educators strongly agreed with the statement that poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS. When educators have poor infrastructure such as old classroom buildings and usage of churches as classrooms, it affects the quality teaching and learning. Table 4.13 shows that 35, 7% of educator respondents agreed with the notion that poor infrastructure such as old classroom

buildings and usage of churches as classrooms affect quality teaching and learning. The environment for teaching and learning including infrastructure must be conducive and healthy for quality teaching and learning to take place. Tomlinson (2003) believes that poor infrastructure affects implementation of curriculum in educational systems. Guyvers, De Weerd, Dupont, Mol and Nuytten (2011) posit that the feeling of well-being as the results of poor infrastructure decreases the morale of the teachers and the learners. This concurs with the findings of the study of Chabers (2010) in illustrating that poor infrastructures are obstacle for good learning environment. The results show that a total of (79. 8%) of educator respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the notion that poor infrastructure affects implementation in rural schools. If poor infrastructure such as old classroom buildings and usage of churches as classrooms, affects quality teaching and learning then it might mean that the department should support teachers by providing them with classrooms. Steyn (2011) argue that lack or poor basic facilities and in schools can negatively affect how the school can attract suitable qualified teachers. Supportive quality infrastructure and the availability of resources for teaching and learning is an anathema for motivating and supporting educator for facilitating teaching and learning.

Rural schools' conditions impacted negatively on the quality of teaching and learning, most school buildings are poorly constructed as they were erected by the communities themselves and do not have access to basic facilities and services like clean water, electricity and telephone connectivity. These schools have overage learners who start school late because of child labour in farms and are not always at school because of household chores they have to run in the morning or afternoon.

4.5.9. Negative Impact of shortage of educators in rural schools on the quality of teaching and learning

Shortage of educators in rural schools has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

The following table (Table 4.17) shows that shortage of educators' views – in descending order regarding their observations on whether or not shortage of educators has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

Table 4.17 Shortage of educators has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	147	30.0
Agree	122	24.9
Not sure	122	24.9
Disagree	80	16.3
Strongly disagree	19	3.9
Total	490	100

The majority (30. 0%) strongly agreed with the statement that shortage of educators had a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning; (17. 3%) of respondents agreed with the statement while (24, 9) of respondents were not sure about the notion that shortage of educators had a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools. A total of (20, 2%) disagreed with the statement that shortage of educators has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning. On average, (54.9 %) educators agreed that shortage of educators has a negative impact on the quality of teaching.

In a study done in Malawi by Antoninis (2014), it was reported that shortage of teachers affected disadvantaged girls, the poor, mostly learners in the rural areas and the physically challenged. Furthermore, if left unaddressed, disadvantages of this nature build tall barriers that children find hard to overcome.

There were significant differences in the rating of this item by level (**Chi-Square** = 11.622, $p < 0.20$, Cramer's $V = .154$). It is shown in Table 4.18 below that the only observed differences in perceptions are significant due to gender as both males (49.2) and females (50.8) averagely agreed that shortage of educators has a negative effect on the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools. Fewer teachers may find it difficult to implement curriculum, training may be difficult as there would be no

substitute teachers when others have gone for training. Although training and development could be exacerbated by a shortage of teaching staff in rural areas, there is great mismatch between supply and demand for some subject teachers. Lack of sufficient non-core subject teachers in intermediate and senior phases of the primary schools could have serious repercussions for the breadth of the curriculum. The results are significant with the teaching phase and revealed that educators in intermediate phase (40.4) may find it difficult to manage, and discipline learners when there is a shortage of educators, they often resort to corporal punishment, even-though new styles of discipline such as afterschool detention (which is one form of discipline that is not well received by educators) are advocated by the Department of Basic Education.

Table 4.18: Significant effects of gender and teaching phase

Variables/ perceptions	Effects of			
	Gender		Teaching Phase	
	χ^2	Sig	χ^2	Sig
1. Shortage of educators has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning	49.2	**	40.4	***
2. Schools in rural areas have teachers' support programme that helps them to implement curriculum	37.8	**	40.4	**

Key: * = P < 0.05 ** = P < 0.01 *** = P < 0.001 sig = significance

4.6. IMPACT OF THE CHALLENGES FACING RURAL PRIMARY EDUCATORS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CAPS ON LEARNERS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Another perception which arose from the survey questionnaires is the perception that educators have a challenge towards the Department of Education support on rural

educators regarding supplying materials, infrastructure and human resource in rural areas. This section discusses variables related to educators' perception towards the impact of challenges facing rural educators towards supplying of materials, infrastructure and human resource in rural areas.

4.6.1. Teachers have sufficient materials for all their learning areas

Another question which was asked of the educator respondents was whether or not, educators in rural schools have sufficient materials for all learning areas. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire whether teachers have sufficient materials for all their learning areas. Table 4.19 indicates the educators' response on the statement.

Table 4.19 Teachers have sufficient teaching and learning materials (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	212	43.3
Agree	163	33.3
Not sure	71	14.5
Disagree	29	5.9
Strongly disagree	15	3.1
Total	490	100

The majority (43.3%) of respondents strongly agreed with the idea that educators in rural schools have sufficient materials for all learning areas. When educators have sufficient materials for all learning areas, it improves their skills and quality of teaching. Table 4.15 shows that (14.5 %) of educator respondents were not sure whether educators have sufficient materials for all learning areas. A total of (9.0%) agreed with the statement that educators in rural schools have sufficient materials for all learning areas.

A study by Lee and Bowen (2006) found that teachers' and learners' materials contribute to the development of all stakeholders in education system. Therefore, on

average, (76.6%) educators agreed that teachers have sufficient teaching and learning materials. These results suggest that the supply of learning and teaching materials is sufficient for all learning areas in rural areas. It is, however, (9%) of the respondents that is showing that supply of materials is insufficient. This is worrying as this could have a substantial negative impact: the results may mean that even though schools in rural areas have sufficient teaching and learning materials, there are some schools in deep rural remote areas that have no teaching and learning materials. Therefore, collaboration between rural schools that have teaching and learning materials and schools in deep rural remote areas should be established. Teachers and communities may also assist in establishing the cause of poor performance and suggest strategies for promoting the teaching and learning environment in rural schools while improving situations in the communities.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square 21.672 $p < 0.000$, Cramer's $V = .210$). In relation to the distribution of educational resources, computers, TV sets, multi-media classrooms or audio classrooms, should be given to poor rural areas as a priority. However, the government and educational administrative units make efforts of improving education as much as possible, with the hope of distributing the educational resources more equally to every learner to improve the reasonable distribution of funds to poor areas.

4.6.2. Educators understand how the department of education works

Table 4.20 presents educators' understanding on how the Department of Education works.

Table 4.20 Educators understand how department works (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	57	11.6
Agree	153	31.2
Not sure	205	41.8
Disagree	58	11.8
Strongly disagree	17	3.5
Total	490	100

A total of (42.8%) of respondents agreed with the idea that educators in rural schools understand how department of education works while (41.8%) were not sure. Table 4.16 shows that (15, 3%) of respondents disagree with the statement that educators understand how department of education works. The statistics shows that the majority of educator respondents agreed or strongly agree with the notion that educators understand how department of education works.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square =31.552, $p < 0.048$, Cramer's $V = .127$). The results are also significant with the language of instruction in rural schools, Tshivenda (31.4), English (28.8) Xitsonga (28.0), Sesotho (4.9), Isizulu (3.7) and other languages (3.3). Only (28.8) of rural teachers use English as their medium of instruction since the majority use the mother tongue. These results also show that the respondents perhaps do not understand how the department of education works. These results may be seen to be in contradiction with Tsotesi (2016) who argues that teachers understand how the department operates as they often attend curriculum workshops for their development. These results are also interesting in the sense that the respondents, who themselves are teachers, indicated that they have sufficient learning materials and attend workshops on curriculum development.

4.6.3. Rural school teachers identify appropriate support programme for their schools for them to make a meaningful contribution

It was also important to know whether or not rural school teachers are able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make a meaningful contribution. The following table (4.21) reflects whether teachers are able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make meaningful contribution.

Table 4.21 Teachers are able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	79	16.1
Agree	130	26.5
Not sure	132	26.9
Disagree	106	21.6
Strongly disagree	43	8.8
Total	490	100

The majority (26.9%) were not sure with that rural school teachers are able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make meaningful contribution. In addition, (16.1%) strongly agreed with the statement while (26.5%) agreed that rural school teachers were able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make meaningful contribution. The total of (30.4%) disagreed with the statement that rural school teachers were able to identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make a meaningful contribution.

Taole (2015) stated that curriculum review and revision are vital elements in the improvement of educational quality. Teachers, as essential drivers of good quality education, must be equipped with skills and knowledge that will enable them to

implement the curriculum. Teachers, as agents of educational change, play a pivotal role in the implementation of curriculum innovations. The meaning teachers give to the curriculum, as well as their attitudes towards it will determine its success. She further argues that what teachers think and do are decisive factors in determining the reform outcomes. Therefore, the success of educational policies depends on strengthening capacity for implementation, as successful implementation depends on the extent to which all consumers are informed about and prepared for the envisaged change. It is worth noting that the South African curriculum has been experiencing multiple reforms. No sooner than one set of innovations is introduced, than the next reform is introduced.

Teachers are expected to implement new changes in their teaching while the role of the teacher and the curriculum changes. These new expectations create new challenges on the part of the teachers. Implementing a new curriculum requires teachers to follow various new approaches in respect of planning, teaching and assessment. Moreover, teachers are required to change their teaching practices and their underlying belief system regarding teaching and learning (Taole, 2015). This is somehow critical as failure to make appropriate support programmes exacerbates the challenges already experienced in schools

4.6.4. Parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote culture of teaching and learning

Parents have been allocated powers to run all governance activities of the school (SASA, 1996). This section discusses parental involvement on supporting educators in their bid to promote culture of learning. Since some community forums today discuss educational matters, it was important for this study to investigate whether parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote culture of teaching and learning.

The following table (Table 4.22) reflects educators' observations in that regard.

