Building teacher professionalism for quality basic education

October 2014
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### Acronyms and Abbreviations

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANAs</td>
<td>Annual National Assessments</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEPD</td>
<td>Centre for Education Policy Development</td>
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<td>CEPE</td>
<td>Centre of Study for Policies and Practices in Education</td>
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<td>CHE</td>
<td>Council on Higher Education</td>
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<td>CPTD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Teacher Development</td>
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<td>DBE</td>
<td>Department of Basic Education</td>
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<td>Department of Higher Education and Training</td>
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<td>DTDCs</td>
<td>District Teacher Development Centres</td>
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<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development</td>
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<td>ETDp</td>
<td>Education, Training and Development Practices</td>
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<td>FLTTT</td>
<td>Foundational Learning Technical Task Team</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institution</td>
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<td>HEQC</td>
<td>Higher Education Quality Committee</td>
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<td>Higher Education Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>HRDC</td>
<td>Human Resource Development Council</td>
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<td>IQMS</td>
<td>Integrated Quality Management System</td>
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<td>ISPFTED</td>
<td>Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development</td>
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<td>ITE</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education</td>
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<td>ITT</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Training</td>
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<td>MRTEQ</td>
<td>Minimum Requirements of Teaching Qualifications</td>
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<td>MSSI</td>
<td>Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative</td>
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<td>NCTL</td>
<td>National College for Teaching and Leadership</td>
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<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Development Plan</td>
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<td>National Education Evaluation and Development Unit</td>
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<td>NICPD</td>
<td>National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development</td>
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<td>National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development</td>
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<td>National Teacher Education Development Committee</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>PD</td>
<td>Professional Development</td>
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<td>Provincial Education Department</td>
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<td>PGCE</td>
<td>Post Graduate Certificate in Education</td>
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<td>Progress in International Reading Literacy Study</td>
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<td>Provincial Pilot Coordinating Committee</td>
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<td>Provincial Teacher Development Institutes</td>
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<td>PTECs</td>
<td>Provincial Teacher Education Committees</td>
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<td>SACE</td>
<td>South African Council of Educators</td>
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<td>SACMEQ</td>
<td>Southern and East African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality</td>
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<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teacher’s Union</td>
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<td>SCNPDI</td>
<td>Curtis Nkondo Professional Development Institute</td>
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<td>SETA</td>
<td>Sector Education and Training Authority</td>
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<td>Sector Skills Plan</td>
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<td>TEI</td>
<td>Teacher Education Institutions</td>
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<td>TIMMS</td>
<td>Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study</td>
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Executive summary

Professional teachers are profoundly important to a good quality education system. Teacher professionalism must be at the centre of initiatives to improve education and learning outcomes. The problems of poor student and teacher performance are now well known and widely acknowledged in the South African basic education system and the centrality of teachers to improving education outcomes is being recognised and can be seen in the extent of initiatives taking place in this broad and complex field.

The FLTTT has recognised the importance of teacher professionalism as a central lever for improving basic education overall in South Africa. This report has been produced to provide the FLTTT with an overview of the theoretical underpinnings of teacher professionalism, some reflection on international trends, and a comprehensive picture of the structures, processes and initiatives currently driving changes to teacher professionalism in South Africa.

Teacher professionalization initiatives need to be understood as multi-dimensional, and role-players and points of intervention are complex. A conceptual framework was therefore developed for this report to frame the report structure, and to provide a tool for decision-making for the FLTTT. The conceptual framework understands teacher professionalism as having different points of intervention over a continuum of pathways, from becoming a teacher, to developing and practicing as a teacher, and progressing through a teaching career. At each point in the pathway, the work of multiple actors is described alongside particular initiatives underway.

Drawing on the conceptual framework proposed, the report provides a series of high-level recommendations for the FLTTT to consider, in five main areas: policy implementation; advocacy; quality of teacher education and standards development; induction; and research.

Recommendations are made in these five areas, as they have been identified through the literature review and interview process as the most pivotal intervention points for improving teacher professionalism in the current context.

A number of broad proposals are suggested which would see the HRD Council supporting existing or planned initiatives in this area by advocating for the support of particular initiatives, and mobilising resources to ensure that certain initiatives are able to thrive. In addition, it is proposed that the FLTTT present their recommendations to the National Teacher Education Development Committee (NTEDC) to receive inputs and ideas about the kind of support that is most needed.
1. Introduction

The South African early childhood development (ECD) and basic education systems provide the foundation for further and higher education and training in the country. However, these two systems are plagued by systemic challenges that impede their effectiveness. Access to early childhood development for children 0-4 is low (ETDP SETA, 2013), and most of the care of children in this age group takes place in private homes that are educationally under-resourced, denying children the opportunity for the stimulation necessary for their cognitive development.

The schooling system is regarded as having significant deficiencies, as evidenced in local and international studies of educational achievement. The systemic evaluations of 2001 and 2007 indicated that Grade 3 learners from a sample of 54 000 attained less than 40% in numeracy and literacy in both years. The 2003 Western Cape learner assessment study showed that in tests taken by 34 596 learners, only 35% were performing at the appropriate Grade 6 level, and only 15.6% were at the requisite level for that grade. The National School Effectiveness Study, a panel study from 2007 – 2009, tested learners in 266 schools in literacy and numeracy when they were in Grade 3 in 2007; Grade 4 in 2008; and Grade 5 in 2009. The assessment made use of the same test, pitched at Grade 3 level. The mean score for literacy in Grade 3 was 19% and for Grade 4 27%; for numeracy it was 28% in Grade 3 and 35% in Grade 4. The results also showed weaker performance by learners in historically black schools, highlighting perpetuating inequalities (Spaull, 2013) that lead to unequal opportunities in adulthood, where mostly black young adults remain unemployed, living in abject poverty. The Annual National Assessments (ANAs) have also exposed a struggling education system, with learners performing poorly in maths and literacy. Although there has been improvement over the years of the matric pass rate, this improvement has been questioned in relation to the quality of passes and the retention and dropout rate of learners who leave the schooling system before matric, which is not accounted for in calculations of the pass rate.

South African learners have also performed poorly in international benchmark tests such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMMS) and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS). South Africa participated in TIMMS in 1995, 1999, 2002, and 2011 and in all instances South Africa performed at the bottom of the middle income countries. South Africa participated in the PIRLS at Grade 4 level in 2006 and 2011, but grade 5s were also tested for comparative analysis. In 2006, South Africa achieved the lowest score among the 45 participating countries, for Grade 5. In the Southern and East African Consortium for Monitoring Educational
Quality (SACMEQ) of 2000 and 2007, for Grade 6 level, where South Africa participated, they were ranked ninth in maths, and eighth in reading, out of 14 participating countries in 2000. In 2007, SA ranked 10th for reading and eighth for maths out of 15 participating countries (Spaull, 2013).

Given the relatively poor performance of learners in local and international assessments, it is not surprising that recent analysis of poor performance in higher education has largely attributed this failure to the articulation gap between the schooling system and university. The Council on Higher Education (CHE) report on “A proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa” (CHE, 2013) identifies a major cause of student under preparedness in higher education as “the shortcomings and inequalities” in the public school system. This identification of limitations in the schooling system echoes those of similar explanations of why learners are failing to perform optimally within this system. These explanations have been multiple and varied, and most stipulate that the challenges are systemic, with poor teacher quality singled out as a central element of the challenges that need addressing.

The performance of learners in systemic, standardised, and benchmark tests exposes greater underlying complexities about the South African education system. They show a highly unequal education system that is likely to perpetuate the inequalities of the past, determined along racial lines. The causes of difficulty in the schooling system which lead to poor performance are multiple, and have been discussed in several studies (See DBE and SACMEQ, 2010; Spaull, 2012). The National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU) report (2012) based on an evaluation of 133 schools across the country elaborates on these challenges:

- Language related factors, manifested through:
  - Dissonance between policy and practice in language of instruction. The NEEDU study found that in the 133 schools they investigated, in most schools in Johannesburg West, where classes comprised learners from all 11 official language groups, the language of instruction in the foundation phase became that of the numerically significant group. In this regard, some learners received instruction in a language that was not their own, and this impeded their learning. In some schools, the principals made the deliberate choice to use English as a language of instruction because of parental pressure and English being seen as a sign of social amelioration that exposes children “to the modern world”.
  - Even in classes where African languages are homogenous, dialects vary and the standard varieties of language differ from those that learners might use, and this poses a challenge for teaching.
• Terminology for maths in African languages is not yet fully developed, making teachers resort to the use of English.

• Literacy related factors include:
  o The NEEDU study found that “72% of the three best learners in each class observed are reading below the average benchmark for Grade 2 learners, and that 22% are on or below the poor benchmark” (2012: 10).
  o Most of the surveyed schools did not have textbooks, and although teachers developed worksheets, these were not conceptually demanding and pacing and sequence of content was poor.
  o Learners were not writing as frequently as they are expected in Grade 2 and 3, in the majority of the schools; the scope of the writing was limited, consisting mostly of sentences.

• Assessment:
  The NEEDU study found that most schools were not using the Annual National Assessment results to improve teaching and learning. Only a few schools, particularly in the Free State were aware of the role of ANA “to focus and direct teaching and learning” (NEEDU: 2012: 13).

The NEEDU findings highlight the input challenges in the education system (See also DBE and SACMEQ, 2010; Spaull, 2012), suggesting that any attempt at redress and improvement of the education system should not only focus on teacher quality, although this is a critical and cross cutting issue, but adopt a holistic approach that looks at the entire education system, including policy, leadership, socio-economic conditions of learners and schooling, teacher education provision, and standards for teacher registration and assessment. Even the focus on improving teacher quality, which is the focus of the current report, should not look at addressing teacher inadequacies at a particular moment in teachers’ lives, but consider addressing issues of teacher quality by looking at the continuum of teacher development, from teacher recruitment, preparation, employment, induction, in the work and extended work environments, and during progression through career pathing.

2. Background to this report

In March 2011, the Human Resource Development Council (HRDC) established the Foundational Learning Technical Task Team (FLTTT), to “identify blockages in the schooling system and propose
measures that could be used to support the Department of Basic Education (DBE) to improve the quality of schooling in the country” (http://www.hrdcsa.org.za/content/foundational-learning).

The work of the FLTTT supports Commitment 3 of the Human Resource Development Strategy, to:

... ensure improved universal access to quality basic education and schooling (up to Grade 12) that is purposefully focused on: (a) achieving a dramatic improvement in the education outcomes for the poor; (b) equipping learners with optimal capacity for good citizenship; and (3) the pursuit of post-school vocational education and training or employment (HRD Strategy: 30).

The scope of foundational learning includes early childhood development and all phases of basic education. The FLTTT is responsible for four key areas aligned to the National Development Plan (NDP) education priorities:

- Early childhood development
- Teacher performance improvement and standardisation
- School management and leadership
- District management and leadership.

Of these, the FLTTT has identified teacher performance improvement and standardisation and district management and leadership as the two leverage points with the most potential for impact (FLTTT, 2014 HRD Summit Presentation). Teacher professional development is a cross cutting element of these two focus areas.

Having identified the key leverage points, the FLTTT agreed to develop a strategic approach for each of these, based on work that was requested from JET. This report addresses the issues relating to the key leverage point of teacher performance improvement and standardisation. The report aims to provide a basis for the FLTTT to engage with stakeholders in the schooling system based on a set of recommendations, which will ultimately be presented to the HRD Council.

The initial brief for the research was centred on an investigation of subject expertise of teachers and key promotion posts, in the context of building a professional teaching civil service. Over the period of the project’s development, it became clear that the scope of the project overlapped with the key mandates of existing structures within government and the teaching profession and it was agreed that the report should be structured to address more broadly the issues of teacher
professionalization and provide a broad set of recommendations based on research into the current context of teacher professionalism in South Africa.

The conceptual approach chosen for this report therefore explores initial preparation of teachers and their ongoing professional development, the registration of teachers, and teacher evaluation. Professional standards development forms a part of the report and is addressed in the context of a broader, multi-dimensional set of challenges and responses to building teacher professionalism. The report captures the multiple points at which teacher professionalism can be addressed.

This report has been based on a synthesis of the literature on issues of teacher professionalism in South Africa and internationally. Reading on international practice in the areas of teacher professionalization, namely initial teacher education (ITE), continuing professional development (CPTD), teacher registration/licensing; and teacher assessment was undertaken, to frame the South African discussion within international practice. The primary approach therefore has been desktop research. In addition, a small number of interviews were conducted with key role players in the teacher education and development area to understand thinking about teacher professionalism in the South African context, and ensure that the latest information about developments in the teacher education and development field have been captured. The report synthesises the findings from the desktop and literature research as well as the interviews and the discussion and analysis in the report culminate in recommendations for the FLTTT and its possible role in growing teacher professionalization in South Africa.

