THE NATIONAL
TEACHER EDUCATION AUDIT:
NGO SECTOR

BY:

JOINT EDUCATION TRUST (JET)

SPONSOR:

DANISH INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY (DANIDA)

FOREWORD

The *National Teacher Education Audit: NGO Sector is* part of a wider audit of teacher education providers which was funded by the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA). The synthesis report which deals with all the providers of teacher education in South Africa is available from the Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD). The present report is concerned only with the non-government organisations (NGO) which provide teacher education and development.

NGOs are widely acknowledged to have played an important role in teacher education in the apartheid years. In this period they provided opposing and alternative approaches to many of the teacher education programmes offered. An audit of the kind undertaken in 1995, by its very nature. provides a snapshot of teacher providers and their programmes and therefore does not necessarily do justice to the work that NGOs have done in the past two decades.

Features of this work which may not be adequately captured in this report are

? Seventy per cent of organisations have developed and/or provide materials as part of their service to schools and teachers. Although the audit asked NGOs to submit examples of materials it was not possible to do an in-depth evaluation of these materials. A wide range of education and subject specialists would be needed for this task. However, the wealth of well designed, interactive and stimulating materials submitted suggests that this is a strength of the NGOs and a resource that should be tapped by new education departments, schools and publishers.

? Fifty-six organisations indicated that they are concerned with curriculum development and 65 with materials development. It is clear that this is an area in which NGOs have played an important part not only in assisting teachers with curriculum and materials development but with developing and advocating new curricula and materials to replace the often outmoded, irrelevant and racist offerings of the past.

? The number of organisations which provide school-based courses (58) and classroom support (66) is high given that these forms of INSET are widely acclaimed to be effective but are also time-consuming and expensive forms of INSET. It can safely be said that no other provider is offering these forms of INSET in black schools in any sustained way.

? NGOs operate with a small staff component and as a result these personnel have developed a wide range of experiences and skills. NGO personnel have been invaluable in assisting government departments in the transition period.

? NGOs have also showed themselves to be flexible and innovative organisations. The audit was not able to capture the history of NGOs and their ability to adapt to changing and often hostile circumstances over a period of years.

The findings of the National Teacher Education Audit for the NGO sector must be seen in the light of the above.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1 : Introduction

1.1.   The National Teacher Education Audit

The audit of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) involved in teacher development is part of a larger audit of South African teacher education institutions and programmes. The audit was initiated by the Department of Education and is funded by the Danish agency, Danida. All the main teacher education providers and programmes, namely universities. technilcons, colleges of education, distance education institutions, state in-service training (INSET) departments and NGOs offering teacher development programmes form part of the audit. However the audit does not cover the training of educators in Early Childhood Development (except in so far as these are integral to the institutions under review), Adult Basic Education and Training and industry training programmes. The audit has two objectives

i.   To develop an analysis of teacher demand and supply as the basis for the development of models for projecting future needs.

ii.   To evaluate teacher education institutions and programmes, formal and non-formal, in terms of their capacity to provide pre-service and/or in-service teacher training, the quality of the programmes offered and the staffing and governance structures.

The final report will be a synthesis report which will identify the critical issues relating to the restructuring of teacher education and training, including projecting future needs in terms of teacher supply and demand. The synthesis report will be compiled from six sectoral reports covering teacher training colleges, universities and technikons, distance education institutions, departmental INSET programmes, non-governmental organisations and a model for projecting teacher demand and supply.

The audit has been undertaken by a consortium of seven education policy research agencies

? Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD) : co-ordinating agency

? Education System and Policy Change Unit (EDUPOL) of the National Business Initiative (NBI) : teacher training colleges

? Education Policy Unit at the University of the Western Cape : universities and technikons

? South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE) : distance education institutions and programmes

? South African Institute for Educational Planning (RIEP) at the University of the Orange Free State : departmental INSET programmes

? Joint Education Trust (JET) : non-governmental organisations

? Education Foundation : a computer model of teacher supply and demand

Details of the terms of reference, project direction and reporting. the project implementation plan and the contract between the agencies and the CEPD are set out in CEPD document 1.(Appendix 1)

1.2   The NGO Teacher Education Audit

Few countries in the developed world would consider including the non-governmental (NGO) sector in an audit of teacher education providers. Universities, colleges and state departments are almost solely responsible for INSET in these countries. However, the NGO sector in South Africa is widely acknowledged to have played an important part in providing alternative programmes to, and addressing the shortfall of, a racially-divided, inequitable and inefficient education system.

South African teacher education policy documents of the 1990s have all asserted the important role of NGOs in the reconstruction of education and teacher development. These documents, including the White Paper on Education and Training, suggest that the NGO sector will continue to make a significant contribution to in-service and, to a lesser extent, pre-service education of teachers.

The National Education Co-ordinating Committee's National Education Policy Initiative (NEPI) document on teacher education talks of the wide experience base and innovative ideas and practices developed by NGOs and goes on to suggest that any future policy for teacher education in South Africa will have to take account of the NGOs involved in the field. The ANC Policy Framework for Education and Training talks of the 'creative INSET work done by subject specific NGOs' and the CEPD's Implementation Plan for Education and Training (IPET) Report comments on the extensive work of NGOs in teacher development. Finally, Hofmeyr, de Wee and Mc Lennan's 'In-service Teacher Education : Policy Dynamics in SA' indicates that NGOs have come to be seen as important players in INSET in SA.