Table 4.22. Parental support promotes the culture of teaching and learning (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	104	21.2
Agree	145	29.6
Not sure	127	25.9
Disagree	84	17.1
Strongly disagree	30	6.1
Total	490	100

The majority (29.6%) agreed with the statement that parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote culture of teaching and learning. To add, (21.2%) of respondents strongly agreed with the statement while (25.9%) of respondents remained neutral as they were not sure whether or not parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote culture of teaching and learning. A total of (23.2%) disagreed with the statement that parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote culture of teaching and learning.

Taole (2015) noted that the need for parental involvement in curriculum matters was cited by teachers as the most important aspect that could enable them to implement the curriculum confidently. Here are some of the teachers' comments: Teachers were of the view that schools and parents need to work together to ensure that learners' ability to succeed is enhanced. It should be pointed out that there is an attempt on the part of the South African government to involve parents through the School Governing Bodies (SGBs). She also revealed that SGBs do not have much say over curriculum matters, and there are some barriers that can hinder parents' participation in their children's education. These include poor levels of education, perceptions of being unwelcome and time constraints.

These results may indicate that parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote a culture of teaching and learning. The results are in support of Hunt (2008) who noted that that parental support and all other stakeholders contribute towards the development of curriculum and helps teachers in promoting a culture of teaching. These results may indicate that parental support and all other stakeholders contribute towards the development of curriculum and helps teachers in promoting a culture of teaching. It is also interesting to note that half of the respondents agreed with the statement that parental support helps teachers in their bid to promote a culture of teaching and learning. The implication might perhaps mean that rural schools should involve parental support for schools to make meaningful contribution.

4.7 EFFECT OF SUPPORT WHILE IMPLEMENTING THE CAPS CURRICULUM IN THE RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS

This section discusses the effect of support given to rural educators while implementing the CAPS curriculum in the rural primary schools. Lee and Bowen (2006) found that educators perform well where there is a clear support programme in the curriculum and education system. Educators who were trained at college and universities for a particular curriculum have to be supported through different programmes and accommodate the new education dispensation regarding curriculum transformation and change. The new curriculum (CAPS) brings with it new principles, approaches and methods, and educators have to assimilate and accommodate these changes in order to implement them through support programmes.

4.7.1. Rural school teachers benefit from CAPS development Support programme

Table 4.23 presents the distribution of responses in the perception of educators on the extent to which the Department of education is giving support towards educators' development.

Table 4.23 Rural educators are beneficiaries of support programmes (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	60	12.2
Agree	195	39.8
Not sure	177	36.1
Disagree	49	10.0
Strongly disagree	9	1.8
Total	490	100

Just above half (52%) of the respondents felt that rural educators were the direct beneficiaries of the support programme from the department of education while 48% disagreed that educators were the direct beneficiaries of a support programme from the department of education. The results are consistent with the finding of the study of Serrao (2007) which indicates that curriculum development includes the following factors: learning programmes, methodology of delivering the content, supporting and developing educators and evaluation of outcomes.

The results support the work of Neuman (2014) who indicated that educators were not adequately equipped with skills and expertise to implement programmes such as the Foundations for Learning Campaign effectively and efficiently in the classroom. Inadequate preparation was due to the following reasons: lack of sufficient time allocated for training, inappropriate and irrelevant training and inadequately trained facilitators. In addition, there is lack of professional development programmes and school-based activities to enhance the teaching and learning of basic skills. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square =31.312, $p < 0.05$, Cramer's $V = .126$). The results are significant with language of instruction in rural schools, Tshivenda (31.4), English (28.8) Xitsonga (28.0), Sesotho (4.9), Isizulu (3.7) and other languages (3.3). The majority of rural schools use mother tongue for CAPS developmental support programmes at their schools.

4.7.2. Sufficient developmental support programmes for all educators are organised

Table 4.24 below presents educators' view on whether the Department of Education organizes enough support programmes for educators in rural areas towards their development.

Table 4.24 Sufficient support programmes are organised (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	83	16.9
Agree	120	24.5
Not sure	152	31.0
Disagree	103	21.0
Strongly disagree	32	6.5
Total	490	100

The results in Table 4.20 above show that (41.4%) of the respondents thought that Department of basic education organised sufficient developmental support programmes for educators. It is alarming that (31.0 %) of respondents were not even sure if the department of education organised sufficient workshops as they are supposed to be the ones attending the workshop as part of their continued professional development. This might imply that the support may not be enough, and teachers feel frustrated and unsure at the same time. The results suggest that educators are quitting and migrating to urban areas due to lack of support from the Department of education. The results here are in line with Falmer (2005) who stated that educators who do not get proper support often feel disillusioned and frustrated.

There are (41.4%) educators who also felt that the Department is doing enough to support them in their teaching careers, and these might be educators who are living in towns but working in rural areas or educators whose schools are near urban areas but falling under rural districts. The results contradict Hunter (2008) who states that support programmes are particularly influential in determining the development of

teachers towards implementing quality education. Furthermore, according to Hunt, levels of support programmes are associated with increased access to schooling and rolling out the quality of education.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square =16.578, $p < 0.35$, Cramer's $V = .130$). The results are significant with gender as both male (49.2) and female (50.8) teachers averagely agreed that they are not sure whether support programmes are organized to improve their level of teaching. The results are significant with the teaching phase that educators are currently teaching. The major impact is in intermediate phase (40.4) where educators strongly disagreed that there are sufficient developmental support programmes are organized for rural teachers. Rural teachers have not been sufficiently equipped to meet the educational needs of the growing democracy in the 21st century global environment. Teaching can be a lonely profession, given the challenges faced in today's classrooms.

4.7.3. Support programmes for rural educators have promoted culture of learning

It was important in this study to establish whether or not support programmes for rural educators promote culture of learning and teaching. The table 4.25 below shows whether support programmes for rural educators help in improving and promoting culture of learning and teaching.

Table 4.25 Support programmes promotes culture of learning and teaching (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	78	15.9
Agree	153	31.2
Not sure	148	30.2
Disagree	88	18.0
Strongly disagree	23	4.7
Total	490	100

In Table 4.21, (47.1%) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the notion that support programmes promote a culture of learning and teaching in rural schools, other (30.2%) respondents remained neutral. A further (22.7%) of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the notion that support programmes promote a culture of learning and teaching.

Taole (2015) pointed out that principals should create a climate and culture of success in schools by ensuring that there is room for self-expression, creativity, communication and motivation in all structures of the school. The information age dictates that principals need to understand the curriculum in order for them to become effective managers. She further indicates that principals find it difficult to transform their traditional, more passive role into a new and more active role as facilitators of change. It is imperative that principals provide leadership in the school to create a conducive environment for teachers to implement the curriculum. The results are consistent with Mabusela (2016) who indicated that curriculum developers should take the culture of supporting educators into consideration when developing a curriculum for effective teaching and learning.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 19.718, $p < 0.11$, Cramer's $V = .142$). The results are significant with the teaching phase that educators are currently teaching. The major impact is in intermediate phase (40.4) showing that rural educators believe in the culture of being supported while implementing the CAPS curriculum in the rural primary schools. Educators believe that support programmes promote a culture of learning; the study recommends use of different support programmes to promote and support an overwhelming number of rural teachers as an intervention strategy towards promotion of a good culture of learning.

4.7.4. Teachers get adequate support in improving skills from the circuit offices

Educators were requested to indicate whether or not they were getting adequate support to improve their skills from the circuit offices. The following table (Table 4.26) shows educators' views – in descending order - on whether they were getting adequate support in improving their skills from the circuit offices.

Table 4.26 Teachers get support from the circuit offices (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	88	18.0
Agree	122	24.9
Not sure	159	32.4
Disagree	99	20.2
Strongly disagree	22	4.5
Total	490	100

Two hundred and ten (42.9%) respondents agreed that teachers get adequate support from the circuit offices. Thus, on average, (42.9%) agreed that teachers get support from the circuit offices. Meanwhile, (24.7%) disagreed that teachers get adequate support from the circuit offices while 24.7% were not sure about getting adequate support from the circuit offices. The results are consistent with the work of Epstein (2006) which indicates that teachers must be supported through thick and thin to achieve better results in class.

The majority of respondents were not sure about the notion. This shows that the majority of educators are not receiving enough support from the circuit offices and this suggests the importance of getting support from all circuits under Vhembe district towards the implementation of CAPS curriculum. These results indicate that if the circuit offices are giving support to educators, it makes easy for the rural school teachers to implement the curriculum. The results show that the respondents are divided; some respondents believed that they are getting support from the circuit offices while some believe they are not getting enough support from the circuit offices. This might mean that there must be other reasons for educators not being able to implement the curriculum in rural areas.

Taole (2015) attests to the results and indicates that follow-up visits after training are crucial to ensure that the curriculum is properly implemented. Subject advisors must visit school regularly to see if what educators have learned during training

can be implemented in the classroom. After workshops, no one cares about what educators are doing. Subject advisors do not come to schools but are only seen during curriculum training. The responses highlight the need for subject advisors to make follow up visits after the training to ensure that the anticipated actions are effected. They should be the intermediaries between curriculum policy and implementation in the classroom. This implies that they could play an important role in providing support and guidance to teachers in their classrooms.

A well-coordinated support system at national, provincial, district and school level could help teachers to face the difficulties in the classroom. More subject specialists should be trained, given that subject advisors are ideally suited for providing teachers with the necessary support in their classrooms.

The comments provided by the educators collaboratively stated that Circuit and District officials visit their schools although there are schools that they do not visit. These may imply that there are no visits done and no supervised monitoring, support and development was provided. Rural educators argued that circuit and district officials are very few and due to their heavy workload, it is not practical for them to visit many schools. All curriculum implementation will surely encounter challenges. However, it makes a difference when circuit and district officials are prepared to identify them quickly and develop coping measures through supervised monitoring, support and development or whether they avoid facing them.

4.7.5. Rural school teachers support programme accommodates their needs

It was also important in this study to establish whether or not rural teachers' support programme accommodated their needs to improve their skills in class. Table 4.27 below shows whether or not rural teachers' support programmes accommodated their needs.