3. Understanding teacher professionalism

The notion of teacher professionalism is a complex and contested one, and understandings of what teacher professionalism is are inextricably bound by ideologies, assumptions, beliefs, attitudes, values, goals, practices (Watson, 2013) and historical period. Hargreaves demonstrates how the notion of teacher professionalism in many countries has evolved in four distinct historical phases which he calls the “pre-professional age, the age of the autonomous professional, the age of the collegial professional and the ... post-professional or postmodern” (Hargreaves, 2000: 151). This temporal classification highlights that context is a key factor in determining what teacher professionalism is, and in South Africa, what it means to be a professional teacher should be located within the South African context of an inequitable and struggling education system described in Section 1 of this report. Another key contextual factor in South Africa is educational reforms since
1994, aimed at improving educational outcomes. Vergi (2012, cited in Watson, 2013) emphasises the importance of context in the description of Finland’s success in international benchmarking tests:

*What makes education work in a country is not the sum of a series of unrelated initiatives, but rather the coordination, feedback and integration of a broad range of diverse policies in a coherent and strategically planned system. Furthermore, let us not forget that an important element of Finland’s educational success is its level of welfare and social equality, and these cannot be imported from elsewhere as if they were specific policies or practices.*

Hargreaves’ distinction between professionalization and professionalism are useful for this report. Professionalism is regarded as respecting and adhering to the conduct, demeanour and standards ascribed to a profession - in teaching this includes possessing the knowledge, skills, conduct and behaviour expected of a teacher. In this regard, it encompasses knowledge, personal, and behavioural attributes. There are specific determinants that are generally accepted as critical for professionalism (Mosoge, M. J. and Taunyane, T. P, 2009):

- **Specialised knowledge** – gained through years of study and through practical experience as a teacher. Not everyone has this knowledge, hence it is specialised. In teaching, there is generic knowledge that all teachers should have, e.g. discipline, classroom control, effective teaching methods etc., as well as specialised subject knowledge for teaching children at specific levels of the education system. The determination of whether a professional meets the required expectation in specialised knowledge is made through use of standards for assessment. Shulman (1986, cited in du Toit, 2011) calls these specialised knowledge types as subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curriculum content knowledge.

- **Professional development and research** are about the commitment to learning and engaging in professional development activities to enhance practice and the knowledge base.

- **Professional authority and autonomy** is the power to command respect based on what one knows and the stature they carry as a teacher. This stature and knowledge teachers are expected to possess is what makes parents entrust their children to be educated in schools.

- **A Code of ethics** is a set of rules of conduct that a group of professions agree to adhere to by being members of a professional association that sets the code. Teachers who register with the South African Council for Educators are expected to practice according to its code of ethics.
• **Control of access** is the admission and certification of members to the profession. In teaching this inclusion and exclusion starts during the selection process for study towards an initial teaching qualification.

What also complicates the notion of professionalism is that it is understood differently at different levels. Murray (2006, cited in Mosoge and Taunyane, 2012) proposes that constructions, enactments and understandings of professionalism can differ at individual and collective level. Teachers’ perceptions of what professionalism is can also vary from that of policy makers and legislators – in this regard, perceptions of professionalism are value laden. There is also public and media opinion that often describes teacher professionalism in deficit terms, mainly out of frustration at the failure of the education system, which is entirely blamed on teachers. It is therefore crucial to be explicit about what professionalism is so that the project to promote professionalism is guided by a common understanding of how to plan for the development of professionalism.

Professionalization is the process of improving the status and standing of teaching, and this includes initial teacher training, induction, continuing professional development, registration of teachers, and evaluation of teacher performance. Professionalization is an ongoing and dynamic process - and it is generally agreed that professional development of teachers is a lifelong process, usually comprising three phases that start with initial teacher training, moves to induction, then continuing professional development till the process ends at retirement (European Commission, 2010). However, professionalization processes do not automatically lead to professionalism. The whole education value chain has to be conducive for professionalism to thrive.

4. **Teacher professionalisation in South Africa: A national imperative**

The ailing ECD and schooling systems described in Section 1 are the ones the country pins its hopes on to provide the firm foundation upon which national development and economic growth should take place. The central role played by education in the development of the country is encapsulated in the National Development Plan (NDP) which stresses that

> *Education, training and innovation are central to South Africa’s long-term development. They are core elements in eliminating poverty and reducing inequality, and the foundations of an equal society. Education empowers people to define their identity, take control of their lives, raise healthy families, take part confidently in developing a just society, and play an effective role in the politics and governance of their communities* (2011: 261).

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Additional to identifying the broad significance of education to the country’s growth and development, the NDP highlights foundational learning as the bedrock of a good education system, critical for the continuum from basic education to post school and higher education:

*Foundational skills in areas such as mathematics, science, language, the arts and ethics are essential components of a good education system. … Schools are the building blocks for learning and socialisation. The values learnt at school permeate society. The quality of the schooling system impacts significantly on further education, college, higher education and society’s ability to innovate* (2011: 262).

The NDP stresses the critical nature of ECD to ensure that children reach their full potential. It proposes that to achieve the vision of an enabling education system for economic growth and social upliftment by 2030, attention is needed in a critical education and training sector, including ECD and schooling.

Critically, “teachers are central to education and teaching should be a highly valued profession” (2011: 265). Further,

... *teachers have the most direct, sustained contact with students, as well as considerable control over what is taught and the climate of learning. It is reasonably assumed that improving teachers’ knowledge, skills and dispositions is one of the most critical steps to improving student achievement* (King & Newman, 2001:86, quoted in Steyn, 2008: 16).

Yet, there is evidence from multiple sources suggesting that South African teachers are under qualified, lack confidence in the knowledge of subjects they teach, and sometimes engage in unprofessional conduct including high absenteeism (Spaull, 2013), and losing significant learning time by “not going to class promptly after break, not going to class at all, not maintaining learning activities during class, and leaving the school during school hours for training, union meetings, funerals and memorial services” (NEEDU, 2012).

The Education, Training and Development Practices (ETDP) Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) Sector Skills Plan (SSP) Update for the ECD sector for 2013/14 highlights that many of the practitioners teaching the 0-4 age group have low levels of formal education. In various small scale studies that have been done on the sector, which does not have large scale studies to provide national overviews, most practitioners do not have a matric qualification, but have high school education, and they struggle to meet the demands of a level 4 or 5 qualification (ETDP SETA, 2013).
In recent years the numbers of unqualified and under-qualified teachers in the South African public schooling sector has dropped significantly, though some teachers still teach in subjects that they were not trained to teach. Unfortunately, poor teacher quality has also been as a result of a poor initial teacher training system. The Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) review of 22 Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) courses revealed that the courses were of varied quality, with most historically black institutions’ programmes evaluated as very weak and needing reaccreditation. Some of the programmes reviewed had weak design, poor staffing, and poor arrangements for students for teaching practice (CHE, 2010).

The phenomenon of unqualified and under-qualified teachers is associated with poor subject knowledge. Several research studies and evaluations have highlighted that some South African teachers know very little about the subjects that they teach. In the SACMEQ III evaluation conducted in Grade 6 language and mathematics in 2007 (DBE and SACMEQ, 2010), among 14 countries, South African teachers performed poorly in both maths and language. In the reading test, teachers performed poorly in questions that required higher order cognitive ability, faring better in questions that required straightforward inferences.

Exploration and analysis have been done to show that teachers struggle with teaching content in science at secondary level (Jita & Ndlanie, 2009; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999), and in business studies (Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfuor, 2009). Some of the difficulties that teachers face regarding content are as a result of curriculum reform, when new topics are introduced into the curriculum that teachers are not equipped to teach, and they feel anxious about whether they have adequate content knowledge to teach the new topics effectively (Ramnarain and Fortus, 2013; Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfuor, 2009). These studies suggest that subject matter expertise is an important area for teacher development.

The Department of Basic Education’s (DBE) Vision 2025 recognises the centrality of teachers in achieving educational outcomes: Goals 14 – 17 directly relate to teacher recruitment, supply, conduct and conditions of service (DBE, 2011):

- **Goal 14**: Attract a new group of young, motivated and appropriately trained teachers to the teaching profession every year
- **Goal 15**: Ensure that the availability and utilisation of teachers are such that excessively large classes are avoided.
- **Goal 16**: Improve the professionalism, teaching skills, subject knowledge and computer literacy of teachers throughout their entire career.
• **Goal 17**: Strive for a teacher workforce that is healthy and enjoys a sense of job satisfaction

The *Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (ISPFTED) 2011–2025* outlines the vision for an integrated national plan for teacher development aimed at improving the quality of teacher education in order to improve the quality of teachers, teaching and learning (DBE and DHET, 2011).

Given the policy focus on improving educational outcomes across the whole education system, a focus on teacher professionalism addresses a critical element of efforts to improve the education system. Policy frameworks are discussed in more detail at a later point in the report.

### 5. Teacher professionalisation globally

The brief international literature review in this section focuses on the four key professionalization aspects of ITE, CPTD, teacher licensing and teacher assessment to provide a context through which South Africa’s own practices in teacher professionalization can be ‘benchmarked’. It must be noted that not all projects described have been evaluated, so the information can only be used as a broad guide.

#### 5.1 Initial teacher education

All countries rely on initial teacher education to prepare quality teachers to meet the country’s educational outcomes. As such, the pedagogy of ITE is a key subject of interest, with debates and initiatives being mostly around how to best deliver courses to improve efficiency in the educational system. This has caused tensions between teacher educators and employing authorities (Carpenter and Blance, 2003) who believe that teacher education programmes have in the main failed to seamlessly integrate theory at university and teaching practice in schools. Feiman–Nemser corroborates this:

> Conventional programs of teacher education and professional development are not designed to promote complex learning by teachers or students. The typical preservice program is a weak intervention compared with the influence of teachers’ own schooling and their on-the-job experience (Feiman-Nemser, 2001: 1014).

Feiman–Nemser ascribes this poor integration of theory and practice to differences between school and university cultures, where teacher education is located mostly in the university site, which at
times is not aware of school realities. Additionally, the university culture, which promotes and rewards research over teaching, limits lecturers’ dedication to school-based student teacher work to the requirements of the course. For lecturers, investment of time in schools to develop long lasting and beneficial partnerships for producing better teachers does not contribute towards promotion.

On the other hand, in most schools, the fact that teachers’ work is bounded and limited to their own classroom, impedes collaborative activities for teachers to work together for inquiry that will improve their teaching, and consequently that of student teachers when they are in the school. Teachers’ work is also inherently regarded as that of only teaching, with any deviation from this responsibility, for example mentoring student teachers, considered a threat rather than an opportunity for reflective practice which could in turn improve their teaching. These fixed cultures leave student teachers at their mercy, and student teachers have to skilfully negotiate requirements of universities for “explicit and analytical approaches to practice, and discourse which displays these features” and the requirements of schools for “practical and immediate effectiveness in the classroom” (Cope and Stephen, 2001: 913 – 914). The general perception is that teaching practice that is tied to a predominantly university-based course is inadequate in teacher preparation (Smith and Lev-Ari 2005).

The scrutiny on effectiveness of traditional ITE has led most countries internationally, and a few countries in the African region to consider school-based teacher education as an option with the greatest potential to bridge the theory-practice divide in initial teacher education. A key reason in favour of this model is that student teachers spend longer periods in schools and gain more acceptance as part of the system, compared to the short stints in school as part of teaching practice. This sense of acceptance creates better learning opportunities for the student teachers. Dobbins and Mitchell (cited in Carpenter & Blance, 2003) have reported that student teachers in a practicum and those in internships claim to be treated differently by staff in schools, with the latter being more favourable. School-based teacher education has been implemented widely in England, the United States of America (US) and Australia.

Countries that have adopted school based teacher education have used the term partnership to describe a relationship between universities and schools. Callahan and Martin (2007: 137) assert that different forms of school-university partnerships mostly focus on four goals: in-service professional development; pre-service teacher development; revitalizing schools to improve student learning outcomes; and research and practice into improving practice. These partnerships have generated significant research interest with studies focusing on exploring lessons learned from partnerships (Blackwell, 2002); defining roles for the partners, i.e. student teachers, university tutors
and mentors (Haigh & Ward, 2003; Furlong et al, 2000; Edwards & Marquis Gordon, 2006) and defining partnership types and their organization and power relations (Furlong et al, 2000; Furlong et al, 2006; McNamara et al, 2005; Soliman, 2001; Dallmer, 2004; Callahan & Martin, 2007; Sutherland et al, 2005).

School-based teacher education is structured around three sets of relationships: a triadic one and two dyadic ones which are subsets of the triadic relationship. The triadic relationship is between the university lecturers, the mentor and the student teacher; and the dyadic relationships are between the mentor and the student teacher; and between the student teacher and the university lecturers. Most studies focus on the dyadic relationship between the mentor and student teacher more than on the other two relationships (Smedley, 2001: 197). Practically, the triadic relationship largely determines how each of the dyadic relationships work. For example, according to Smedley (ibid: 199), the requirements of the triadic relationship compel mentors to find time to work with the student teacher as well as with the university staff; and university staff, who have to set aside time visiting multiple schools, nurturing their relationship with mentors at multiple schools, and conducting research. The relationships between university lecturers, mentors and student teachers are unequal. This is exemplified in the study by Haigh and Ward (2003), where mentors were asked to discuss an equilateral triangle that mapped out a partnership between student teachers, mentors and university lecturers. The respondents indicated that an equilateral triangle was a poor representation of the partnership, as relations between mentors and student teachers were stronger and closer than those between the university lecturer and student teacher, and the university lecturer and mentors.

The US has instituted Professional Development Schools, which are specially selected best practice schools where student teachers are offered

\[...\] opportunities to observe, practice, and debrief, as well as consult, attend seminars, and reflect with colleagues … help interns to acquire a broad set of understandings and abilities rather than a set of behaviours that ultimately prove inadequate (Darling-Hammond, 1994, cited in Gimbert, 2002: 7).

The impact of school-university partnerships driven by a focus on professional development of the student teachers’ learning is derived from the way these partnerships reposition the school teacher through recognition and legitimating the role of the school teacher in teacher education (Smedley, 2001: 190). In England and Wales, where school-university partnerships were legislated, new roles had to be defined within already existing school-university relationships (Smedley, ibid: 196).
School – university partnerships can be complex, as Furlong et al (2000) show when they postulate three models that emerged in their study of the Models of Teacher Education Project (MOTE) carried out through two national surveys of initial teacher education provision in England and Wales. These models of partnerships, in practice are not mutually exclusive:

- Collaborative partnerships have high levels of integration between the school and university curricula, achieved through joint planning of the teacher education curriculum by mentor teachers and university tutors; higher education institution (HEI) visits to schools to discuss professional issues with the mentor teachers, and joint assessment of student teachers by the mentors and university tutors (2000: 81). The Oxford Internship Scheme best typifies a collaborative partnership (2000: 79).

- Complementary partnership regards “the school and the university or college ... as having separate and complementary responsibilities but there is no systematic attempt to bring these two dimensions into dialogue “ (Furlong et al, 2000: 78). In this collaboration, there is partnership but no integration of university and school-based courses. The student teachers must establish this integration by themselves. Some of the universities in Furlong et al’s study indicated that they adopted this model because of lack of resources resulting from government policy which required the sharing of university budget allocations for teacher training with schools. This meant some universities could no longer afford to send the link tutors to schools and would not see the need to do so since mentor teachers were deemed to be responsible for assessing student teachers.

- In an HEI-led partnership, the higher education institution leads the partnership, sometimes with the help of a few teachers acting as consultants. Schools are utilised as resources for student teacher learning, and the HEI maintains a high degree of quality assurance to ensure that schools are delivering on what was agreed upon with the university or college. The HEI also defines and leads the student teacher’s assessment. The majority of the courses that were evaluated in Furlong et al’s study (2000: 117) were based on a HEI-led model of partnership.

- Separatist partnerships1 are based on a model where the university and the school are seen to be presenting different learning opportunities for the student teacher. Learning by student teachers in the school and at the university is demarcated. In this model, mentoring is shaped by the knowledge base of the school. The student himself/herself will attempt to

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1 The separatist model was formulated in an earlier paper by Furlong et al but does not appear in the 2000 modification of partnership types.
achieve integration between what they are learning from the university and the school. There are no efforts by the university to liaise with the school mentors although there may be expectations that the school mentors will assess the student teachers’ teaching practice.

A key feature of school-based teacher education is the mentor, and the importance of mentoring in teacher education has long been established (Hayes, 2001; Tang & Choi, 2005). Studies on mentoring in school-based ITE explore perceptions of mentoring, for example student teacher evaluations of their mentors’ mentoring (Hudson, 2007), mentors’ perceptions of the teacher education programmes and their roles (Ewart & Straw, 2005; Jones, 2001), relationships between student teachers and mentors (see Hayes 2001, Young et al, 2005), and effective strategies for mentoring (Jonson, 2002; Street, 2004; Tang & Choi, 2005). Studies either analyse mentoring in general, or mentoring in specific subjects, for example mathematics (Hudson, 2007; Hudson & Peard, 2005; Johnston, 2001; Luft & Cox, 2001), and science (Hudson, 2004; Hudson & Skamp, 2003; Hudson, Skamp & Brooks, 2005; Jarvis et al, 2001; Brown et al, 2003).

An insightful aspect about mentoring is provided by Hobson (2002), who explains the division of labour in mentoring and argues that mentoring in schools can end up being a whole school undertaking:

\[\ldots\] mentoring in ITT\(^2\) is undertaken not merely by teachers holding the formal title of ‘mentor’ or (as they are sometimes called) ‘teacher-tutor’ but also by other teachers whose advice and support may be sought or whose teaching and interactions with pupils may be witnessed by student teachers or trainees (Hobson, 2002: 5).

The school context and community are also regarded as critical in assisting with student teacher learning (Maynard, 2000; Street, 2004). Maynard (2000), using the notion of situated learning, concluded that student teachers learn from mentors and school communities. Maynard argues that student teachers who reported that they were denied access to staff rooms did not get opportunities for legitimate peripheral participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991), as it was in the staff room and not just in their relationship with mentors that they were able to access the nuances of the profession and other issues constituting teaching, besides classroom practice. In Street’s study (2004), which made use of interviews and other data sources, student teachers reported that being introduced to learners, the principal and staff, and being provided with a filing cabinet and desk, were all gestures that made them feel accepted in the community of practice (Street, 2004: 13). Communication between the mentors and student teachers, face-to-face and through professional

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\(^2\) Initial Teacher Training (ITT)
journals helped the mentors scaffold the student teachers’ development into competent and reflective teachers (ibid: 15). As the mentoring progressed, student teachers and mentors often engaged in conversations in which they “challenged each other to extend and expand practice” (ibid: 20).

The importance of acceptance in a community of practice is emphasised in a study by Sutherland et al (2005), where student teachers at the University of Sydney working with mentors in schools kept detailed activity notes during school-based experience. They reported that their interaction with teachers in tutorials in schools made them feel an accepted part of the school team, provided them with an opportunity to link theory and practice and appreciate the teaching profession more. Further, they reported that the school provided the space for ‘legitimate peripheral participation’ (2005: 83), during shadowing of teachers, observation of lessons followed by post observation discussions and increased participation when they assisted primary school learners with field exercises.

The above discussion suggests that school based teacher education; school-university partnerships, and mentoring all provide opportunities for the production of better quality teachers. Teacher professionalism is therefore based on the acquisition of theoretical knowledge in the university, and practical knowledge from schools through mentoring and observation of what happens in a natural school setting. However, while most studies extol mentoring as a beneficial process for student teacher learning, a few studies have questioned the benefits of mentoring. A study of mentoring in Norwegian schools by Sundli (2007) has shown how mentors can be imposing on student teachers. In this study Sundli found that mentoring was based on a reward system for conformity, where mentoring was

\[...\text{dominated by mentors’ plans and values, and mentors’ monologues in mentoring conversations with students ...written documents [are used] as a means to evaluate and control the student. Students who fit well are able to interpret the culture, see through the rhetoric and do what is expected. They are given more help and more positive feedback than those who are less able to interpret the culture and act as ‘good teachers.’ The students who manage their mentors by cloning are the ones who get the best marks (Sundli, 2007: 213).}\]

Sundli warns that “if mentoring continues to be an uncriticised mantra for education, it may turn out to be an obstacle to reflective professional teaching rather than an enhancement” (2007: 213). A few other studies have raised caution regarding school based teacher education, highlighting that this model of teacher education may be a failure if the theory and practice elements are poorly
integrated, with no clear tasks given to student teachers to complete in schools (Braund, 2001); mentors do not have good mentoring skills (Keogh et al, 2006), there is poor direction of learning for the student teacher from the mentor, which prevents student teachers from asking questions to enhance their pedagogical understanding (Hagger and McIntyre, 2006).

A useful initiative linked to initial teacher training (ITT) is the UK’s subject knowledge enhancement (SKE) programme, aimed at assisting potential trainees or those in training to enhance their subject knowledge for effective teaching. This programme is available for those wishing to enhance their subject knowledge in physics, chemistry, maths, languages, design and technology and computing. This is a funded programme for programmes lasting eight to 36 weeks and funding is made available by the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL). The minimum funding for eight week long (200 hours of study) programmes is £1 910 and for 36 weeks is £7 340. The funding is paid directly to the provider in the form of a bursary. The SKE programme can be completed prior to the ITT or alongside the ITT (NCTL, 2013).

### 5.2 Teacher induction

Teacher induction programmes in countries such as the US, China, Japan, Australia, Canada, Germany, Belgium, Britain, France, Ireland, Norway, Switzerland, Korea (Howe, 2006), Cyprus, Estonia, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Norway (European Commission, 2010), underscore the significance of providing support to novice teachers to attract better candidates; reduce attrition; improve job satisfaction; enhance professional development and improve teaching and learning. In these countries, there is recognition that the time spent in schools during practicum is not nearly adequate enough to prepare students to become effective teachers. As such, new teachers, after graduating from university or college, work closely with an experienced and competent teacher (mentor) for a specified period of time to learn the ropes and develop enough confidence and expertise to be able to handle their own classes effectively – this avoids the sink or swim situation new teachers are often faced with when there are no support programmes in their early years of teaching.

Induction programmes differ across countries, and while some programmes are driven at local/district level, there are national guidelines for the design, implementation, and assessment of these programmes. For example, a widely cited programme of excellence, the Santa Cruz New Teacher Project, which originated from the University of California, is based on collaboration between the Teacher Education Department at the University of California at Santa Cruz, the Santa Cruz County Office of Education, and over 20 school districts. In 2006 there were 350 mentor
teachers participating in this programme, aimed at support for first and second year beginning teachers. During the two-year induction period, the novice teacher’s needs are addressed through their individualized induction plan specifying goals, specific strategies for achieving those goals, and documentation of progress in meeting those goals. Additionally, novice teachers engage in intensive learning activities to build on their pre-service preparation and develop lifelong learning capabilities. In 2001, this learning was made possible through release time and reduced teaching loads, enabled by a $5,100 allocation for each novice teacher —$3,000 funded from state resources and $2,100 from local sources (Moir, 2001, cited in Rowe, 2006). In the US, some mentors receive training while others do not – North Carolina requires all mentors to have a mentor license.

In England, teacher induction is legislated for all teachers intending to teach in public schools. Induction is for one full school year for teachers working on a full time basis and two years for those working part time. Newly qualified teachers undergoing induction should be given a workload of 90% of the normal teaching load for the post they are in. An induction tutor is appointed by the principal to guide the novice teacher according to an agreed development plan. The novice teacher is assessed according to the Teachers’ Standards. Three assessments need to be completed during the induction period and these are discussed between the induction tutor and the novice teachers. Part of the induction includes being observed and discussing the observation reflectively. If a novice teacher fails their induction, they will not be able to retake it but they can appeal the decision. Consequently, they will not be lawfully recognised as a qualified teacher but they will not lose their university teaching qualification (UK Department for Education, 2013). Local authorities support induction through providing teacher training for induction leaders and the newly qualified teachers.

Induction as a key process of continued teacher learning is closely related to government’s intention to make teaching a Master’s level profession – the Masters in Teaching and Learning is targeted at teachers in the first five years of their careers (Haggarty, Postlethwaite, Diment, and Ellins, 2011).

The European Commission (2010) cites four interlocking systems that ensure the success of induction programmes:

1) A mentoring system, where an experienced teacher who is given the responsibility to assist the beginning teacher from novice to experienced teacher stimulates learning through various means including coaching, training, reflective discussion, counselling and assessment. Mentors usually benefit from the mentoring experience as much as beginning teachers do because mentoring gives the mentor an opportunity to test their own practices by sharing them with another person and discussing these reflectively.
2) An expert system is the opening up of external learning spaces for the novice teacher. This can be in the form of seminars, attending courses being offered outside the school, and creating opportunities where novice teachers can access materials and resources from elsewhere. Within the school itself, working with a whole grade or other teachers and not just the mentor opens a wider reservoir from which novice teachers can tap for their professional development.

3) A peer system brings beginning teachers from one or more schools together and creates network and learning opportunities across schools. Peer groups can also be formed within the same school if it is large and has several novice teachers. Peer groups offer social and professional support based on newness in practice – communities of practice that strive for excellence in teaching and learning are created through the peer system. The peer system can equally be extended to include mentors, as this exposes novices to a larger repertoire of practice from which to draw as they form their own identities as teachers and decide which methods they prefer over others.

4) A self-reflection system enables the novice teacher to reflect on their own practice and provides them with room for personal growth. Novices could have their lessons recorded so that they can watch and reflect on these as a process towards lifelong learning, where one is self-critical in the effort to achieve excellence.

In order for induction programmes to be successful, they need funding; clarity of stakeholder roles; cooperation between various stakeholders and parts of the system; a culture based on learning; and quality management (European Commission, 2010). Regarding funding, mentors and novice teachers are usually allocated a reduced workload to allow opportunities for mentoring and learning, in England the load is set at 90%. This requires that someone else is appointed to teach the novice and mentor’s class. If universities are involved in the induction programmes, perhaps to train mentors, then they ought to get paid as well. Although the costs of induction are very high, and are an inhibitor for many countries, it is argued that the cost of induction will pay for itself in the long term through better retention of teachers and better quality teaching and learning, improved learning outcomes, as well as a more professional teacher workforce which values its role in the reproduction of new teachers through programmes such as induction and other CPTD programmes.

The primary stakeholders in teacher induction include mentors, the new teachers, principals, other teachers in the schools, the districts, provincial and national departments of education, unions, professional bodies and standards setting and quality assurance bodies. Roles and responsibilities
including setting induction policy and guidelines, provision of funding and training, quality assurance, and assessment have to be clearly defined.

Induction needs to be located within the continuum of continuing professional development, and as such, the different systems have to have a common understanding of this system so that induction is framed as such. This includes having sound knowledge of the standards against which the novice teachers are evaluated. If there is an accredited qualification like a Master’s degree as part of CPTD, some of the courses that new teachers engage in during induction can be credit bearing towards such a further qualification.