Table 4.27 Support programme accommodates teachers' needs (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	97	19.8
Agree	153	31.2
Not sure	126	25.7
Disagree	93	19.0
Strongly disagree	21	4.3
Total	490	100
Total	490	100

Regarding rural teachers' support programme that accommodates their needs, (31.2%) of the respondents agreed that development of support programme accommodated rural teachers' needs while (25.7%) are not sure on whether development of support programme will accommodate their needs. Only 23.3% disagreed or strongly disagreed on the notion that support programmes accommodate rural teachers' needs. Therefore, on average, (51%) respondents agreed that rural school teachers' support programme accommodates their needs. The problem of support in schools is not about needs of the individual teacher but a one-size-fits-all, which is regarded as problematic. This is attributed to the fact that most respondents are either in deep rural schools or are not aware of the importance of teachers' developmental support programme.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 23.287, $p < 0.25$, Cramer's $V = .126$). The results are significant with the number of learners in a class. The majority of classes in rural areas are overcrowded with (31-50) learners in one class. Although rural teachers agreed that support programmes accommodate their needs, there are other contributing factors that prevent them from attending those support programmes such as large classes.

Rural teachers have to travel long distances to schools and incur more travel expenses than other teachers. They also spend more time travelling to and from school. If they do not have their own vehicles, which is the case for most rural teachers, availability of transport and reliability of the public transport system can pose challenges. Often, teachers have to walk long distances to remote schools where there are no access roads to the schools, crossing flooded rivers, and risking their lives to get to school. Teachers board with families or rent accommodation from families surrounding their school. Rural teachers seldom have the privacy and anonymity of living far away from the schools in which they work, and their behaviour is scrutinized more closely, making them vulnerable to community pressure (Goddard & Habermann, 2001).

Their living conditions are terrible – they live in mud huts, have no running water and electricity, poor toilet facilities, no place to wash and cook and have to fetch water from rivers. There is lack of shopping facilities in the rural area, and goods are expensive, teachers do not have refrigerators – foodstuff goes off. Teachers have to take time off for sickness of family members, death in the family and experience difficulty in making funeral arrangements for deceased family members. When they become sick, health facilities are very far away from them. A visit to a doctor that might take a day in an urban area, can involve absence of three or four days in the rural area.

4.7.6. Teachers neglect curriculum support from education officers as it does not take into consideration their environmental situation

Another question which was asked of the educator respondents was whether or not teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices because it does not take into consideration their environmental situation. Table 4.28 below reveals whether or not teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices.

Table 4.28. Teachers neglect curriculum support programme from education officers (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	66	13.5
Agree	146	29.8
Not sure	214	43.7
Disagree	48	8.8
Strongly disagree	16	3.3
Total	490	100

Regarding whether teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices because it does not take into consideration their environmental situation, (43. 7%) of the respondents were not sure, (43. 4%) of the respondents agreed that teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices because it does not take into consideration their environmental situation. Only (12. 1%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices because it does not take into consideration their environmental situation.

The majority of the educators (43, 3%) indicated that teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices because it does not take into consideration their environmental situation. These results concur with Chuenyane (2010) who reported in the City Press (17.01. 2010:14) that deep rural teachers neglect support and developmental programme due a number of contextual factors such as the environmental nature of rural areas.

These results may indicate that neglecting support from education officials may also contribute to poor implementation of curriculum in rural areas. The results support Hunt (2008) who noted that educators should get support from departmental officials for them to implement curriculum effectively. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 22.026, $p < 0.037$, Cramer's V = .122). The results are significant with the number of learners in class. The majority of classes in rural

areas are overcrowded with (31-50) learners in one class, this may result in neglecting education officials due stress, age, health problems, emotional, career and social wellness at their working stations and transport problems as they mainly use common transport. The other cause of rural educators neglecting support from education officials might be that, rural teachers face an unfamiliar school environment and have to make a number of personal adjustments. If teachers work only very unwillingly in remote rural schools, it is probable that their attitudes to their pupils will be negative.

4.7.7. Teachers can differentiate between support programmes and curriculum workshops

Teachers' understanding of the difference between support programmes and curriculum workshops was also assessed. Table 4.29 presents educators' observation in that regard.

Table 4.29. Teachers understand the difference between support programmes and curriculum workshops (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	122	24.9
Agree	116	23.7
Not sure	134	27.3
Disagree	89	18.2
Strongly disagree	29	5.9
Total	490	100

Most (23. 7%) respondents agreed that they can differentiate between support programmes and curriculum workshops, on the other hand, (18. 2%) disagreed with the idea that they can differentiate between support programmes and curriculum workshops. One hundred and twenty two (24, 9%) respondents strongly agreed that they can differentiate between support programmes and curriculum workshops whereas only (5. 9%) strongly disagreed. It might be concluded that educators were willing to do the work but that they are not being supported enough to do the work.

These results may be seen to be in contradiction with Steyn (2011) who argued that teachers face difficulties in differentiating support programmes and curriculum workshops, hence they find it difficult to implement the curriculum effectively. The study shows that most educators understand the difference between support programmes and curriculum workshops. There is also a number of educators who do not understand the difference between support programmes and curriculum workshops.

4.7.8. Teachers develop their own support programmes which address their special setting needs

It was important to investigate whether or not teachers develop their own support programmes so as to find ways in which these can address their own setting needs. Table 4.30 present educators' observation in that regard.

Table 4.30. Teachers develop their own support programme (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	72	14.7
Agree	123	25.1
Not sure	175	35.7
Disagree	94	19.2
Strongly disagree	26	5.3
Total	490	100
Total	490	100

The majority (35.7%) of respondents were not sure whether teachers develop their own support programme or not to address their own rural setting needs. Ninety four (19.2%) disagreed that teachers develop their own support programme to address their own rural setting needs. A total of 39.8% agreed that teachers develop their own support programme to address their own rural setting needs.

The results here are in line with Mashau (2016) who stated that educators should have their own belief towards effective teaching. The implication that is drawn from educator respondent statements is that some educators do not believe in developing their own support programme through cluster meetings while others believe in waiting for the department to give them the required programme of support. The results might mean that teachers should develop their own support programme through cluster meetings, school- to-school appraisal programme and inter-circuit cluster meetings. If teachers develop their own support programmes, it will help them to be on the same level as others because most teachers fail to attend organized support programmes because they use common transport as most of the teachers are not living in the same area.

Earlier, work or study of Molepo (2014) indicated that educators were to develop their own learning programmes for each learning area to support the process. The DoE provided policy guidelines based on each learning area statement. The Learning Programmes specify the scope of learning and assessment activities for each phase. Learning programmes should also contain work schedules that provide the pace and sequence of these each year, as well as exemplars of lesson plans to be implemented in any given period.

4.7.9. CAPS support programmes offered by the department help to improve quality of teaching

It was import to investigate whether or not teachers develop their own support programme so as to find ways in which support programmes can address their own setting needs. Table 4.27 presents educators' observation in that regard in descending order.

Table 4.31. Departmental support programme improves the quality of teaching (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	134	27.3
Agree	96	19.6
Not sure	144	29.4
Disagree	88	18.0
Strongly disagree	28	5.7
Total	490	100

The majority (46.9%) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that CAPS support programme offered by the department helps teachers to improve the quality of learning. Only (29.4%) were neutral, while (23.7%) of educator respondents disagree or strongly disagreed that support programmes offered by the department helps teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

The results are consistent with the finding of Adler and Reed (2002) which indicates that curriculum development includes giving educators proper workshops for support to improve their academic performance to help in delivering the content and the framework of assessment and evaluation of outcomes. These results may perhaps mean that the department should develop more programmes of support in rural areas to improve teachers' efficiency and quality of teaching and learning in rural schools. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 9.355, $p < 0.053$, Cramer's $V = .138$).

The results are significant with gender as both male (49.2) and female (50.8) teachers averagely agreed that a collaborative effort between the Department of Basic Education, and communities. Rural teachers may establish proper support programmes that can establish the cause of poor performance and poor implementation of the curriculum in rural areas. This can also help in suggesting

strategies for promoting proper curriculum implementation in rural schools while improving situations in the communities.

In rural school areas, transport difficulties often make supervision visits from inspectors less frequent in isolated schools; there is little to prevent gradual erosion of the school year. Many rural teachers are in locations away from their families or their home areas. Travelling from remote rural areas can be time consuming. If the school is in a remote location, trips often involve absences on Fridays or Mondays, hence it might be difficult for the department to give proper support to educators.

4.7.10. Schools help teachers in rural areas to implement support programmes findings

Educators were further requested to indicate whether or not schools help teachers in rural areas to implement support programmes.

The following table (Table 4.32) shows educators' views in descending order regarding their observations on whether or not schools help teachers in rural areas to implement support programmes.

Table 4.32. Rural schools manager helps teachers to implement support programme findings (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	83	16.9
Agree	128	26.1
Not sure	155	31.6
Disagree	90	18.4
Strongly disagree	34	6.9
Total	490	100

Table 4.28 illustrates that (31. 6%) of respondents were not sure as to whether schools did support rural teachers in the implementing of the findings of support programmes provided by the department. It is (26. 1%) of the respondents who agreed with the notion that schools did support rural teachers in the implementing of the findings of support programmes provided by the department of education. Only (18. 4%) of respondents disagreed that schools do support rural teachers in the implementing of the findings of support programmes provided by the department.

The findings are consistent with those of McMillan (2006) which indicate that to improve learners' academic performance, schools should be supportive towards educators in achieving their goals. The results are consistent with the aims of the study as they indicate the impact of developing a programme of support of rural based primary school educators in the implementation curriculum assessment policy statement. These results may indicate that the respondents think rural managers are not doing enough to support rural educators. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 11.536, $p < 0.021$, Cramer's $V = .153$). The results are significant with gender as both male (49.2) and female (50.8) teachers averagely believe that by providing effective support programmes, teachers may effectively improve the implementation of the curriculum in rural areas.

4.7.11. Rural schools programme support involves all stakeholders for it to be sustainable

Educators were further requested to indicate whether or not rural schools programmes of support involve all stakeholders to be sustainable. The following table (Table 4.33) shows educators' views on whether or not rural schools programmes involve all stakeholders to be sustainable.