In order for new teachers and all schools to benefit from the induction process, schools have to have a strong learning culture, which includes

... collaboration leadership of learning, the promotion of a learning environment conducive to learning as well as a view of beginning teachers as an asset to schools. Support to new teachers could include, for example, not allocating the most challenging groups to new teachers, as well as a reduced teaching timetable, etc. The school leader plays a crucial role in creating such a culture (European Commission, 2010: 23).

Certain measures need to be applied to make induction programmes successful:

- The mentors have to be willing and competent. Seniority and years of experience can be limiting factors for selecting a mentor. Mentors who are good communicators, sensitive, passionate about their profession, and open to learning from others would make better mentors than those who are unwilling even if they are senior members of staff.

- Good principals who create a culture of learning within the school and are able to provide resources and communicate the importance of new teachers for the school, and get support from the staff for successful induction to take place.

- Monitoring and evaluation of the induction processes including policies to ensure that they articulate well with developments in the country and within schools, and that any emerging challenges can be addressed for continued improving of the induction programmes.

5.3 Continuing professional development

Continuing professional teacher development has gained currency globally in line with policies aimed at promoting lifelong learning (Fraser, Kennedy. Reid and Mckinney, 2007). Steyn (2009)
highlights that the traditional approach to professional development which included workshops, seminars and conferences has gradually been replaced by longer term professional development initiatives, as the former were ineffective. The traditional methods assumed that teachers’ knowledge and skills could be improved by external consultants. A shift which locates professional development within schools has now established itself, based on an action research paradigm and the belief that long term and sustained professional development which is best practice is more beneficial for teachers. This model provides teachers with opportunities for grade or departmental internal training where the various teachers can recruit from their different understanding and pedagogies to “discuss concepts and skills, observe colleagues, share practice and integrate what they have learnt” (2009: 263). According to Rossouw (2009), this kind of practice is the hallmark of expert teachers:

*The ability, to interpret classroom activity critically, to translate knowledge, wisdom and experience into a form of communication that is compelling and interesting, to identify and solve problems regarding teaching practice and to make thoughtful or reflective instructional and classroom management decisions that are conducive to learning, is a characteristic of expert educators (2009: 1).*

This thinking is in line with the comment by Smylie (1995:92, cited in Timperly et al, 2007) that “We will fail … to improve schooling for children until we acknowledge the importance of schools not only as places for teachers to work but also as places for teachers to learn.”

Importantly, as Green (2008: 2) cautions ‘*continuing professional development programmes should not become slaves to political demand, but should reflect the pedagogical and professional needs of teachers and the changing learning needs of pupils.*’

CPTD is often located within particular contexts, where special programmes are implemented to address specific teaching and learning challenges. For example, England has witnessed several such programmes with a training aspect to train teachers on how to implement the programme. In 1990, the Cognitive Acceleration in Science Education was introduced to improve science grades, and in 1998, the National Literacy Strategy in 1998 to improve the standards of literacy in primary school. Hardy and Rönnerman (2011) have argued that such CPTD endeavours are technicist and aimed at ‘acting on and not working with teachers’ and they do not really promote teacher learning in the sense of getting teachers to reflect on their practice as they are aimed at changing a particular learning area in the curriculum. They advocate for more action research oriented which is inward
looking and allows teachers to reflect on their practice in order to improve it. However, it can be argued that the technicist approach is a precursor to the more reflective one.

To create a culture where teacher learning is a part of reflective lifelong learning, England has developed the concept of “Teaching schools”. Teaching schools are outstanding schools that provide high-quality training and development to new and experienced teachers from other schools, promoting the notion of a school-led system of CPTD. The target is to have 600 teaching schools by 2016. Teaching school status is open to all schools in England provided they have an outstanding rating from the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted), they can provide evidence of successful partnerships, have an outstanding principal with at least three years’ experience, and have a leadership team with a capacity to lead the six core areas of the teaching school role, which are:

- School-led initial training – schools are expected to participate in ITT, recruit and select trainee teachers, and have a teacher development plan including appointment of mentors, quality assurance mechanisms etc.
- CPTD – facilitate school-based professional development, including offering coaching and mentoring and opportunities for school-based research.
- Supporting other schools – providing leadership for intra school support programmes that lead to improvement. This includes identifying priorities in the local area and supporting under performing schools.
- Identifying and developing leadership potential – developing succession planning to identify and develop people who will fill leadership positions in the future.
- Specialist leaders of education – supporting senior and middle leadership recruitment and management.
- Research and development – facilitate evidence based interventions within the network of schools and promote research activities among staff.

Teaching school alliances have two types of funding they can access. There are annual grants paid directly to the school, which is £60 000 in the first year, £50 000 in the second year, and £40 000 in the third and fourth years. Funding is also available for additional specific activities, depending on the cost of the activities. The funding provided is aimed at building the leadership and administrative capacity to build the teaching schools alliance (Gov.UK).

Good examples of continuing professional development of teachers abound in the area of information and communication technologies (ICT), where the concern is with ICT integration. The United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) ICT Competency...
Framework for Teachers (UNESCO, 2011) clarifies that all teacher training should focus broadly on preparing teachers to use technology and to understand how best technology can support student learning, as ICT skills have become integral skills for teachers. Several initiatives on teacher development for ICT integration aimed at supporting roll out of technology infrastructure in education are being driven globally and in Africa. In Australia, Chile, Namibia and Guyana, once-off workshop training in ICT integration has long been abandoned as ineffective and has been replaced with lifelong professional development focusing on at least three dimensions:

1) Pre-service training – integrating technology into the teacher training course to model use of technology and enable student teachers to start thinking about, and if they get the chance during teaching practice, design lessons that make use of technology.

2) In-service training – using structured workshops, seminars, short courses, and peer collaboration in communities of practice where exchange of ideas takes place and support is offered on how to integrate technology into teaching. In these structured activities and processes, teachers’ skills in the use of technology in the classroom are developed.

3) Enduring formal and informal pedagogical and technical support for teachers as they engage with technology for teaching and learning can create opportunities to connect teachers to colleagues, mentors, curriculum experts, and the global teacher community, breaking the traditional confinement of teachers within the four walls of their classroom (Carlson and Gardio, 2002).

The same dimensions are applicable for focusing the aspects integral to building teacher professionalism. Every stage of the teacher development process should be looking to inculcating teacher professionalism so that subsequent stages build on what has been developed in earlier stages.

### 5.4 Teacher licensing

As already stipulated, all countries rely on their teachers to produce excellent educational outcomes among their learners. Teacher quality has been regarded as a condition for positive educational outcomes, and different countries have implemented various measures to ensure teacher quality. In countries like the United States (not all states, in 2001, according to Mitchell et al (2001) 42 states administered licensure tests), Australia and New Zealand, a teacher qualification is not an adequate indication of teacher quality, additional testing is conducted before teacher certification or licensing is granted. In 2012, the US highlighted that the tests used for teacher certification in the past were too easy and based on testing of theoretical knowledge, which did not really test ability to be able to teach. These tests were put under review, and a new test which tests pedagogical skills has been piloted, to be implemented fully from 1 May 2014. Candidates’ teaching will be reviewed for a few
days by a national reviewer, who will pass or fail the candidate. This system is expected to produce more effective teachers (Butrymowicz, 2012). The Labour Party in the United Kingdom (UK) is introducing reforms to relicense teachers so that ineffective teachers can be directed to other professions. This reform is intended to improve the quality of education in public schools, which is perceived to be falling (The Guardian, 11 January 2014).

In New Zealand, full certification is achieved through work experience in school and favourable assessment by a mentor teacher or professional leader. It is the responsibility of beginning teachers to keep a portfolio of “their advice and guidance programme such as lesson observations, professional development, reflections and any other relevant material. All lesson observations should be dated and signed clearly by the observer and teacher, who may add clarifying comments” (New Zealand Teachers Council website).

The ability to prove yourself in a classroom is clearly regarded as an important measure of teacher quality. In France, new teachers are paired with an experienced senior teacher for two years; in Germany, new teachers are required to complete two years of student teaching and complete a second examination on teaching ability and classroom performance. Additionally, new teachers have “a reduced class schedule, participate in observation and assisted teaching opportunities, and receive regular professional development” (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2006: 12). Japan imposes a compulsory yearlong induction after a teacher qualification has been awarded – the induction includes “school-based mentoring for a minimum of 90 days, lectures and practical training sessions for at least 30 days, and a nine-day retreat at regional professional development centers” (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, ibid). Clearly, for these countries, a significant component of teacher certification is extended exposure in the classroom under the guidance of expert professionals. Registration or licensing with the relevant body is an important path towards professionalism and entry into a teaching post.

### 5.5 Teacher assessment

The desire by many countries to develop quality teachers to improve learning outcomes has led to the development of teaching standards. Teaching standards are used to support the improvement of teacher performance; certify teachers who are new to the teaching profession or who have attained a certain status as teachers; assess teacher performance; and evaluate and accredit teacher training institutions. Standards can be generic and specific, with generic standards describing broad principles and practices of teaching, and specific standards doing the same for specific learning areas. Standards in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries
focus on three areas of teaching practice: disciplinary knowledge; pedagogic practice; and values and professional teaching practice. Standards development is based on either forward mapping (policy to practice) or backward mapping (from practice to policy). Standards are generated by accreditation bodies, and in some instances e.g. the US, teachers are involved in the process. For validity purposes, suggestions have been made that teachers be involved in standards setting and that standards are developed from empirical research on teaching practices that have an impact on learning. Table 1 maps out institutions responsible for developing standards in selected OECD countries. The table shows that mostly the expertise that goes into developing standards comes from those with expertise in the area of teacher education.
Table 1: Responsibility for teaching standards development in OECD countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Institution responsible for standards development</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>Since 2012, Department for Education (this was formerly a responsibility of an independent body: the Training and Development Agency for Schools)</td>
<td>Equivalent to the Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)</td>
<td>Independent non-for-profit institution with neither political party nor central government links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)</td>
<td>Independent institution of 34 organisations that includes teachers’ groups, curriculum discipline specialists, state and local institutions. It is recognised by the Department of Education as an organisation that can certify teacher training suppliers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC)</td>
<td>A consortium of state agencies and national organisations that provide teacher training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Centre for Educational Studies (Centro de Estudios Educativos CEE)</td>
<td>An independent centre that developed standards on behalf of the central government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AISTL)</td>
<td>Public and independent body funded by the Australia Government and the Minister for School Education, Early Childhood and Youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>Ministry of Education (for generic standards) University of Chile and the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile (specific standards for recently graduate teachers in different subjects)</td>
<td>General standards developed by the Ministry with inputs from the teachers professional organisation, and Chilean Association of Municipalities Specific standards for graduate teachers developed by these universities on behalf of the Ministry of Education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In many countries, national education authorities control the assessment of standards. Table 2 highlights characteristics of standards assessment in selected countries. Some assessment leads to no consequences, while good performance in some assessments leads to rewards in salary increments.

Some criticism has arisen on the fragmented nature of different educational standards. The Centre of Study for Policies and Practices in Education (CEPPE), Chile, states that standards for learning, teaching and leadership are usually designed by different bodies or institutions. They advise that seeking alignment across these three areas is useful, as it provides validity of measurement of outcomes in a holistic manner. In some instances, it is also important to align school-based standards with teacher education standards, and those highlighted in teacher education policies. Developing standards is a long process that needs careful coordination, making sure the views of all stakeholders are incorporated in drafts during the process. When stakeholders, for example teachers participate, this will enable them to give authentic input and reality into the development of standards, and they will also buy into the developed standards, contrary to if standards are developed without their input and imposed on them.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Main purpose of assessment</th>
<th>Consequences:</th>
<th>Instrument:</th>
<th>Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Victoria (A)</td>
<td>License teachers at the beginning of their careers.</td>
<td>High stakes assessment. If the teacher fails, he or she will be unable to practice.</td>
<td>Presentation of evidence generated with help of the school.</td>
<td>Victorian Institute of Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.C. (C)</td>
<td>License teachers at the beginning of their careers. Accreditation of initial teacher training programmes.</td>
<td>High stakes assessment. A teacher cannot practice if he or she graduated from a non-accredited programme or if the Teachers’ Union considers that he or she does not meet the standards.</td>
<td>Performance assessment for new teachers or evidence provided by teacher training programme. Expert panel for review of teacher training programmes.</td>
<td>British Columbia College of Teachers. Association of British Columbia Deans of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>To assess performance of teachers working in public schools. Assess disciplinary and pedagogic knowledge of new teachers.</td>
<td>Consequences for teachers: monetary incentives in-service training, dismissal Consequences for institutions: published results of graduates.</td>
<td>Standardised tests, portfolios, videos of lessons, peer assessment Paper and pencil tests, performance assessment of ICT skills.</td>
<td>Ministry of Education commissions a university for the implementation of the assessments (presently the Catholic University through Mide-UC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>NBPTS: Certification of accomplished teaching Dependent on state policies.</td>
<td>Dependent on state policies.</td>
<td>Standardised tests administered by each state Inspection. Evidence collected by the institution.</td>
<td>National Board for Professional Teaching Standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NCATE: Licensing teacher training programmes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NCATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>Certifying teachers at the beginning of their careers, (according to state standards) Licensing accomplished teachers (using NBPTS standards)</td>
<td>High stakes assessment. If the teacher fails, he or she will be unable to practice (state standards) (NBPTS tests and state standards), portfolio (NBPTS).</td>
<td>Standardised tests (MSAT, CBEST, CSET, PET, etc.) (NBPTS tests and state standards), portfolio (NBPTS).</td>
<td>Commission on Teacher Credentialing National Board for Professional Teaching Standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Certifying teachers at the beginning of their careers</td>
<td>High stakes assessment. If the teacher fails, he or she will be unable to practice.</td>
<td>Standardised tests.</td>
<td>Texas Education Agency and ETS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>Certifying teachers at the beginning of their careers Assessing teachers’ performance Supervising teacher education quality and accrediting teacher education institutions.</td>
<td>Consequences for teachers: High stakes assessment. If the teacher fails, he or she will be unable to practice. Monetary incentives Consequences for institutions: Special measures or closures for initial teacher training institutions</td>
<td>Standardised tests of basic skills (administered by a Pearson Professional Test Centre on behalf of the Department for Education). Portfolios, observations (applied within teacher training institutions and supervised by Ofsted or through the process of accreditation).</td>
<td>The Department for Education, specifically the National College for Teaching and Leadership (merging the Teacher Agency and the National College for Teaching and Leadership) School principals assess teachers in schools. The Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills (Ofsted) evaluates ITT institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Promoting improvement in teacher performance</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Self-assessment, co-evaluation and multiple evaluation</td>
<td>Colleagues, principals, supervisors, advisers in pedagogical use of ICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Provisional and full registration of teachers at the beginning of their careers Performance assessment of teachers.</td>
<td>High stakes assessment. If the teacher fails, he or she will be unable to practice.</td>
<td>Assessment by teacher training institution or the school (in the case of currently practicing teachers)</td>
<td>Teacher training institutions, principals and other educational leaders in agreement with the New Zealand Teachers Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Evaluation of past and current teacher professionalisation in South Africa