Table 4.33. Involvement of all stakeholders in rural education (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	108	22.0
Agree	125	25.5
Not sure	122	24.9
Disagree	98	20.0
Strongly disagree	37	7.6
Total	490	100

Table 4.29 shows that (25. 5%) of respondents agreed that rural schools programme support involves all stakeholders to be sustainable. It is also only (20. 0%) of respondents who were not sure that rural school programmes involve all stakeholders while (24, 9%) of respondents were not sure as to whether rural school programmes involves all stakeholders for it to be sustainable. Therefore, on average, a total of (47. 5%) respondents agreed that rural schools programme support involves all stakeholders for it to be sustainable. The results are consistent with the finding in the study of Chuenyane (2010) which indicates that all stakeholders should be hands-on to improve learners' academic performance.

Taole (2015) points out the following issues that can help rural educators: workload and administrative burden to be reduced, to develop a single Curriculum and Assessment Policy document for every learning area and subject (by phase), clarify the role of subject advisors nationally and specify the exact nature of the in-classroom and school support they should provide to teachers, simplify and streamline assessment requirements and improve the quality and status of assessment by making the GET and FET phases consistent, the quality assurance and catalogue development of textbooks and other learning and teaching materials (LTSM) need to be centralised at national level. The training of teachers to support curriculum implementation should be subject-specific and targeted only where needed.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 15.643, $p < 0.048$, Cramer's $V = .126$) on the perception that rural schools programme of support involves all stakeholders for it to be sustainable. The results are significant with the teaching phase that educators are teaching, the majority of intermediate phase (40.4) educators showed that high levels of involvement imply that all stakeholders in rural areas should be involved in the education of their children to produce quality in teaching and learning. Findings of this study may show that parents ignorance of their children's education is detrimental to their development, hence it is important that all stakeholders programmes, including the community, should be hands-on to children's education as it will help the community in the long run.

4.7.12. Teachers implement resolutions from CAPS support programme meetings

Implementing resolutions from CAPS support programme meetings influences teachers to deliver in schools. It was important in this study to examine the role of support programme meetings towards better academic performance by rural educators. Table 4.34 reflects educators' responses in that regard.

Table 4.34. Teachers implement CAPS support programme meeting resolutions (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	99	20.2
Agree	121	24.7
Not sure	135	27.6
Disagree	101	20.6
Strongly disagree	34	6.9
Total	490	100

With regard to the implementing of resolutions from CAPS support programmes meeting by educators, a total of (44. 9%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that teachers implement resolutions from CAPS support programmes meeting. On the

other hand, it was only (27.5%) of educator respondents who disagreed that teachers implement resolutions from CAPS support programmes meeting. Only (27.6%) were neutral on the notion that teachers implement resolutions from CAPS support programmes meeting.

The results imply that teachers are divided as some implement the resolutions and some do not implement resolutions from support programmes meetings. Therefore, it is important to develop a support programme in which all the educators will be happy about implementing the findings correctly for the benefit of all rural learners. The results might mean that strong curriculum management skills need to be developed to strengthen district support to teaching and learning.

Educators explicitly stated through their responses that although meeting and workshop resolutions were to be implemented and arranged by the Staff Management Team and educators, it is not done on an on-going basis due to tight schedules, time constraints, other administrative duties and lack of clarity and direction experienced at schools. These findings are critical as they imply that there are schools that are implementing support programme resolutions while others are not entirely not implementing those resolutions. This might be due to lack of on-going support programmes in place arranged by the Staff Management Team at schools to assist educators to effectively facilitate the implementation of the support programme resolutions. Research evidence supports the view of the Staff Management Team (SMT) within the school which recognizes programmes such as meetings, group sessions, seminars and workshops on an on-going basis.

4.7.13. Educators attend all CAPS support programme meetings for them to improve quality of teaching.

Attending all CAPS support programme meetings by rural educators will positively affect educators in improving the quality of teaching. It was important in this study to enquire whether educators' attendance of all CAPS support programme meetings improve quality of teaching in rural areas. Table 4.35 reflects educators' responses in that regard.

Table 4.35. Teachers attend all CAPS support programme meetings (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	92	18.8
Agree	134	27.3
Not sure	139	28.4
Disagree	100	20.4
Strongly disagree	25	5.1
Total	490	100

Table 4.31 illustrates that (18. 8%) of respondents strongly agreed with the idea that when educators attend all CAPS programme meetings, it improves the quality of teaching. Furthermore, Table 4.31 shows that the majority of educator respondents were not sure whether attending of all CAPS programme meetings improves the quality of teaching while (20. 4%) of the educator respondents were not sure as to whether educators attending of all CAPS programme meetings improves the quality of teaching, whereas 16.9% disagreed with the statement. Another (5. 1%) of educator respondents strongly disagreed with the statement that educators attending of all CAPS programme meetings improves the quality of teaching.

The results are consistent with findings in the study of literature by Steyn (2011) which indicates that to improve learners' academic performance, educators should be prepared and implement workshops resolutions and findings. The implication behind the statement of educator respondents is that teachers might not be attending all their meetings because they do not receive invitation circulars as it is difficult to reach the schools.

A significant number of respondents held a common view which was confirmed through the comments that there are number of factors that contribute to educators' failure in attending CAPS support programme meetings, such as conditions of rural areas, including poor roads and afternoon workshops were not sufficient and do not cater for rural educators.

4.7.14. Educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations

It was important in this study to enquire whether educators administer recommendations based on the support programmes. Table 4.36 in descending order reflects educators' responses in that regard.

Table 4.36. Teachers administer support programme recommendations (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	145	29.6
Agree	117	23.9
Not sure	110	22.4
Disagree	83	16.9
Strongly disagree	35	7.1
Total	490	100

Table 4.32 illustrates that educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations, and (22.4%) of respondents strongly agreed with the idea that educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations. Above all, the majority of educator respondents would be able to administer support programme recommendations if the support programme can be introduced. To add, (22.4%) of respondents were not sure as to whether educators in rural areas were able to administer support programme recommendations, whereas 16,9% disagreed with the statement that educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations .

Another 7.1% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement that educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations. On average, (53.5%) of respondents agreed that educators in rural areas are able to administer support programme recommendations. These results are aligned with the findings of Hunt (2008) which noted that when teachers administer support programme

recommendations from the department, they might be effectively implementing the curriculum. Thus, the results indicate that for teachers to implement the curriculum effectively, they must administer support programme recommendations effectively.

The implication behind the statement of educator respondents is that in order to improve quality of teaching in rural areas, educators must be able to administer support programme recommendations from all the workshops they would have attended. This perhaps means that if teachers are not administering support programme recommendations, it may lead to poor performance on the implementation of the curriculum. The study further established that teachers might not be administering support programme recommendations due to workplace political cliques, lack of time for holding staff meetings to discuss recommendations and autocratic management practices by the department of basic education officials who tend to inhibit worthwhile participative administering of support programme recommendations. This finding is critical within this study as it highlighted the perceptions held by the participants.

4.7.15. Chance to attend CAPS implementation workshops

Another question which was asked of the educator respondents was whether or not educators in rural schools are given a chance to attend CAPS workshops by their managers. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire the quality of education given to learners when educators are from the CAPS implementation workshops. Table 4.37 indicates the educators' responses on the statement – in descending order.

Table 437. Teachers attend CAPS implementation workshops (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	76	15.5
Agree	160	32.7
Not sure	136	27.8
Disagree	82	16.7
Strongly disagree	36	7.3
Total	490	100

Table 4.33 show that only (32. 7 %) of respondents agreed with the idea that educators in rural schools are given a chance to attend CAPS workshops by their managers. When educators attend all CAPS workshops, it improves their skills and quality of teaching. Table 4.33 further revealed that (27. 8%) of respondents were not sure on whether educators were given chance to attend all CAPS programme workshops. To add, (7. 3%) strongly disagreed with the statement that educators in rural schools are given a chance to attend CAPS workshops by their managers. These results also support Richter's (2016) findings which indicates that to improve educators' academic performance, compulsory workshops on curriculum development and implementation should be done for rural based educators. The statistics shows that only hundred and eighteen (24%) respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the notion that educators in rural schools are given a chance to attend CAPS workshops by their managers.

These results may indicate that although the respondents might be attending workshops, there is still a problem in implementing the curriculum, and this might be caused by teachers' rejection of new methods and still sticking to the old curriculum. These results may also contradict the finding of Russels (2006) study which states that in South Africa, most teachers do not attend curriculum workshops because they believed it is a waste of time as they are comfortable with their old curriculum.

There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 18.931, $p < 0.001$, Cramer's $V = .197$). The results are significant with gender as both male (49.2) and female (50.8) educators averagely agreed that rural educator involvement and acceptance in curriculum development workshops assists in supporting curriculum change as they portray a sense of ownership of the curriculum. This implies that in the current study, lack of educator involvement in attending workshops, insufficient time schedules and quick curriculum changes could be regarded as inhibiting factors for effective implementation of the educators' attendance of workshops.

4.7.16. Subject cluster meetings for content knowledge

It was important in this study to determine whether or not subject cluster meetings improve rural school educators' content knowledge. It was vital to examine the role of subject cluster meetings in improving rural school educators' content of knowledge. Table 4.38 below reflects educators' responses in that regard.

Table 4.38. Cluster subject meetings improves knowledge of content for educators (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	137	28.0
Agree	103	21.0
Not sure	141	28.8
Disagree	84	17,1
Strongly disagree	25	5,1
Total	490	100

With regard to cluster subject meetings on improving knowledge of content for educators, the majority of (49. 0%) agreed or strongly agreed that subject cluster meetings improves knowledge of content for educators. On the other hand, it was only (22. 2%) of educator respondents who disagreed or strongly disagreed that subject

cluster meetings improves knowledge of content for educators. It was only (28. 8%) of respondents who were neutral on the notion that subject cluster meetings improve knowledge of content for educators.

The results are consistent with findings in the study of literature of Shangase (2013) who indicated that some schools underperforming in the Annual National Assessments and the National Senior Certificate is an indication that one of the challenges that educators have is knowledge of content. Under-performance of schools and learners shows that some of the educators are not yet excellent in dealing with all the content areas, and this creates knowledge gaps in the level of achievement of learning objectives by learners. He further said that a provincial curriculum management strategy can improve the situation by providing direct tuition to teachers on specific topics before they meet learners at classroom level. The strategy will consider ways of assessing the extent to which teachers know and understand the content of the curriculum. The curriculum management strategy will go beyond content and address the teaching methodology for each area of content that has been dealt with. The results imply that the majority of educators agreed that subject cluster meetings improve knowledge of content for educators. These results support the finding of Steyn (2011) study which states that subject advisors should be hands on in helping teachers in implementing the curriculum to achieve effective culture of learning.

4.7.17 Motivation after developmental workshops

It was important to know whether teachers' feel motivated or not when developmental workshops address their needs. Table 4.39 reflects educators' responses on this statement.

Table 4.39. Teachers feel motivated after developmental workshops (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	230	46.9
Agree	173	35.3
Not sure	39	8.0
Disagree	35	7.1
Strongly disagree	13	2.7
Total	490	100

The majority of educator respondents at (46. 9%) strongly agreed that teachers feel motivated after developmental workshops which always addresses their needs. To add, (35. 3%) only agreed, on the other hand, (7. 1%) disagreed and just (2.7%) strongly disagreed with the idea that teachers feel motivated after developmental workshops which address their needs. Only (8. 0%) revealed that they are not sure whether teachers feel motivated after developmental workshops which always address their needs. Results show that when educators attend developmental workshops which address their needs, they feel motivated. These results support Mashau's (2016) findings which stated that teachers feel motivated after every workshop they attend.

Effective in-service teacher training is critical for successful implementation of the curriculum (Taole, 2015). Teachers need support to implement the curriculum. She further said that it would be unfair to expect teachers to implement the curriculum if they have not been properly prepared to do so, or if they do not have sufficient Learning and Teaching Support Material (LTSM). There have been attempts by the DBE to ensure that teachers are kept informed about the curriculum demands of the NCS curriculum.

The capacity of the South African education system to provide appropriate professional support to schools has a poor track record. Whether such support is funded and managed by international donors, Non-Governmental Organisations

(NGOs) or by the Departments of Basic Education, it has proved to be insufficient and ineffective. Availability of resources plays a critical role in the efficient delivery of the curriculum. Teachers need to have access to curriculum guides, text books or training connected to the school curriculum (Taole, 2015).

It is interesting to note that if only 8, 0% of the respondents are not sure about the motivation of teachers after attending workshop, then it may indicate that perhaps giving more support programmes may help teachers to implement Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement. Teachers are allocated multi-grade classrooms and also teach out-of-field. It is common for teachers to miss out on staff development opportunities because of the long distance they may have to travel, and their morale is always low because of teaching conditions.

4.7.18. CAPS preparations for teaching of all subjects

Educators' knowledge of preparation for all CAPS is the ultimate goal of the department of education. Under normal circumstances, educators should know how to prepare for all CAPS learning areas after getting proper training from the department of education. It was important in this study to determine whether or not rural school educators know how to make CAPS preparations for teaching of all subjects. Table 4.40 below reflects educators responds in that regard.

Table 4.40. Rural school educators know how to prepare CAPS lessons (n=490).

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	91	13.6
Agree	154	31.4
Not sure	134	27.3
Disagree	88	18.0
Strongly disagree	23	4.7
Total	490	100

Regarding rural educators' understanding of CAPS preparation for teaching all subjects, (18.6%) strongly agreed whereas (31.4) agreed with the statement. On the other hand, (18.0) simply disagreed and (27.3) were not sure whether rural educators understand how to make CAPS preparation for all learning areas. A total of 49% of educators know how to make CAPS preparation while the majority (51%) of respondents. The results are consistent with RSA (2002) which indicates that to improve learners academic performance, educators should be prepared and lessons plan must be thoroughly planned.

Foundations for Learning Assessment Framework which was distributed to all schools during 2008 contained 'milestones' for each grade (Neuman, 2014). These milestones explain the content embedded in the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards, thus indicating the expected level of achievement of learners at the end of each quarter. To supplement the Foundations for Learning Assessment Framework the Department of Education has provided lesson plans to enhance teaching, learning and assessment, thereby equipping educators with the necessary tools needed for effective implementation of the campaign. She further said that these lesson plans are intended to assist teachers to pace their teaching, give them guidance when planning their assessment tasks and provide suggestions to enrich teaching practice. It is suggested that educators introduce new material in an order that suits their learners. However, poor and inadequate support provided to educators by district officials in implementing the lesson plans was reported (Neuman, 2014). However, educators need to take into cognizance that they are not intended to be prescriptive, and teachers are not expected to abandon good practice in order to blindly follow the plans. It is crucial that educators keep in mind that every class and learner is unique, and there is no 'one size fits all'

The conclusion that might be drawn here is that educators do not know or are not sure whether the lessons they are preparing are aligned to CAPS requirements or not. Even though some educators understand how to prepare CAPS lesson plans, there are some who are still facing difficulties, and this may be caused by poor conducive work environment, poor teacher collaboration arrangement of helping each other. Rural schools should consider helping colleagues through cluster meetings.

4.7.19. Assessing learners based on new curriculum

Assessment is one of the important factors that might negatively affect learners' academic performance in schools if not properly checked. It was also important in this study to inquire whether or not rural teachers' assessment of rural learners takes into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum. This was important for this study as it sought to inquire whether teachers from rural schools assess learners, taking into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum. Table 4.41 indicates the educators' responses on the statement.

Table 4.41. Assessing learners based on their rural setting (n=490)

Response	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	82	16.7
Agree	153	31.2
Not sure	112	22.9
Disagree	94	19.2
Strongly disagree	49	10.0
Total	490	100

Table 4.37 shows that (16. 7%) of respondents strongly agreed with the idea that teachers from rural schools assess learners, taking into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum. Table 4.26 shows that (22. 9%) of educator respondents were not sure on whether teachers from rural schools assess learners, taking into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum. Ninety four (19. 2%) of educator respondents disagreed with the statement while forty nine (10. 0%) of respondents strongly disagreed that teachers from rural schools assess learners, taking into account their rural setting in implementing the curriculum. The implication behind this statement might be that rural school educators are not assessing learners using curriculum assessment policy statement requirements but rather using their own setting standards.

The study might be challenging traditional use of authoritarian approaches of assessing and teaching as one way of perpetuating curriculum implementation in Vhembe rural schools as it leaves rural learners with limited chances of understanding different ways of assessing the curriculum. A dynamic constructive relationship between the curriculum, assessment, teachers and learners might be suggested, moving from old ways of assessing and teaching the curriculum to understand and developing support programmes for implementing the curriculum within a social constructivist discourse.

According to Risimati (2001), the gap that was found by Epstein (2001) between the rural and urban education still prevails. Earlier, it was found by Jansen and Sayed (2001) that rural parents send their children to schools with the expectation that they will get quality education in order to secure their future with decent vocations. In this study, educators' respondents revealed that there is an unhealthy relationship between rural schools as a whole and the Department of Education. There are significant differences in the rating of this item by level (Chi-Square = 16.293, $p < 0.038$, Cramer's $V = .129$) on the perception that rural schools assess learners, taking into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum. The results are significant with the teaching phase that educators are teaching, and the majority of intermediate phase (40.4) educators showed that educators are divided on whether the department of education is doing enough to support rural primary educators. For example, in Table 4.20, (31.0%) of the respondents shows that they are not sure whether the department is doing enough to support rural primary educators.

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher presented and interpreted quantitative data, and it became evident that development of support programme for rural educators is needed. It was also highlighted in this study that deep rural teachers neglect support and developmental programmes. Due a number of contextual factors such as the environmental nature of rural areas, some educators do not believe in developing their own support programmes through cluster meetings while others believe in waiting for the department to give them the required programme of support. The department

should also develop more programmes of support in rural areas to improve teachers' efficiency in teaching and learning in rural schools. Therefore, it is important to develop a support programme in which all the educators will be happy and implement the findings correctly for the benefit of all rural learners.

The results indicated that lack of parental involvement, unavailability of follow up-visits from subject advisors and lack of effective school leadership inhibit successful curriculum implementation. Factors that emerged as helpful to the successful implementation of the curriculum are support, reduction in the teacher-learner ratio and long-term training. Addressing these factors will ensure that failure of implementation is avoided.

The conclusion that can also be drawn here is that educators have doubts and do not know or are not sure whether the lessons they are preparing are aligned to CAPS requirements or not. Rural school educators are also not assessing learners using curriculum assessment policy statement requirements but rather use their own standards. Shortage of libraries in rural schools might be the cause of poor performance of rural school learners as they do not have time to read and spend most of their times on other things than spending their times in libraries. It can also be concluded from this statistic that educators in rural schools have a great shortage of CAPS material. This can contribute to the poor performance of rural learners, taking into consideration annual national assessment statistics in South Africa. Lastly, the Department of Education should develop an appropriate support programme for rural schools that can make meaningful contribution to all schools and rural schools, in particular.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In chapter four of the study, data gathered through the questionnaires were presented. In this study, the researcher sought to develop Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe District rural-based primary school educators, the impact of the development of support programme for rural primary based educators, the effect and challenges that support programmes will have on rural primary educators. This study aimed to address three objectives: firstly, to determine the challenges facing primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS; secondly, to determine the impact of the challenges primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS educators in rural primary schools in Vhembe are facing in CAPS implementation on learner academic performance; thirdly, to develop a support programme for primary schools educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning.

The breakdown of the study is as follows, chapter one identified the problem statement, the research question, and the rationale for the study. Chapter two dealt with the latest literature along with the theoretical framework, while chapter three focused on the research methods that have been employed in the study. Chapter four dealt exclusively with data. Based on the literature and the data gathered during the course of the study, in Chapter 4, the researcher presented and interpreted data by means of a questionnaire which highlighted the following findings about Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for rural based educators in Vhembe district.

The main aim of this study was:

- to develop a support programme for primary schools' educators to implement CAPS in Vhembe district rural areas to promote quality teaching and learning

The critical research questions of this study were:

- What are the challenges facing primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in implementation of CAPS?
- What is the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learner academic performance?
- What support programme can be developed for primary school educators in Vhembe district rural areas in the implementation of CAPS to promote quality teaching and learning?