6.1 Initial teacher training in South Africa

Initial teacher education (ITE) and in-service teacher professional development have the potential to develop teacher subject knowledge and disposition to produce an effective and professional teaching workforce. However, evaluative studies have found the quality of courses in SA somewhat problematic, with problems identified ranging from divergences in assessment practice, time allocated to various components of the course, and teaching practice. In discussing some challenges of ITE in South Africa, a caveat is necessary – the examples provided in this discussion may be dated, and may not be reflective of recent developments in ITE in all institutions where the highlighted studies were conducted. Interviews conducted for this study have indicated that there is more space for regular investigation into the quality of ITE programmes across South African universities.

Considering assessment practice, a 2006 study of three HEIs found variations in the assessment practices for the same courses. At one of the institutions, assignment marks did not count towards the final mark, and examinations only were the measure for success. At the Universities in KwaZulu-Natal and the Free State, assessment was more complex, with assignments contributing a percentage towards the final mark, and the summative assessment also constituting a portion of the final mark. At both these institutions, assessment also included use of reflective journals (CEPD 2009, cited in Bot, 2013).

In relation to time allocated for various components of courses, Zimmerman, Howie and Long (2008, cited in Bot, 2013), found discrepancies between various institutions in a cross-sectional survey of the Foundation Phase literacy programmes for the BEd degree at eight HEIs. The number of modules and semesters for the preparation of student teachers to teach reading literacy varied, implying that newly-qualified teachers received varying levels of exposure to and experience in the teaching of reading. This signals a lack of regulation of time allocation in programmes, which may produce teachers who are ill-prepared to teach reading when they get to schools.

Teaching practice is regarded as a significant component of ITE. However, with South Africa’s educational inequalities, the quality of exposure of student teachers at various schools is varied, and sometimes poor. Ramadiro and Porteus (2008: 46, cited in Bot, 2013) observe that
Almost overwhelmingly, the so-called experts... do not really know, for themselves, how to manage the complexity of large classrooms, hungry learners, multilingual language acquisition... and content knowledge in text-, stability- and food-poor environments.

This observation is corroborated by Morrow et al (2004, cited in Bot, 2013) who notes that teaching practice ‘is based on a theory of learning by modelling an expert practitioner, but expert practitioners are in short supply in our context’. While the issue of good practitioners who can model good practice to student teachers is a challenge, another impediment to student teacher learning in schools is that teachers are happy to have a student teacher especially in a crowded classroom. They see the student teacher more as a helper than as a novice intending to learn from them. In this regard, there is more helping than learning for the student teacher. Further, some teachers are not well prepared to work with student teachers in a developmental manner. Mawoyo (2010) provides an analysis of student teacher learning in private, ex Model C, and township schools in South Africa in a school-based ITE programme implemented by the ETDP SETA in 2002. Her study was located in 29 schools in four provinces, and data analysis involved interviews with 33 mentors and 37 student teachers. Mawoyo found that in some schools, mentors were able to construct a privileged repertoire, enabling student teachers to access what it is to be a good teacher. However, in others, mentors could not construct ‘best practice’ and consequently, student teachers were also unable to do so. Mentors who could construct a privileged repertoire understood that mentoring involved explicating and modelling good practice.

Programme design in ITE has been a subject of interest for teacher educators, and some commonalities for sound programme design for ITE have emerged, summarised in Watson (2013) as follows:

- Coherence and integration – Darling-Hammond (2012, cited in Watson, 2013) identifies key features of a coherent course as proper sequence, informed by a strong theory of pedagogy, with different course components intersecting and linked together to provide a broad view of the ‘landscape of learning’. There should also be a purposeful selection of schools and classrooms that model good practice, with stronger integration of roles between university faculty, teacher trainees and schools. Such integration could entail supervising faculty members might go into schools and teach both students and teachers. This way, universities would benefit more from teachers’ knowledge base and equally, teachers would refresh their subject knowledge and keep up with pedagogic and policy developments through interaction with university faculty.
• Bridging theory and practice – Darling-Hammond (ibid) proposes that the teaching practice component of the ITE should be intensive and extensive (about a year long to enable the student teacher multiple opportunities to apply theory into practice), should be supervised, and should be based on good modelling by expert teachers who incorporate use of dynamic pedagogic methods in diverse classrooms. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) research also highlights this feature of ITE, adding that the school practice can also give opportunities for student teachers to conduct research on teaching and learning (OECD, 2011, cited in Bot, 2013).

• School/university partnerships – Relationships between schools and universities in ITE should be able to transform both institutions. In developed countries, the establishment of professional development schools (PDS), lab schools and school reform networks has provided evidence that these can be highly beneficial for beginning teachers.

Additional characteristics that should inform the design and implementation of ITE are proposed in the OECD research (2011, cited in Bot, 2013), which highlights the importance of profiling of teacher knowledge and pedagogy in specific subjects as well as the development of reflective skills among teacher trainees. Developing specific profiles can provide guidance to initial teacher education, teacher certification, teacher evaluation and ongoing professional development and career advancement. Inculcating skills in reflective practice enables teachers to be more critical of their practice and use the classroom as a site for action research to improve practice and improve learner outcomes (OECD, 2011, cited in Bot, 2013). If student teachers are placed in a learning school, where teaching and learning are open and there are opportunities for reflecting on practice, then the school and the university could mutually benefit by recruiting each other’s repertoires. Student teachers can provide feedback to universities on realities of schools and their knowledge base, while schools would benefit from the knowledge being brought from university by the student teacher.

Du Toit (2011) is critical of ITE curriculum design in South Africa, arguing that although it was positive that the HEQF review of 2009 led to the redesign of programmes, this redesign has been limiting. In most cases it has centred on merely conforming to policy prescripts.

*The outcome of such an approach to curriculum design is a teacher-training programme with the emphasis on the implementation of the curriculum of the day instead of a professional teacher-education programme with the emphasis on the education of professionals who will be able to interpret, design and implement any curriculum. The challenge is thus to redesign teacher education programmes, in particular the BEd programme, in order to address the challenges of education in South Africa and to ensure*
that the design of these programmes is fostered within a theoretical framework conceptualised from a “pure” curriculum perspective (Du Toit 2011: 108, emphasis not in original).

Several interventions have been implemented within ITE for the professionalization of teachers, including curriculum reconceptualization to design curricula that provides teachers with the content knowledge and pedagogic skills to be able to think act and behave reflectively in their teaching. This has included involving communities of practice in curriculum redesign. For example, the reconceptualization of the B Ed programme at the University of the Free State involved wider consultation among stakeholders including other schools of education (du Toit 2011). In this regard, this university acknowledged the professionalism of colleagues working in the field of teacher education to provide input on their course redesign.

Curricula have also worked to expose teachers to the realities of South African schooling. Those working in teacher education have concluded that teaching practice is in crisis, in that although schools are willing to accommodate ITE students, school related factors like “poor management, non-existent timetables, lack of staff and non-mentoring” negatively affect the teaching practice of student teachers (du Plessis, 2013). However, recognition of these limitations and the ability to resolve resource challenges is a strong element of professionalism that can be inculcated in a teacher education course, as illustrated in the case of the UKZN PGCE course implemented from 2003. In this programme, the university developed partnerships with two ‘deeply’ rural schools, where students were supported by the university to develop the concept of the Outdoor Classroom for their experiential learning, to solve the challenge of resource shortages at the schools. In this regard, student teachers were taught to see the potential and not the hurdles. As part of their preparation for the extended experiential learning, a field trip to a rural school was arranged early in the year of the programme for students to

... spend time with the teachers, the principal, key people in the community – members of the governing body, and learners in order to come to some understanding of barriers to learning, but more particularly through practice to gain insight into what can be done when teachers, communities and learners are motivated and have a commitment to an organisational culture that supports hard work, expected achievement and acknowledged success (Pennefather, 2008: 85).

The partnership with the schools includes exposing student teachers to teaching large classes, and teaching these classes when teachers have gone for workshops. The visits were planned to coincide
with workshops. Additionally, the partnership was also meant to enhance collegiality between the students and the teachers, and as part of the school visit, students prepared packs with “researched information on career guidance/ bursaries, the writing of CVs based on the requests which learners have already communicated to them. ... exemplar exam papers in relevant subjects, worksheets, textbooks etc.” (Pennefather, ibid). In compiling these resource packs students are developing “their own teacher roles and competences as well as developing a deepened understanding of context and agency.”

The university trained mentors before students went for the school placement. Student teachers were also specifically prepared for the other roles they would play in the school besides teaching, such as pastoral roles they would need to play, because of the deep poverty in the rural areas in which they were being placed. During the extended teaching practice, students lived in the communities where the schools were located, and this helped challenge the deficit ideas they initially held about these schools. The long distance of the schools from the universities also enabled tutors and assessors to spend a considerable amount of time in the schools when they went to advise and assess students. This strengthened their sense of belonging in the community of practice. The UKZN PGCE course led to a number of partnerships initiated by student teachers, for example a Golden Key partnership was formed to assist a school with resources. The partnership between UKZN and the schools in this project was mutually beneficial, with the university providing student teachers better opportunities to integrate theory and practice, and schools being provided the opportunity for student teachers to develop their own knowledge. Teachers also had access to university resources, professional development opportunities, and information on new courses. At the time of publication of Pennefather’s paper, a ‘significant’ number of the teachers from the partner schools had enrolled for B Ed and ACE courses.

The limited examples provided here highlight that ITE can be used as a powerful tool to promote teacher professionalism, and is the key foundation for quality teaching in any system.

6.2 Continuing teacher professional development (CPTD)

South Africa has witnessed 20 years of educational and curriculum reform. Curriculum reform in particular exerts pressure on teachers and tests their knowledge and skills to teach what is expected from curriculum change. The National Policy Framework on Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) gazetted in 2007 mandated SACE to have overall responsibility for the implementation, management and quality assurance of the CPTD management system. SACE would be provided with the necessary resources and support to undertake that role. The professional development
(PD) points would be employed in line with an “internationally recognised technique used by professional bodies in many fields to acknowledge their members for continuing professional development. The implementation of the CPTD expected each teacher to earn a target number of PD points in each successive three-year cycle through embarking on a variety of professional development activities of their choice, endorsed by SACE.

The report on the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (2005) that led to the gazetting on the NPFTED was completed in 2004, and since then, the following developments have taken place:

- Establishment of the CPTD Unit at SACE
- Development of the CPTD Design Document – Version 13A (approved by the SACE Council and the Council of Education Ministers)
- Development of the CPTD Information System (CPTD-IS), an ICT system managed by SACE that serves as the administrative and information hub of the CPTD Management System
- Research Study on Teacher Development Practices in 36 schools in Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, and Western Cape (undertaken by CPTD for the Task Team)
- Information Pack on the CPTD Research Study as advocacy material
- Draft CPTD Endorsement Handbook (approved by the SACE Council)
- CPTD management system Handbook (simplifying and replacing the design elements of Version 13A) (approved by the SACE Council)
- CPTD Pilot in 13 districts and 145 schools in all 9 provinces, supported by all Provincial Education Departments
- Pilot endorsement of providers’ professional development activities
- Amendments to the SACE Act to reflect SACE’s responsibility for the CPTD management system and to permit funding of SACE from the fiscus (SACE and DBE, 2012).

SACE’s role in CPTD was strengthened considerably from that of promoting in-service professional development (SACE Act, no 31 of 2000, Section 5 (b) (iv)) to “[managing] a system for the promotion of the continuing professional development of all educators” in terms of the Basic Education Laws Amendment Act of 2011. This is a difficult undertaking, as part of it involves
establishing the correlation between teacher professional development and learner outcomes (SACE and DBE, 2012) as SACE does not have the mandate to evaluate the efficacy of the training of teachers. Further, an undertaking of this nature would require rigorous research methodology like randomised control trials, to attribute causality to teacher professional development. Further, the SACE Council regards learning outcome improvement as only one goal of CPTD, with the others being “the inculcation of appropriate attitudes and values, the holistic development of both learners and teachers, and improvements in teaching and in the entire experience of schooling” (SACE and DoE, 2012: 12). SACE also has quality assurance powers in that it has to approve providers.

The Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD) research on the pilot of the CPTD programme (2008, cited in SACE and DBE, 2012) highlighted that the pilot had been rushed, with improper advocacy and communication about the programme. Teachers who were interviewed for this pilot perceived the Departments of Education as the providers of training. Results of this evaluation made SACE conclude that another pilot was needed, and this was implemented in 2009. The evaluation of this pilot indicated that the Western Cape pilot was the most successful one and provided lessons on the characteristics of successful CPTD implementation:

- **Provincially appointed and paid full-time resource persons doing the detailed work (not teachers);**
- **Regular meetings of the Provincial Pilot Coordinating Committee (PPCC) with detailed reporting on the progress of the pilot, and very strong lines of communication between province and SACE CPTD Task Team;**
- **Good communication between district pilot coordinator/s and provincial pilot coordinator;**
- **A provincial pilot coordinator who is focused on the leadership of the process, as well as monitoring, collecting feedback in a variety of ways, and putting in place measures to deal with unexpected occurrences;**
- **Careful reporting of feedback from the piloting process (SACE and DBE, 2012: 29).**

What the pilot evaluations show is that CPTD in South Africa is based on collaboration between multiple stakeholders including SACE, teacher unions, and provincial departments that have worked well together in the implementation of CPTD. The devolution of responsibilities during implementation have led to successful models of implementation, e.g. the Western Cape’s Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI) which has been associated with improvement in learning outcomes in both reading and maths in the annual provincial tests; Gauteng’s SciBono Centre, and
the Maths and Science Teacher Education College (MASTEC) in Limpopo. These models are regarded as successful because of their intensive block release (two to nine weeks), in which teachers are at the institutions training while substitute teachers take their classes (NEEDU, 2012). In 2014, SACE is starting the roll-out of a new CPTD system for professional teachers, which addresses school leadership and management in the first year of roll-out (www.sace.org.za).

While CPTD has largely been seen as a provincially-driven undertaking, there have been other CPTD initiatives driven by non-governmental organisations, for example the South African Institute for Distance Education, and teacher education providers. Most of these undertakings have been in response to education reform policy and have been aimed at improving teacher professionalism through a focus on content knowledge and pedagogy. Ono and Ferreira (2010) indicate that in the early years of implementation of curriculum 2005, the cascade model was the preferred modality as a few trainers would be trained to in turn go and train other teachers. This method’s weakness is that sometimes by the time the knowledge is cascaded down to the teachers in the school, it will be watered down. As more curriculum reform in education was introduced, other modalities of CPTD began to emerge, including communities of practice driven through clusters.

Clusters have become an important aspect of CPTD among South African teachers. Clusters are groups of teachers, usually from the same circuit and within close proximity to each other, who organise to get together to share and discuss, and reflect on their practice. Clusters are based on the notion of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger 1998). Research on effectiveness of these clusters is still limited, and studies that have explored this matter have had mixed findings about the efficacy of clusters, with some studies lauding these initiatives as effective and others accusing implementation and governance structures as impeding their efficacy.

Jita and Mokhele (2012) whose study was based on an exploration of the efficacy of Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative (MSSI), implemented from 2003-2007, in changing teachers’ knowledge and practice in science and maths education. The study was based on analysis of interview data from 10 provincial officials, 15 clusters and a survey of 120 cluster leaders. Jita and Mokhele draw on Hargreaves’ notion of “contrived collegiality” to show that when clusters are not free of government administrative interference, they become less effective. This is because there is regulation of teacher collaboration by district or by other government officials who force teachers to attend collaboration meetings and drive and direct the meetings; they focus attention on discussion of implementation of the curriculum, even though teachers may not want to discuss this; and select a location which suits them regardless of what the teachers may feel about such a venue.
The largest three teacher unions have established professional development institutes. One example is that of the South African Democratic Teacher’s Union (SADTU) which established the Curtis Nkondo Professional Development Institute (SCNPDI) in 2009 as an independent entity, with professional development focused on six areas: teacher development for curriculum implementation; management development; event on professionalisation of teaching including conferences; creating education dialogues; conducting research and evaluations; and offering training on systems and planning. SCNPDI has adopted a comprehensive district based approach to professional development. Much of the funding for union-based professional development initiatives comes from government, based on a 2012 agreement between the Teacher Unions and the national and provincial education departments.

6.2.1 CPTD and career pathing

The biggest challenge to CPTD in South Africa currently is that of limited career path options, as career pathing is only currently recognised through a management and leadership career pathway. Because of this, many teachers pursue CPTD aimed at advancing their careers towards leadership positions and not focusing on improving their teaching. A discussion document has been developed within the National Teacher Education and Training Committee, which aligns recent developments on career pathways for educators with qualification pathways to show the range of choices now available for educators at different levels for different developmental needs. This alignment is based on Collective Agreement 1 of 2008 – the framework for the establishment of an occupation specific dispensation, and MRTEQ. However, at the current time, the specialised school-based teaching and learning career pathways have not yet been implemented in the system. This career pathing could be an extremely important way of supporting the professionalization of teachers, and the development of teaching standards would link strongly with the implementation of this system (Interview with Dr Whitty Green, Acting Chief Director: Teacher Education, Department of Higher Education and Training).

6.3 Teacher registration

The provision for the registration of teachers is made in Section 21 of the South African Council for Educators Act, 2000 which requires that all teachers must register with SACE in order to be employed for a teaching post (SACE, no date). Currently, the requirements for registration are a teacher education qualification. Discussions currently underway about a formal induction programme for novice teachers would require a more complex system of registration, involving provisional registration until completion of a formal induction programme.
6.4 Teacher assessment

The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) is a result of a merger of three separate evaluative programmes, the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS), the Performance Measurement System and the Whole School Evaluation. IQMS is intended to enable teachers to peer assess each other so as to identify areas of weakness and embark on CPTD to improve these areas. While this objective links well with a vision of building quality teachers to improve learning outcomes, the IQMS has experienced implementation challenges in many provinces, including slow implementation, poor advocacy of the initiative at national level, once off professional development, poor leadership in schools from principals, and lack of capacity to implement it in schools. Studies exploring the implementation of IQMS in different provinces, e.g. in Mpumalanga by Queen-Mary and Mtapuri (2014), and in the Pinetown district in KwaZulu Natal (Nombela et al, 2010) reveal that the training for IQMS was inadequate and implementation was rushed. Further, the lack of understanding by some teachers of the purposes of IQMS made principals use it as a weapon to threaten teachers in relation to salary increments. In this regard, respondents felt that financial reward should be uncoupled from the IQMS system, as the focus then becomes money/salary rather than professional development. Teachers also questioned the validity of the evaluation and the competence of those evaluating them.

Overall, while the intentions of the IQMS seem to have been sound and aimed at promoting teacher professionalism, it appears that there have been systemic challenges and the professionalism of South African teachers to implement the system has been questioned. Any attempts at teacher professionalization through teacher assessment will have to involve re-thinking the teacher appraisal system. De Clercq (2008) suggested that two systems for teacher evaluation were required:

an external standardised system (which can monitor educator performance across the system) and a district-moderated school-based developmental and performance appraisal system, which relates to the national system but is contextual and is backed up by more effective appraisers and support capacity.

De Clercq argues that the legitimacy of appraisal will be enhanced if it is supported by adequate resources and capacity, and it considers teachers’ contexts and their needs. Intervention also ought to be focused on professional communities of learning, and not individual teachers. Good departmental and school leadership is also required to mediate the complex demands of teacher assessment.
Further evaluation of the teacher appraisal system is reflected in the ISPFTED, which suggests the decoupling of “teacher appraisal for purposes of development from appraisal for purposes of remuneration and salary progression” (DBE & DHET, 2011: 1). The ELRC has been tasked with streamlining and rebranding the IQMS in response to the concerns that have been raised about it.

This process has resulted in a draft collective agreement currently under discussion for a Quality Management System (QMS), the purpose of which is to strengthen the co-ordination of different quality management systems, avoid duplication, define relationships between programmes and strengthen accountability. The QMS will be a performance management system for school-based educators, incorporating clear roles and responsibilities for educators; setting out the basis for decisions on rewards, benefits and incentives; addressing how decisions will be made about performance and setting out the context for assessments to take place. The QMS will incorporate general competencies and standards for all teachers at different levels (Interview with Mr Themba Kojana, Acting DDG: Teacher Development, Department of Basic Education).

Other new work on standards development is underway, with the process between the South African Qualifications Authority and the Commonwealth Secretariat in creating a Pan-Commonwealth framework for teachers and school leaders’ professional standards. The main purpose of the proposed Framework is to guide participating countries in defining the basic requirements related to knowledge, pedagogical skills and personal attributes that teachers and school leaders must demonstrate in order to achieve the objectives of education. This was a result of a series of workshops between representatives of the member states. The main purpose of the workshops was to review the current practices and experiences on professional school leaders and teachers’ standards in the countries attending the workshop with the view of developing a methodological framework that could be applied in the broader Commonwealth context. Through this process a draft set of standards has been developed.

A draft set of professional standards for school principals in South Africa has been consulted upon, and is likely to be gazetted for public comment soon, once it has been presented to the Heads and MECs of education departments. The document will fully articulate the role of school principals and the competencies and professional standards required of all school principals. These standards will also link with the new QMS, mentioned above (Interview with Mr Themba Kojana, Acting DDG: Teacher Development, Department of Basic Education).
7. Current and future interventions on teacher professionalisation in South Africa

The discussion of interventions on current teacher professionalisation (Section 6) has shown a disconnected system, where there is little synergy between initial teacher education and continuing professional development. Recent policy frameworks have sought to address this disjuncture through policy and practice. These will be discussed in this section.

7.1 Conceptual framework

In order to understand the trajectory of teacher professionalism, a conceptual framework for mapping pathways and key points of intervention for becoming a teacher, developing as a teacher, practising as a teacher, and progressing as a teacher was developed. This framework is useful in mapping out teacher development as a continuum, and helps frame the thinking on teacher professional development in terms of differentiated levels of progression within a teacher’s life journey. This is critical for the coordination of a professionalization project, as it entails taking teacher professional development which usually takes place in focused and fragmented way, to plan for an integrated thinking of the process from beginning to the end of a teacher’s career. Figure 1 provides an overview of the conceptual framework.
Figure 1: Conceptual framework for teacher professionalisation

This framework accounts for all stages of the teacher professional development process and provides clarity on possible points of intervention to support processes of professionalization. Importantly, the framework articulates with current key policies on teacher training and professional development. These policies are discussed in Section 7.3.

7.2 Theoretical frameworks

Some useful theories have been identified in the literature on teacher professionalization, and two are selected for discussion here as these seem to resonate with current thinking and direction on teacher professionalization in the country.

- Social practice theory, influenced by the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) has been used in conceptualisations of teacher development curriculum and school-based teacher education. It is useful to think of induction into the teaching practice through the notion of legitimate participation in a community of practice. This notion of looking at professional development embeds reflective practice that opens up teachers’ classrooms as
sites for learning, and encourages teachers to research their own practice so as to improve it. Social practice theory is being applied in teacher education in school–university partnerships.

- Complexity theory postulates that:

  ‘systems begin as collections of individual actors who organise themselves and create relationships. These relationships form in response to positive or negative feedback – though a degree of randomness is inarguably involved as well. New structures and behaviours then emerge as the actors act and react to each other’ (Haffeld, 2012: 453, cited in Snyder, 2013: 11).

This description resonates with current teacher professional development conceptualisation mapped out in Figure 1 and 2, and the processes in the implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) and the continuing professional teacher development (CPTD) led by the South African Council for Educators (SACE). It is important to acknowledge the complexity of the professionalization of teachers, and be cognisant that the project is “non-linear and relies on feedback to mould and shape its evolution” and that it “operates on multiple time-scales and levels simultaneously” (Snyder, 2013: 11). To achieve the desired outcome in teacher professionalization,

... the intricate web of different intersecting systems must be better understood and modelled so that pressure may be applied to the system at as many key points, and by as many actors across as many levels, as possible to nudge systems toward desired outcomes. A shift in emphasis is needed away from the analysis of individuals and outcomes to an analysis of processes and a shift in institutional culture toward greater systemic engagement amongst all actors and levels (Snyder, 2013: 13).

Further, implementers must avoid ‘lock-in’ that is, entrenching reform even when it is not working well. Systemic inefficiency ought to be recognised, and alternatives for adaptive management discussed with stakeholders and implemented. This will in the end save money, as problems identified and solved earlier on will avoid wasteful expenditure and lead to much more effective reform.

7.3 Policy frameworks

South Africa has a very supportive policy landscape for teacher development, focusing on both ITE and CPTD.
The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development (ISPFTED), which was a result of the teacher development summit of 2009, views teacher development as a trajectory from recruitment of potential teachers, preparation of new teachers, induction into the world of work, and career-long (continuing) professional learning and development. The primary objective of the plan is to “improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching” (DBE & DHET, 2011: 1, emphasis in original). Four outputs direct the ISPFTED:

- **Output 1**: Individual and systemic teacher development needs are identified and addressed.
- **Output 2**: Increased numbers of high-achieving school-leavers are attracted into teaching.
- **Output 3**: Teacher support is enhanced at the local level.
- **Output 4**: An expanded and accessible formal teacher education system is established.