5.2. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In this chapter, a summary of findings with regard to research questions must be obtained from the empirical research that was outlined in chapters four is presented. A synthesis of the findings is linked to the three research questions and the formulated objectives of this study, drawing impact and challenges from the development of support programme for rural primary school educators in Vhembe district. This is then followed by recommendations or suggestions which are made so as to inform future studies in this field. The recommendations made could also to a certain extent, provide Vhembe district education officials, curriculum researchers and curriculum advisors with vital information on development of support programme to help rural based educators and the impact of implementing support programme thereof. Lastly, the results may also shed more light on the importance of developing a support programme for rural based primary educators.

5.2.1 Challenges facing primary school educators in implementing of CAPS

Support programmes for rural based primary school educators had been a major thorn in South Africa, given the fractured structure of the education system that has been riddled with different forms of inequities ranging from uneven resource allocation to unevenness in the quality of education provided. Nkosi (2014) states that understanding curriculum changes from this point of view suggests that changes in the curricula are mainly carried out with a view of ensuring equality, justice and fairness

in South Africa's education system. She further said that while the international experience (albeit only in the US) has had similar stories with regards to curriculum changes, the South African experience has appeared to be overwhelmed by challenges. She further said that by comparison, South Africa plays second fiddle to other developing countries, including Zimbabwe, in terms of the quality of education that is offered. The development of a support programme is seen to be desperately needed especially in rural.

The study also made the following findings: Shortage of educators in rural schools and poor infrastructure such as old classroom buildings and usage of churches are the challenges of rural areas. Rural educators' lack proper training, provision of resources and ongoing support from the Department of Education. Rural parents' involvement in the education of their learner was also found to be lacking. Inefficiency in the organisation and programming of training workshops aimed at equipping teachers with knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum was also a challenge.

The other findings are that overcrowding of learners in class affects the culture of teaching and learning, poor block training programmes for senior teachers is also detrimental towards the implementation of the curriculums, coupled by shortage of school libraries in rural areas. One other finding from the survey is lack of CAPS resources such as teachers' guides, which is a challenge in rural areas.

There is inefficiency in the organisation and programming of training workshops aimed at equipping teachers with knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum change. Time constraints for rural teachers to master practical knowledge to apply knowledge and approaches recommended by experts in teaching and learning of critical skills and inadequate level of competency amongst facilitators in equipping teachers with appropriate strategies to implement the curriculum were also the findings in the study. The other major finding was lack of parental involvement throughout the process, insufficient professional development programmes and school based activities to enhance teaching and learning of the curriculum. Lastly, inadequate supervision, monitoring and support from the district officials, staff

management team and subject advisors/specialists regarding Curriculum Assessment Policy statement support programme for rural based primary teachers were identified.

5.2.2 The impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learners' academic performance

The study also made the following findings about the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS: Shortage of educators and poor infrastructure in rural schools may influence the decline in the quality of education offered, thus resulting in learners getting second hand type of education.

The other finding was lack of proper training, provision of resources and ongoing support for rural educators by the Department of Education. The impact of this poor training and poor support by the department of basic education will result in providing poor output to the learners, which means they will be far behind academically as compared to learners from urban areas. This impact will translate to unequal education for rural learners as compared to urban areas, and this is not what Department of education envisaged.

There is inefficiency in the organisation and programming of training workshops aimed at equipping teachers with knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum was also a challenge. This will have an impact on the level of education rural educators are receiving because educators will be frustrated and end up sticking on their old system of teaching which is no longer beneficial to learners.

Overcrowding of learners in class has an impact because larger classes, through the new curriculum, will deprive learners of doing group work participation as required by the new curriculum. This will make both educators and learners lose interest as they will not know what is expected of them. Shortage of resources for both educators and learners has an impact and affects the culture of teaching and learning because the

new system requires learners to make referrals, and they can only refer to their textbooks and teachers refer to their guides.

Failing of rural teachers to master practical knowledge to apply knowledge and approaches recommended by experts in teaching and learning of critical skills and inadequate level of competency amongst facilitators in equipping teachers with appropriate strategies to implement the curriculum has an impact on education system as a whole especially in rural areas. This is because educators will never implement things that they do not understand, and this will impact severely on learners' performance when compared with other learners from urban and semi-urban areas. Parental involvement in rural learners' education is a thorny issue because it also impacts negatively on the performance of learners because learners need to be assisted by their parents in most school tasks throughout the process of learning.

The findings with regard to the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS on learner academic performance relate with Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg's (1964) theories of motivation and the two factor theories which state that an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only if their deficiencies are met. The study established the relevance of the three theories which shows that employees who are happy at work perform, while those who are unhappy are problematic regarding output.

Herzberg's (1964) theories of motivation and the two factor theories in chapter one stated that educators perform well where there is a clear support programme in the curriculum and education system. If educators are well trained at college and universities for a particular curriculum, it will have to be supported through different programmes and accommodate the new education dispensation regarding curriculum transformation and change. Support can be in the form of appreciation and resources in support of implementing the national curriculum. Furthermore, support from parents would motivate teachers to put in more effort to increase the level of performance of learner. In Lumadi (2014), it was found that the majority of teachers did not receive enough in-service training in preparation for Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). Furthermore, teacher felt that a week-long training is not enough as it was

not even detailed. These challenges have a serious impact on the implementation of the curriculum in rural areas.

One other impact of poor training of teachers and lack of resources, as well as the toll that apartheid had inflicted on the education system are that the majority of teachers will find it difficult to know what to teach and will tend to act as mere technicians without the necessary conceptual and content tools. Training plays an important role on the delivery of quality of teaching and learning through curriculum implementation in their respective schools (Lumadi, 2014).

Maslow (1943), Rogers and Herzberg (1964) are very relevant in this study as they focus on the negative side of teachers who are challenged in implement the national curriculum, and in the process, result in high turnover.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

This study concludes that teacher's experiences with regards to the development of the CAPS support programme for rural based primary educators is a challenge as there are areas that need to be explored further. While conducting a survey with rural based teachers, it emerged that there are gaps and areas that need further research. It emerged that support given to rural educators needs to be strengthened and beefed up in order to improve the culture of learning and teaching in rural schools. Development of support programmes needs to be examined further in order to determine efficiency in promoting a culture of learning in rural areas. Infrastructure needs to be improved in order to overcome overcrowded classrooms.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to develop support programmes towards the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement in rural schools of the Vhembe district. The results have indicated that overcrowding, poor infrastructure such as old classroom buildings and usage of churches as classrooms also affect the implementation of the curriculum. This could be as a result of fewer numbers of

schools in rural areas. The development and upgrading of new classrooms could put an end to overcrowding in rural schools.

Shortage of educators in rural schools and poor training of teachers indicate the inability of the Department of Education to provide maximum support of rural educators in rural areas. Ongoing support from the Department of Education and the provision of resources could be employed to ensure a smooth implementation of the curriculum. One would expect teachers to be thoroughly trained and assisted by subject advisors in order to achieve the objectives of CAPS. Indeed, the training can be done through regular workshops. Not only are rural based teachers expected to work tirelessly, but the parents are required to participate actively in the education of their children, that is, parent involvement could be an important element in the achievement of curriculum objectives. Because of what the results of the study have shown, development of a support programme in rural areas is a dynamic and constantly challenging task that needs to be taken seriously by all stakeholders.

Lack of training workshops directed to rural areas indicates that rural educators are not properly equipped with proper training and knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum change. This may also be influenced by inefficiency in the organisation and programming of training workshops aimed at equipping teachers with knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum change and innovations.

Time constraints for rural teachers to master practical knowledge to apply knowledge and approaches recommended by experts in teaching and learning of critical skills and inadequate level of competency amongst facilitators in equipping teachers with appropriate strategies to implement the curriculum were also the findings of the study. One would expect educators to differ with respect to mastering practical knowledge, yet none of the educators were differing with mastering of practical knowledge, this may indicate that insufficient professional development programmes and school based activities to enhance the teaching and learning of the curriculum might be lacking. There is inadequate supervision, monitoring and support from the district officials, staff management team and subject advisors/specialists regarding Curriculum Assessment

Policy statement support programme for rural based primary teachers. This may indicate that poor roads might be causing lack of supervision, monitoring and support by the department official such as curriculum advisors and circuit managers.

5.4.1 Model for rural educators' CAPS support programme

A model for rural educators' CAPS support programme based on the findings of the study is proposed. This model is responding to question 3 serves as an additional recommendation from the ones given above. Below is an illustration of participative management models which lead to organisational success.

The proposed model provides information about the development of a support programme for rural educators. The model correlate with what Hellriegel and others believe. Hellriegel et al. (2003) believe that a support programme model guides the amount and form of participative decision-making determined in different situations. The model is divided into three phases thus: phase one, phase two and phase three. Phase one constitutes the following: Department of Basic Education support programme team, involvement of stakeholders, rural educator participation and development of training objectives, training of rural educators, implementation and evaluations. Phase two is about mentoring and coaching, assessment and analysis of the programme and feedback and the last phase is about rural educators' consultation and feedback.

The model starts with the Department of Basic Education support programme team. In this phase, support programme teams focusing on rural education should be developed. A support programme team is a group of professionals with the expertise in curriculum development such as curriculum specialist and curriculum developers (Ramelepe, 2014); this is then followed by involvement of stakeholders. Earlier literature by Buthelezi (2016) states that educators, academics, researchers, educational associations, educators' unions, parents, business, Non-Government Organizations must be involved and presented with the draft curriculum plan.

Ramelepe (2014) states that curriculum developers should hear from teachers how they could be empowered to achieve success.

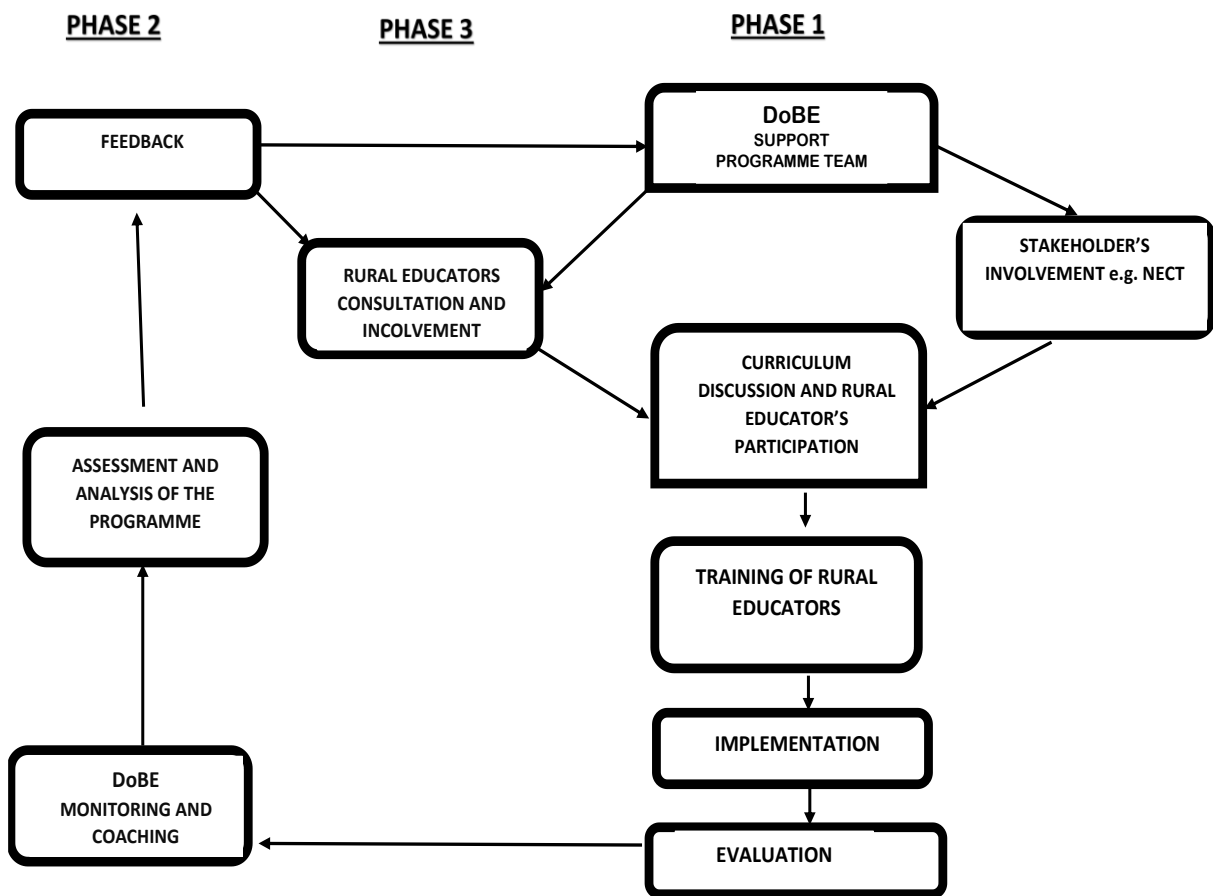


Figure 5.1: Rural Educators CAPS support programme Model

Since the theory of motivation states that giving rural teachers objectives on their training, curriculum developers could receive expectations that can inform the success of curriculum implementation and ultimately, that of rural teachers. Initiatives below are supported by the researcher's model based on the development of support for rural educators in the implementation of the curriculum. Ramalepe further stated that curriculum was reviewed twice, and that highlighted more concerns which were also identified during the implementation by the committee that was doing research on behalf of the Department of Basic Education. One other major step on the proposed model was training of rural educators. Training of rural educators should be done through curriculum piloting as train-the-trainer or cascading model has never trained the teachers properly (Mabusela, 2014). Compulsory courses, short courses and in-

service programmes should be introduced for rural educators so that they can be equipped and a service provider must be identified to engage and work with teachers. Implementation of In-service programme and short courses should be evaluated based on the strength and weaknesses of rural educators. These in-service programmes should assist educators in receiving training in skills enabling them to circulate, plan and have a greater insight with regard to broader curriculum matters (Paisey, 2011).

It is important for rural educators to receive proper training to prepare them for the implementation of the new curriculum. Following on from the acknowledged failure of workshop-based training in facilitating the introduction of C2005/OBE, numerous researchers have made calls for switch of emphasis towards communal, school-based teacher development programmes in line with the findings of international research (Paisey, 2011).

Professional development are activities to enhance professional career growth. Such activities may include individual development, continuing education, and in service education, as well as curriculum, peer collaboration, peer coaching or mentoring (Paisey, 2011). Tienken (2010) stresses that when the educators collaborate with one another, they can target common gaps in a learner's learning and identify promising instructional strategies linked directly to learner needs.

If used effectively in a school, the Collaborative Model of Instructional Leadership may ensure that systems and procedures in schools are collaboratively managed to ensure successful learning and teaching and to promote increasing levels of learner achievement.

A pilot study should follow by mentoring and coaching immediately after the training of educators for this purpose in order to evaluate their understanding and performance. Earlier work by Paisey (2011) reiterates that curriculum evaluation serves two important functions: first, it provides a means of obtaining information that can be used to improve a course, and secondly, it provides a basis for decisions about curriculum adoption and effective use. Ideally, the curriculum should be evaluated continuously taking into consideration the current circumstances; the curriculum may then be

modified in the light of what the evaluation has shown. She further said that evaluation should take place in an ongoing manner with a view to making timeous adjustment and determining success.

Continuous coaching support and monitoring by Department of Basic Education should lead to curriculum assessment and analysis of the curriculum implementation process and followed by feedback which is the last stage of phase two of the process. In order to implement the curriculum, one requires support and monitoring. Government education officials and school leaders such as curriculum advisors, subject specialists together with senior teachers in rural schools should be required during planning for successful implementation of the curriculum. After the Department of basic education has done coaching and monitoring, it is then that one can identify mistakes which need attention. As mentioned earlier, overcrowded classrooms, infrastructural resources, accessibility of rural areas and parental support are problematic. To intervene, the government should increase the budget for rural education in order to meet the challenges.

The training of all educators should follow feedback received from the teachers and be used to modify and strengthen the curriculum. The context of South African teacher development is that in 1998, many schools in the largely rural KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Free State were unable to implement C2005 due to huge disparities in access to curriculum resources, teacher qualification, class size and learning support materials.

In Gauteng, the cluster model was used to supplement the cascade model of train-the-trainer. Cluster meetings were organised by teachers from schools that are closely located almost in the same area to exchange and share their ideas and experiences on instructional matters. This model might be active in Gauteng but in deep rural areas, it is not working as most of the schools are far away from each other. In Gauteng, the clustering model was successful but the same model cannot be implemented in rural schools as schools in rural areas are far apart from each other; it would not be possible to cluster such rural schools, hence the development of this new model that will cater for all rural educators.

In Western Cape, a high quality pre-service teacher training programme was largely governed by the context of the school in which they work. Earlier work by Buthelezi (2016) posits that development programmes need to recognize that educators are at different development stages and need active peer support networks and the opportunity to learn from master educators. Buthelezi further said the Jika Imfundo project currently taking place in the Uthungulu and Pinetown districts for tracking, supporting, mentoring and developing school management team members needed to spread its wings to other education districts in KwaZulu-Natal. The Programme to Improve Learning Outcomes (PILO) is a multi-stakeholder, district-wide intervention rolled out Jika Imfundo Programme in KwaZulu-Natal – Pinetown and King Cetshwayo Districts. Its objective is to improve district and school capacity to deliver the curriculum and subsequently bring about gains in learner outcomes.

Amongst other things, Jika Imfundo sought to develop strong curriculum management skills to strengthen district support to teaching and learning in line with the aims and objectives of schooling 2015. This might mean that not all provinces are gaining from this project, hence there is a need for the development of model that will help all rural educators in rural schools, especially in Vhembe district.

The proposed model will work because it is involving rural educators from the first phase of planning to the last phase of feedback and consultative reporting, which is phase three. Other models were not effective because rural educators were not involved and consulted from the first phase of planning the curriculum. Planning the curriculum was generalized in a way that curriculum developers assumed that it is a one size fits all curriculum. Jika Imfundo Programme was used in KwaZulu-Natal, but not all provinces gained from this programme. There is a need for a new programme to be developed to cater all rural teachers in all the provinces of South Africa, so the current study developed this model to help all rural educators in the implementation of curriculum assessment policy statement.

Earlier work by Muwanga-Zake (2009) states that successful implementation requires rural schools or district to plan well in advance, provide adequate resources, and rural

educators must be given adequate time to acquaint themselves with the curriculum; gain competencies and skills necessary to teach it and interact with peers, including those in other schools to address curricular and instructional concern. Other factors that influence curriculum implementation are the rural environment, interest groups, culture and ideology and instructional supervision. He further said that the educator should be knowledgeable since curriculum implementation needs managers who will monitor and guide curriculum implementation by ensuring that learning programmes and records are prepared regularly.

Although problems will still be experienced for the successful implementation of the support programmes in schools, if rural educators are prepared for the innovation, things will improve in rural schools. In the implementation of the last phase, this study recommends a second consultation and evaluation for the final development of rural educators so that they may ask for clarification if they experience difficulties. This model seeks to help rural primary educators by preparing them for the implementation of the curriculum.

5.3.2 Suggestions for further research

Based on the findings of this study, the following are suggestions for further research on CAPS development of a support programme for rural educators.

1. The sample population was made up exclusively of educators from the Vhembe district in Limpopo province. Further research can be done in other districts of Limpopo province.
2. The target population were educators employed in public schools. Further studies can be channeled to independent or privately owned schools.
3. The research sample of this study was drawn from the General Education and Training (GET) band, who teach grades R-6 only.
4. The population/sample consisted of 400 educators. A study with a bigger sample size, probably of national proportions is a viable option to ensure generalization of findings.

5. The questionnaire was the only data collection instrument utilized in the study. There is, therefore, room for a study where use is made of both in-depth interviews and questionnaires.