The ISPFTED highlights that the implementation of the plan will be based on multi-stakeholder collaboration, and the levels of collaboration and the responsible bodies are highlighted in Figure 2.

*Figure 2: Coordinated and coherent system of implementing ISPFTED (DBE & DHET, 2011: 20)*

The two pronged approach to teacher development involves qualification-related CPTD, including the supply of new teachers for all teaching specialisations, led by the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) and non-qualification linked activities that will be led by DBE and provincial education departments (PED). DHET is also required to gather intelligence on teacher supply and demand, and utilisation to plan for supply of relevant training programmes. To support
teacher training, DHET will establish a network of viable, accessible Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs), Teaching Schools (TSs) and Professional Practice Schools (PPSs); and Provincial Teacher Education Committees (PTECs) that will assist to inform enrolment planning for teacher qualification programmes (DBE & DHET, 2011).

The Department of Basic Education is responsible for identifying and addressing the individual and systemic teacher development needs, and the activities that relate to professional development include establishing the National Institute for Curriculum and Professional Development (NICPD) to develop the system for teachers to identify and address their developmental needs. The NICPD will do this through developing content frameworks to describe the content (theory and practice) related to the school curriculum; develop diagnostic self-assessments to determine core functions of teachers; develop continuing professional development courses that are pedagogically sound, content-rich and of a high quality; maintain and develop an ICT platform to support the system, aligned with SACE Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) Management System (DBE & DHET 2011, 5).

The PEDs are the lead agencies responsible for the establishment and development of Provincial Teacher Development Institutes (PTDIs); District Teacher Development Centres (DTDCs); and Professional Learning Communities (PLCs).

The implementation of this plan is premised on collaboration of national departments, including DHET and the DBE, and national coordinating structures – the National Teacher Education and Development Committee (NTEDC); provincial education departments; teachers and teacher unions; teacher education faculties at universities through the Education Deans Forum of Higher Education South Africa (HESA); regulatory bodies including SACE, the Education and Labour Relations Council (ELRC) Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), and the ETDP SETA; districts; schools, school communities and society. The NTEDC is an important structure that monitors the implementation of the ISPFTED. It is broadly representative of all stakeholders and is jointly chaired by the Directors-General of the two national education departments. It is the key discussion forum for issues of teacher education and professional development.

Importantly, the ISPFTED mentions that the importance of development of “specific standards need to be developed that relate to the areas of expertise in which teachers need to specialise” (DBE & DHET, 2011: 15). The policy is explicit on how these standards will be developed:

a. The development of the teacher knowledge and practice standards will take place using a phased approach, starting with identified priorities, namely: numeracy (Foundation Phase –
FP); mathematics (Intermediate Phase – IP, Senior Phase – SP, and Further Education and Training – FET); mathematical literacy (FET); literacy (all first languages for FP); and English first additional language (FP, IP, SP and FET). Over time these will be expanded to include other subjects and professional areas.

b. While the process of developing these standards will be facilitated by the DHET, the actual development will be done by the field of teacher education and by subject experts.

c. Teacher knowledge and practice standards will also be used by the NICPD located in the DBE to inform the development of teacher diagnostic self-assessments, and the development of the content-rich, pedagogically sound short courses for teachers described in Activity 1.2 (Output 1) (DBE & DHET, 2011: 16).

Enablers to the implementation of the plan highlighted in the ISPFTED are:

- Collaboration and coherence in teacher education and development
- A coordinated national system for teacher education and development;
- Adequate time for quality teacher education and development; and
- Sufficient funding for quality teacher education and development (DBE, 2011: 19).

Other critical enablers include evidence based decision making through research and planning, a sound monitoring and evaluation (M&E) system to measure baselines, monitor for adaptive management, and conduct impact evaluations.

Another aspect of professional development provided through policy is ITE, with the revised Minimum Requirements of Teaching Qualifications (MRTEQ), which is aligned with the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF, 2007), providing the minimum competences required of a newly qualified teacher. This policy replaces the Norms and Standards for Educators and requires that all teacher education qualifications be revised so as to comply with the MRTEQ’s requirements by July 2014 (DHET 2011; in Bot, 2013).

The MRTEQ has:

- directed universities to undertake better "professional screening of applicants prior to admission", to be "more selective during admissions processes" and to "give more support once students have been admitted and are in the system" (DHET 2011: 6, in Deacon 2012);
- specified that, as of July 2014, all new teacher graduates will be expected to be able to teach in at least one official language and also be partly proficient (able to converse) in "at least one
other official language (including South African Sign Language) other than English or Afrikaans” (DHET 2011: 16, in Deacon 2012);

- attempted to moderate its minimum specifications with provision for a degree of flexibility in order to both avoid "fragmented", "mechanical" and "mere lip-service" institutional responses and encourage "teacher educators to become more involved in and engaged with curriculum design and policy implementation" and to develop these as focused research areas, in this way linking their teaching to their research (DHET 2011: 6-7, in Deacon 2012); and

- insisted that initial teacher education programmes demonstrate greater awareness of the challenges facing education in South Africa, by deliberately incorporating situational and contextual elements to help teachers deal better with diversity and transformation (DHET 2011: 7, in Deacon 2012).

All these requirements are aimed at improving the quality of preparation for teaching through teacher education programmes.

The MRTEQ makes provision for ‘direct and specific regulations with regard to practical and work integrated learning structures, liaison, supervision and mentoring’ (DHET 2011: 6, in Deacon 2012). There is explicit articulation of the requirements of time students should spend in schools. For the one-year Advanced Diploma in Teaching, the MRTEQ stipulates that students spend between six and eight weeks on supervised school based practice, while for the BEd degree, the requirement is between 16 and 24 weeks over the four year degree. Teaching practice should also be characterised by ‘proper supervision and suitable school placement’ (DHET 2011: 16) and specifications of the minimum and maximum time to be devoted to practice teaching, including learning in-and-from-practice (DHET 2011: 25&28, in Deacon 2012). Drawing on international frameworks, three major areas of required teacher competencies are identified in the policy: professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement. Table 3 reflects the minimum competencies of a beginning teacher as articulated in the MRTEQ (DHET, 2011).
Table 3: Minimum competencies of a beginning teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency areas</th>
<th>Minimum competencies for beginning teachers</th>
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</table>
| PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE   | 1. Possess sound subject knowledge  
2. Know how to teach their subject(s) and how to select, sequence and pace content according to both the subject and learner needs;  
3. Know who their learners are and how they learn, understand their individual needs and tailor their teaching accordingly;  
4. Know how to communicate effectively in general, as well as in relation to their subject(s), in order to mediate learning;  
5. Have highly developed literacy, numeracy and IT skills;  
6. Have knowledge of the school curriculum and be able to unpack its specialised contents and be able to use available resources appropriately, so as to plan and design suitable learning programmes; |
| PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE    | 7. Able to manage classrooms effectively across diverse contexts in order to ensure a conducive learning environment;  
8. Able to assess learners in reliable and varied ways and to use the results of assessment to improve teaching and learning;  
9. Have positive work ethic, display appropriate values and conduct themselves in a manner which befits, enhances and develops the teaching profession; |
| PROFESSIONAL ENGAGEMENT  | 10. Understand diversity in the South African context, in order to teach in a manner that includes all learners and be able to identify learning or social problems and work in partnership with professional services to address them;  
11. Be able to reflect critically, in theoretically informed ways and together with their professional community of colleagues, on their own practice in order to constantly improve it and adapt it to evolving circumstances |

7.4 Stakeholders

As the conceptual framework in Figure 1 showed, and the complexity theory highlighted, teacher professionalization is a complex process involving multiple stakeholders. Table 4 below specifies the role players highlighted in the policy framework and describes their envisaged roles and responsibilities.

The table below shows the pathways to becoming a teacher, developing and practising as a teacher and progressing as a teacher. It attempts to show these pathways in tabular form to identify key points of intervention for supporting teacher professionalization initiatives. It also shows the key role players in the system in relation to the different pathway points. The actors/pathways table below is an attempt to summarise key initiatives as well as possible areas of intervention. The concluding recommendations for consideration by the FLTTT have been distilled from this table and the review that precedes it.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Pathways and key intervention points for becoming a teacher, developing as a teacher and progressing as a teacher</th>
<th>Recruitment into the profession</th>
<th>Preparation-Teacher Education</th>
<th>Recruitment into the school/employment as a teacher</th>
<th>Induction</th>
<th>Immediate work environment</th>
<th>Extended Work environment</th>
<th>Progression</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Key Role-Players</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. TEACHERS/Teacher Unions</td>
<td>Exemplary teachers can become role models to motivate learners they teach to regard teaching as a noble profession. Unions can improve the image of teaching as a profession by making decisions that improve teacher quality and improve the quality of learning for improved learning outcomes. A good image of teaching will attract new entrants committed to the craft.</td>
<td>Teachers can assist in initial teacher preparation as mentors during school-based practice.</td>
<td>Unions can help with promoting codes of conduct and ethics. Teachers with a passion for reproducing the profession can mentor beginning teachers and share their craft with new teachers. Unions can negotiate and play an oversight role on provision of reduced workloads for mentors and beginning teachers in schools.</td>
<td>Unions can advocate, support and encourage teachers to access opportunities to identify and address their development needs. Unions can advocate and support the establishment of professional learning communities (PLCs) and encouraging teachers to participate actively and meaningfully in these.</td>
<td>Union involvement in professional development is crucial for achieving buy-in of members for professional development activities and support for these. Unions can also play an essential supporting role in upholding professional standards, both in relation to the practice of teaching and buying into ethical frameworks and value systems.</td>
<td>Unions can play a crucial support role from employment through providing input on development and progression pathways.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. National Government DHET and DBE, national coordinating structures (NTEDC), and national policy frameworks (ISPFTE) National Treasury Technical Assistance Unit (TAU) Other government departments</td>
<td>The DBE needs to encourage teachers to market teaching as a career option in life orientation lessons. The DBE can offer bursaries dedicated to teaching like the Funza Lushaka bursary programme (to encourage young people who want to be teachers. Second, DHET to ensure adequate supply of teachers for all teaching specialisations. DHET to assist with enrolment planning for new teachers based on evidence based research on need. DHET to provide funding for Current figures of the DHET show that roughly 60% of ITE graduates are being absorbed into the public schooling system. Links between training and absorption need to be addressed. Roles and responsibilities of induction, oversight of induction programmes, assessment and structures need to be clarified—this is currently in the early stages of being discussed in the NTEDC. Evidence based action is necessary between DBE and DHET on addressing the articulation gap. Professional learning communities to create dialogue between schooling and higher education educators in relation to bridging the gap between Coordination and monitoring role that national government plays in supporting other layers of the system – provincial, district, circuit etc. is crucial for the development of local opportunities, and for addressing social problems.</td>
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Table 4: Conceptual Framework - Roles and responsibilities in pathways and key interventions towards teacher professionalisation
| 3. Provincial Departments | Assist government in identifying young people interested in teaching and performing well in school to study at university, and return to their province/region. | In a majority of provinces, teachers are recruited into the province from the HEIs in that province. PEDs are also crucial in providing financial support for teacher education students. | Analysis is being done by DHET to examine teacher uptake and placement in each province. | Any formal induction programme will require provincial support and oversight. PEDs also have to budget for teacher induction so that they provide partial funding additional to what national government is providing. | Advocating the ownership of CPTD by teachers and encouraging teachers to utilise CPTD opportunities available. | Establishment and development of provincial teacher development institutions (PTDIs), district teacher centres (DTDCs) and professional learning communities (PLCs). | Conducting the IQMS process. Mechanisms for the recognition of excellence in teaching need to be in place. |

| 4. Education schools and faculties – universities (and Deans Forum-HESA) | Attracting high performing students with interests and attributes. | Provision of quality ITE with strong work integrated learning component. Work with provinces, DBE and DHET to align enrolment planning with national and provincial needs for new teachers. Mentor training by universities so that student teachers are given adequate school-based support to achieve high quality learning. | Exposure of students to diverse schools during teaching practice to alert them to the different school type options and the realities of schools. | Continue working with teachers in schools to support teacher and student learning during induction. Provide guidance to teachers, districts and new teachers on becoming an expert teacher. | Provision of subject knowledge enhancement courses for teachers already in practice. | Provision of CPTD programmes for teachers, with an option of certified and non-certified courses, and linking courses with the attainment of higher qualifications. | Provision of quality postgraduate qualifications for teachers and school leadership. |