Despite the afore-mentioned limitations, the researcher strongly believes that this study has achieved its objectives of developing a support programme for curriculum assessment policy statement for rural educators at Vhembe district.

5.5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The researcher acknowledges that dissemination of a CAPS support programme for rural based educators is for Vhembe District of Limpopo Department of Basic Education. Furthermore, the researcher was aware that there are number of support programmes that the Department of Basic Education is implementing but further emphasis should be done in rural schools. The researcher considers worth acknowledging that the design and procedures for the data collection during this empirical study was confined to schools within Vhembe District. A sample of 490 teachers to whom questionnaires were distributed and findings in chapter four presents a small fraction of the entire population of teachers in the Vhembe district as well as in the province. The findings in chapter four are important; however, they cannot be generalized to mean the same to the entire population. The findings of this study, in general, should be understood within the confines of the research sample and the district in which the study was conducted. The issues presented and discussed could be further researched for a purpose of finding solutions as they had been found to be a threat for CAPS support programme implementation for rural based educators in Vhembe district.

5.6. CONCLUSION

This chapter presented conclusion drawn from the findings based on data collected by means of questionnaire. The conclusions of the study were informed by the literature reviewed and rural primary educators from rural areas of Vhembe district in Limpopo province. Findings with regard to the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS demonstrate that there is great need for rural

educators to be supported through effective programmes such as the one that the researcher introduced in the study. Findings from the study highlighted challenges that have an impact on implementation of the CAPS Support programme for rural based educators in Vhembe district. The conclusions made in this study could make a significant contribution to the curriculum developers and the Department of Basic Education, taking into account challenges that rural educators are experiencing. Findings with regard to the impact of the challenges facing educators in rural primary schools in the implementation of CAPS demonstrate that if the challenges are not attended, they will have severe consequences on learner academic performance, thus resulting in a massive blow to the future of all rural learners.

The areas of concern around which questions in questionnaire were formulated focused on and covered the main activities of teachers' development of support programme discussed in this chapter. **A model** was designed to address and deal with the shortcomings and inefficiency that other models had in the organization and programming of curriculum training workshops aimed at equipping rural teachers with knowledge and skills for effective implementation of curriculum.

The model addresses constraints faced by rural teachers in mastering practical knowledge and applying knowledge and approaches recommended by experts in teaching and learning of critical skills and inadequate level of competency amongst facilitators in equipping teachers with appropriate strategies to implement the curriculum. The model also addressed involvement of different stakeholders throughout the process of curriculum planning. It also addressed insufficient professional development programmes and school based activities to enhance the teaching and learning of the curriculum. The model is the initiative of teachers and can be regarded as a bottom-up approach.

Theories of motivation and the two factor theories in chapter one's theoretical framework demonstrated the importance of support programmes and stated that educators perform well where there is a clear support programme in the curriculum and education system. If educators are well trained at college and universities for a particular curriculum, they will have to be supported through different programmes and

accommodate the new education dispensation regarding curriculum transformation and change (Herzberg, 1964). It can be concluded that adequate supervision, monitoring and support from the district officials, staff management team and subject advisors/specialists regarding Curriculum Assessment Policy statement support programme for rural based primary teachers can address challenges that rural educators are encountering.

Furthermore, the researcher had acknowledged that the findings highlighted from the analysis of data cannot be inferred or generalized because the sample was not a sufficient representative of all primary teachers in the districts within the all the provinces. Moreover, the acknowledgement in this study was that of seeking teachers' perceptions and therefore, researchers could study this further to unleash some of the aspects on.

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**ANNEXURE A: CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMME
QUESTIONNAIRE**

SECTION A.

Please supply the following information by making a tick in the appropriate block.

1.1. Gender

Female	1
Male	2

1.2. Your age

20-29 years old	1
30-39 years old	2
40-49 years old	3
50 years old and above	4

1.4. Which phase are you currently teaching?

Foundation phase	1
Intermediate phase	2
Senior phase	3

1.5. How many learners do you have in your class?

0 – 30 Learners	1
31 – 50 Learners	2
51 – 69 Learners	3
70 learners and more	4

1.6. What is the language of instruction at your school?

Tshivenda	1
English	2
Xitsonga	3
Sesotho	4
IsiZulu	5
Other Languages	6

SECTION B

The following is a list of some issues relating to Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe rural-based primary school educators.

Indicate whether you Agree, Strongly agree, Disagree, Strongly disagree or Not sure with each of the following statements about the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for rural-based primary school educators

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Teachers have sufficient learning materials for all their learning areas.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Rural school teachers are direct beneficiaries of CAPS developmental support programme.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Rural schools experience great shortage of libraries.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Schools in rural areas experience a great shortage of class rooms.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Teachers have sufficient textbooks for all the learning areas.	1	2	3	4	5

6 Educators in rural schools are given chance to attend CAPS implementation workshops.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sufficient developmental support programme for all their teachers are organised.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Support programme for rural educators have promoted culture of learning and teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Teachers get adequate support in improving teaching skills from the circuit offices.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Rural schools teachers support programme accommodates their needs.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Teachers feel motivated after developmental workshops which always address their needs.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Teachers neglect curriculum support from education offices as it does not take into consideration their environmental situation.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Rural school educators cluster subject meetings to improve their content knowledge regularly.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Teachers quit the system because they do not understand CAPS.	1	2	3	4	5

15. Teachers can differentiate between support programmes and curriculum workshops.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Rural schools experience a great shortage of CAPS material resources.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Rural school educators know how to make CAPS preparations for teaching all subjects.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Teachers develop their own support programmes which address their special rural setting needs.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Rural school teachers experience overcrowding of classes making it impossible for them to have a one on one contact.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Shortage of educators in rural schools has a positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Shortage of educators in rural schools has a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Not sure	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree
22. Poor infrastructure affects implementation of CAPS.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Educators understand how departmental support programme works.	1	2	3	4	5
24. CAPS support programme offered by department helps teacher to improve quality of teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Lack of implementation of CAPS frustrates rural educators.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Schools in rural areas teacher support programme help them to implement the programme.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Rural school teachers identify appropriate support programmes for their schools for them to make meaningful contribution.	1	2	3	4	5

28. Teachers from rural schools assess learners taking into account their rural setting in implementing the new curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Rural schools programmes of support involve all stakeholders for it to be sustainable.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Teachers implement resolutions from CAPS support programmes meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Parental support teachers in their bid to promote the quality of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Educators attend all CAPS support programme meetings for them to improve the quality of teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Educators in rural schools are able to administer support programme recommendations.	1	2	3	4	5

P.O BOX 61
LWAMONDO
0985

Dear Sir/ Madam

I am studying at the University of Zululand. My project title is "**Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement support programme for Vhembe rural based primary educators.**"

I should be most grateful if you would help me with this part of my research project by completing the inventory.

I assure you that the survey is anonymous and designed mainly to obtain an overall statistical picture.

In anticipation, please accept my sincere appreciation for you for your willingness to assist me.

Yours sincerely

Tshidaho Manyage

072 9754753



LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION
VHEMBE DISTRICT

REF: 14/7/R
ENQ: MATIBE M.S
TEL: 015 962 1029

MANYANGE T
P.O BOX61
LWAMONDO
0985



Re: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT VHEMBE DISTRICT SCHOOLS

1. The above matter refers.
2. This serves to inform you that your application to conduct a research study titled **"Curriculum Assessment policy statement support programme for Vhembe rural-based primary schools educators"** has been granted.
3. You are expected to observe research ethics, particularly those relating to confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent of your research subjects.
4. Please ensure that your visits will not disrupt the normal teaching and learning activities.
5. Kindly inform the Circuit Managers and Principals of selected schools prior to your visits.
6. Wishing you the best in your studies.


DISTRICT SENIOR MANAGER

08/06/2016
DATE

Thohoyandou Government Building, Old Parliament, Block D, Private Bag X2250, SIBASA, 0970
Tel: (015) 962 1313 or (015) 962 1331, Fax: (015) 962 6039 or (015) 962 2288

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!



ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Number	UZREC 171110-030 PGD 2016/145						
Project Title	Curriculum assessment policy statement support programme for Vhembe rural-based primary schools educators						
Principal Researcher/ Investigator	T Manyage						
Supervisor and Co-supervisor	Dr MS Mabusele			Prof AP Kutame			
Department	Curriculum & Instructional Studies						
Nature of Project	Honours/4 th Year		Master's		Doctoral	x	Departmental

The University of Zululand’s Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project proposal and the documents listed on page 2 of this Certificate.

- Special conditions:
- (1) This certificate is valid for 3 years from the date of issue.
 - (2) Principal researcher must provide an annual report to the UZREC in the prescribed format [due date-31 August 2017]
 - (3) Principal researcher must submit a report at the end of project in respect of ethical compliance.

The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this Certificate, using the reference number indicated above, but may not conduct any data collection using research instruments that are yet to be approved.

Please note that the UZREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the UZREC
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

Classification:

Data collection	Animals	Human Health	Children	Vulnerable pp.	Other
X					
Low Risk		Medium Risk		High Risk	
		X			

The table below indicates which documents the UZREC considered in granting this Certificate and which documents, if any, still require ethical clearance. (Please note that this is not a closed list and should new instruments be developed, these would require approval.)

Documents	Considered	To be submitted	Not required
Faculty Research Ethics Committee recommendation	X		
Animal Research Ethics Committee recommendation			X
Health Research Ethics Committee recommendation			X
Ethical clearance application form	X		
Project registration proposal	X		
Informed consent from participants	X		
Informed consent from parent/guardian			X
Permission for access to sites/information/participants	X		
Permission to use documents/copyright clearance			X
Data collection/survey instrument/questionnaire	X		X
Data collection instrument in appropriate language		Only if necessary	
Other data collection instruments		Only if used	

The UZREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Certificate if
 - Any unethical principles or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in this Certificate have not been adhered to

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project

The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting the research


 Professor Gideon De Wet
 Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee
 Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research & Innovation
 21 November 2016

<p>CHAIRPERSON UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (UZREC) REG NO: UZREC 171110-30</p> <p style="font-size: 1.2em;">21-11-2016</p> <p>RESEARCH & INNOVATION OFFICE</p>