<p>| 5. Regulatory bodies: SACE/ELRC HEQC ETDP-SETA | ETDP SETA can provide funding to study teaching which will attract new entrants to the profession. | HEQC of the CHE has a major role to play in continuing to monitor the quality of teacher education programmes. | SACE registers teachers. SACE can play a more pro-active role in supporting improved | SACE and other regulatory bodies need to consider whether assessment should be part of the licensing process. | SACE promotes and supports teacher development needs. SACE approves and endorses providers | The ISPFTED has tasked ELRC to streamline and rebrand the IQMS and delink teacher appraisal for |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<th>6. <strong>Districts</strong></th>
<th>Recruitment of new entrants to meet local needs.</th>
<th>Supporting teachers in mentoring role through provision of training.</th>
<th>Supporting schools in employing teachers. Manage supply and demand. Address concerns about corruption in appointments and professionalism of appointments processes.</th>
<th>Providing oversight on induction process and training of mentors and student teachers. Can facilitate inter-district alliances through professional learning communities.</th>
<th>Supporting schools to work well, ensuring proper support for teaching through support to schools. Professional communities for teachers to learn and support.</th>
<th>Districts are a critical part of the extended support context of schools. Ensure that districts have and build capacity to provide appropriate support to schools.</th>
<th>Participate in IQMS process.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. <strong>Schools</strong></td>
<td>Schools where good teaching takes place play an important social role in supporting role modelling of good teaching.</td>
<td>Importance of understanding school realities, and needs of new teachers when entering schools and being adequately prepared for first few years of teaching.</td>
<td>Schools are crucial for providing a structured and supported entrance to the profession for novice teachers. Investigation may also be necessary into the phenomenon of teachers teaching in areas they are not trained and qualified for.</td>
<td>The key actor in teacher induction is the school and how induction is formalised, supported and implemented, if at all. “apprenticeship” and “mentoring” and the role of senior teachers are critical. Mentoring as a formal part of the induction system.</td>
<td>Collegiality. Working environment within the school. Expectations of schools for teacher professionalism. Important role of schools in supporting CPD. Professional learning communities at school are also important.</td>
<td>Strong school communities nurtured by the school itself will assist in providing a supportive and accountable environment for developing teacher professionalism.</td>
<td>Retaining good teachers as professional teachers, without necessarily losing to the management layer. Dual career pathing model exists in agreement but has not yet been implemented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <strong>School communities</strong></td>
<td>Example that schools set through fostering professionalism can encourage teaching as a meaningful and critical profession.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>School communities are critical for holding actors responsible for improving the conditions within which schooling takes place and hence the conditions within which teachers work.</td>
<td>Parental involvement in schools is essential for strong functioning and for holding teachers accountable. Wider social conditions impact significantly on schools and on teaching. Poverty and associated challenges seriously affect the environment in which teaching and learning</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
### 9. Society

Overarching social compact is necessary to improve status of teaching and beyond policy documents, placing teachers as central to the improvement of quality in education, which has been recognised as central to national development.

Overall social interest in education encourages communities to become involved in schools and hold accountable. SOCIAL COMPACT necessary. Improving socio-economic conditions overall and eroding inequality between schools and school communities will impact overall on the extended work environment of teachers and thus on teacher professionalism.

### 10. Research organisations

The reasons why young people are not taking up the profession need to be established for proper strategies to be implemented. The potential for older second career option needs to be also investigated. Analysis of supply and demand in specific learning areas will also better inform recruitment drives so that the training of teachers is aimed to filling scarce skills.

Studies on ITE available seem to be old, and are based on individual case studies of what is taking place in individual institutions. A national survey exploring curriculum and practice will help inform interventions that need to be supported to improve the system.

Research on graduate destination, and an exploration of the employment of graduates by different employers – government, SGB, private schools, migration of teachers outside South Africa.

Research on induction programmes being implemented, and documenting lessons that can be learned from them. International review of induction programmes to learn from them.

Evaluation of new interventions to support CPTD. Rigorous impact evaluation designs have to be set up earlier on for example randomised control trials that can develop impact indicators that can isolate interventions.

Teachers who need to share practice can be invited to research conferences where they can do so, thereby opening up their classrooms and practices and entrenching professional learning communities.
8. Conclusions and Recommendations

This report has shown that the challenges to teacher professional development that South Africa is grappling with are universal, although South Africa’s context does have several unique characteristics. The improvement of teacher performance and standardisation of teacher professionalism is a multi-dimensional challenge requiring multiple layers and points of intervention, but also requiring coherent and systemic initiatives and frameworks. To a large extent, the necessary policy frameworks and co-ordinating structures are in place, and this report has focused on describing and outlining the high level frameworks and activities currently underway, many too new to evaluate.

While most countries consider induction to be an integral aspect of the CPTD continuum, in South Africa, this is not yet an established focus, though there is evidence that an induction system will soon be introduced. Some countries have adopted school-based teacher education as a useful methodology for inducting teacher trainees, but South Africa’s model is still based on the residential campus training model with periods of teaching practice in schools. The ISPFTED does recommend more school-based practice in ITE. Although school-based teacher education was initiated in 2000, it was not as a result of curriculum change, but was driven as part of a skills development initiative by the ETDP SETA. Nonetheless, important lessons were learnt from this experience on school-based teacher education and mentoring (Mawoyo, 2010). Over the past few years major strides have been made in improving levels of teacher qualification and in addressing concerns about the supply of new teachers into the education system. These have been major achievements. However, the quality of Initial Teacher Education programmes remains an area of concern, and is shown to be a major foundational point of intervention for improving teacher professionalism.

Teachers must be encouraged to interrogate their investment in the profession through engagement with their professional colleagues. This includes helping teachers and school leaders work together to develop and improve instructional practices, and studying what works well in terms of learners’ achievements. Teachers must be helped to establish collaborative practices within and across schools that ‘embed routines of instructional and leadership excellence in the teaching community’, helping colleagues to share their pedagogic skills throughout the system (Mourshed et al, 2010.) Professional teachers working together for the betterment of their learners “represent the best route to developing a trusted and respected profession” (Fullan, 2011). As can be seen from the content in the report a number of important initiatives relevant to the standardisation and performance improvement of teaching are being put in place: these include changes to Initial
Teacher Education programmes through MRTEQ; a new CPTD system being rolled out; development of professional standards for principals; a new Quality Management System, and a central coordinating structure led by government to oversee the co-ordinated implementation of relatively new policy. In order to ensure that the high level recommendations needed for the FLTTT it was important to describe the range and number of initiatives in context. The recommendations set out below are intended to offer points of intervention and support at a high level to give the FLTTT a substantive role to play in engaging with the current work taking place in the system.

The conceptual framework that has been proposed in the pathways chain shows key leverage points or platforms which impact on teacher professionalization and must be addressed. All the actors identified in Table 4 have an important role to play in supporting teacher development and shifting the current blockages. The table is offered as a snapshot of the key challenges, intervention points and actors in order to assist the FLTTT in identifying the points at which it can best support the system to stimulate change in the area of professional teaching standards and teacher professionalism and development.

Based on the discussion in this report, the following recommendations towards building and improving teacher professionalization are relevant for the FLTTT to consider:

**Policy Implementation**

Strong policy frameworks for teacher development and professionalization are in place and must be left to gain traction and not be changed for several years. There are also active collaborative structures in place for monitoring policy implementation. Implementation of the ISPFTED and related initiatives needs to be supported at all levels, including at the level of the Human Resource Development Council.

Many of the new policy frameworks, teacher competencies and changes to teacher education qualifications are relatively new and still being implemented. It is therefore early days to evaluate much of this in terms of its influence on teacher professionalism. Monitoring of new initiatives and policy implementation as well as evaluative research will be necessary to understand the effects that policy changes are having on teacher development and professionalization. Issues that the FLTT needs to consider are how the ISPFTED implementation can best be supported by structures outside the collaborative partners directly involved in policy implementation.

As indicated above, methods should be explored at various levels to support the implementation of the ISPFTED 2011-2025. Co-ordination is currently taking place through the NTEDC, jointly chaired by the DBE and the DHET and involving a broad range of stakeholders. The table above shows a range
of different pathway points and actors through which interventions can take place. Key points of intervention, such as induction and social involvement could be targeted for support. The FLTTT could consider ways in which the HRD Council can provide support to various aspects of the ISPFTED implementation. Teachers must have ownership and say in the development of any standards/benchmarks, as has been the case in the current initiatives underway. Both generic and specific standards will be necessary. The FLTTT should consider presenting this report along with its ideas about recommendations for the Human Resource Development Council to the NTEDC at its next meeting, so that the NTEDC is aware of the process, and so that the members of the NTEDC are able to reflect and engage on the high level possibilities for support and intervention of the HRD Council.

Collaboration is a critical and established methodology in the teacher development context in South Africa particularly following the policy development processes of recent years and the way in which collaborative structures are recognised in policy. All recommendations for intervention in teacher professional development and professionalization must have support and buy-in from stakeholders, including teacher unions, and the structures are in place to allow for this kind of coordination.

**Advocacy**

Advocacy will play a critical role in changing perceptions about teacher professionalism amongst key actors, but also in broader society. Perceptions about teachers and teaching must be addressed in order to build societal support for the teaching profession and to build understanding of the critical importance of teaching to broader national development objectives. A national campaign should be explored to build understanding, appreciation and support for the value that schools, teaching and education can add to society and to individual lives. This includes using an evidence base to portray a realistic image of teachers and teaching in the country. Letting detractors know of the challenges faced by teachers on a daily basis and the triumphs achieved amidst these challenges is important and can begin to change perceptions. A more nuanced understanding of the context and challenges of teaching, the successes of teaching within the schooling system, can be balanced with honest reflection and strong action on the non-professional behaviour of some teachers.

Working at all levels of the system is a key focus of the ISPFTED work as the diagram above shows. Given the enormity and complexity of the basic education system, local support for teacher development initiatives will be critical. Indeed many aspects of teacher professional development will be best implemented at local levels (e.g. professional learning communities). Linked to this is the importance of identifying examples of good practice and finding opportunities to share teacher
development intervention methodologies that are working. Advocacy campaigns will need to access all areas and communities of the country.

In order for teaching to regain its status and for the profession to be viewed differently, particularly by young people who aspire to be teachers in the future, the image of teaching needs to be revamped. The Human Resource Development Council is in an ideal position to drive a national campaign for supporting teaching and teachers, encouraging a more positive attitude towards teaching and rebuilding the image of the profession in South African society.

**Quality and standards development**

Teachers must have access to both quality ITE and CPTD opportunities. Improving the quality of teacher development programmes and the responsiveness to identified problems is critical (e.g. practice component of teaching degrees, knowledge authority, subject expertise, understanding school realities etc). The FLTTT could play an important role in improving teacher education at all levels, through leveraging support for research and evaluation initiatives designed to improve the quality of both ITE and CPTD programmes. Any interventions of the FLTTT would require the support and collaboration of the necessary structures, including the Education Deans Forum of HESA and the Council on Higher Education, with whom the FLTTT should begin a conversation on how to support initiatives to improve teacher education and improve the evaluation and accountability mechanisms currently in place for teacher education programmes.

Standards development is important and would require a collaborative effort from expert-based groupings, putting together the knowledge and practice standards for different levels and subject areas of teaching. This has started to happen with the development of professional standards for principals, for example, but there remains much work to be done. Standard setting on its own will not be adequate, as all elements of the system impact on teacher professionalism and must be addressed in tandem. Standards are therefore a necessary, but not sufficient condition in the South African context. The development of teaching standards for various phases and subject areas is something that could be considered as an activity to support teacher professionalization but the development process will require significant funding to be made available if it is to be done properly. The FLTTT could play a role in facilitating funding for standards development processes, which require expert engagement and collaborative time.
Induction of teachers

The formal induction of teachers is a crucial missing link in the pathways from completing formal training to becoming a professional teacher. This is in the early stages of being addressed, but will need support from all quarters and will require adequate resourcing. Mentoring is also part of this process. A strong induction period is needed for new teachers who are not currently supported adequately to make sense of teaching life. Through a formal induction period, teachers then become recognised professionals. This should also be linked to the SACE process of registration, so that one is provisionally registered on graduating, but not fully registered until a formal induction period has taken place (much like the health sciences). The process towards registration would involve a structured process, perhaps including portfolio assessment or some other methodology, so that there is a way of showing recognised standards. Putting together an induction system will be possible with professional practice schools in place and formal mentoring will be necessary. ICT also makes it possible, as an ICT platform could be used. Induction is crucial as research shows that, without support/induction, teachers default to how they were taught and academic learning does not prepare for practice. South Africa has an opportunity to learn from the many countries that already have strong induction programmes. Induction programmes may curb current high attrition, but the reasons for attrition also need to be investigated. Stakeholders involved in this process have indicated that the FLTTT could play a role in supporting the move towards a formal induction process for teachers. This could be in the form of helping to advocate for the importance of induction and assisting to mobilise resources to make the programme work.

Research

Successful implementation of the professionalization project largely depends on evidence-based decision making. The evidence base in basic and higher education has increased significantly in recent years, but continuous research is necessary. Research organisations are key role players who can provide intelligence on aspects of pathways and key interventions that can be used for planning and adaptive management. Research areas that have been highlighted in the conceptual framework in Table 4 include:

- Understanding supply, demand, and absorption/placement of teachers;
- Investigating performance and incentives for teacher professionalism;
- Exploring how teacher educators’ understanding of schooling contexts influences curriculum development;
- Investigating perceptions of young people towards teaching and its take up;
• Exploring existing models of induction and how these can be used for learning;
• Setting up platforms for teachers to share research on their practice; and
• Evaluating the implementation and impact of new professionalization-related programmes
  as well as encouraging the continuous evaluation of teacher education programmes.

Other detailed research areas are listed in the ISPFTED. The FLTTT has a critical role to play in
supporting the drive for a greater evidence base in the area of teacher professionalism and
professionalization. In recommending key research areas to the HRD Council, the FLTTT could assist
the sector in mobilising national support for critical research areas and ensuring that the funding is
made available to continue pushing for change in this area.

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