The NGO audit is concerned with those NGOs involved in the upgrading and development of teachers in the *formal school system* at primary and secondary schools. The following were set out as the aims of the NGO audit

1. *To provide quantitative information on all NGOs involved in teacher development in the formal school sector*

2. *To provide an overview of studies that have been conducted on the impact/effectiveness of NGO teacher development programmes.*

CHAPTER 2 : METHODOLOGY

2.1.   Working definitions and concepts used

In order to ensure coherence across the sectoral reports the consortium involved in the National Teacher Education Audit compiled a list of terms which would be commonly used in the research and developed definitions of these terms. These working definitions are provided in Appendix 2.

In addition a guiding document `Criteria for the Analysis of Teacher Education in South Africa' was developed by the National Steering Committee of the National Teacher Education Audit, According to this document the purpose of the criteria is `not to judge individual programmes or institutions. The main purpose is to use them to assist us to evaluate the state of PRESET and INSET in South Africa, to decide whether the general trends are positive or negative, and inform our recommendations.' Three sources were used to derive criteria for this analysis and evaluation of teacher education.

'Values and principles for education reconstruction with special reference to teacher education', Dr. J. Hofmeyr, Johannesburg, June 1995.

'Our Vision of Teacher Education in South Africa in 2010', SAIDE document, Johannesburg, July 1995.

`International Best Practice : Research Evidence on Effective PRESET and INSET', Dr J. Hofmeyr, Johannesburg, July 1995.

An abbreviated version of the *Criteria for the Analysis of Teacher Education in South Africa' is* provided below. The full version can be found in Appendix 3.

Societal Goals

?   In terms of the RDP, teacher education as part of human resources development should promote economic growth and development.

Values

?   Teacher education institutions and programmes should embody the five core values of the Constitution and White Paper : democracy, liberty, equality, justice and peace.

Key Concepts

? Teacher Education (TE) institutions should encourage collegiality and interactive professionalism.

?   TE programmes should be underpinned by a learner-oriented philosophy of education aimed at improving practice and thinking about practice.

?   TE institutions/programmes should embody a continuum approach to PRESET and INSET which links them in the ongoing professional development of teachers.

?   TE institutions should develop new models of TE which blend PRESET and INSET. Increasingly TE will occur as INSET.

? Increasingly TE institutions should accept the challenge of diversification in order to educate a wide range of teachers/trainers for a spectrum of formal and non-formal learning environments.

? Increasingly TE curricula should be framed in terms of teacher competencies/outputs.

Guiding principles

A comprehensive list of the guiding principles adopted for the National Teacher Education Audit is provided in Appendix 3. Only those applying to INSET are included here.

? Effective INSET requires a clear conceptual base. It should be underpinned by adequate theories and concepts derived from theories of learning, change and organisations.

? Effective INSET is underpinned by a developmental growth paradigm. • Effective INSET depends on clear goals and purposes.

? To be effective. INSET programmes should be context-sensitive and focused on the site in which teaching/learning occurs.

? Effective INSET should focus on the real needs of groups of teachers in schools.

? To be effective in the South African context, INSET requires certain minimum learning conditions, should involve change agents, and should be linked to wider change strategies such as curriculum change, or whole school development.

? Success in INSET depends on stakeholders' interaction, commitment and coordination.

? Effective INSET programmes recognise that teachers are the key implementers of change and involve them in identifying their needs, programme design, presentation, implementation and evaluation, to facilitate teacher ownership and empowerment.

? Success in INSET depends on the sustained provision of a variety of inputs : authority, leadership, co-ordinators, presenters, advisers, learning materials, facilities, information, time and money.

? Incentives should be built into INSET programmes and disincentives minimised.

? Effective INSET depends on adequate human support : school principal, peer group, and INSET advisers visiting the classroom.

? Effective INSET programmes should include research and evaluation components.

2.2 Methodology adopted for the NGO Audit

The NGO Audit was divided into six phases.

1. Design of questionnaires

Two questionnaires were developed, one for NGOs (Appendix 4) and one for donors (Appendix 5). The composition of the NGO questionnaire was guided by the questionnaires developed for the other sectors involved in the teacher education audit and was concerned with collecting data on the organisations offering teacher support and development, the programmes offered by these organisations, the organisations' human. financial and physical resources, governance structures, the number and profile of educators reached and projected future trends. The donor questionnaire was designed to identify which NGOs each donor is funding, how much was spent on INSET programmes in the calendar years 1993 and 1994 and projected amounts for 1995, what donor priorities in INSET are and whether these priorities are changing in response to the new government.

The draft NGO questionnaire was distributed to the National Teacher Education Audit Steering Committee and to NGO networks such as the In-service Programme Initiative (IPI) and the Gauteng Educator Support Association (GESA) for scrutiny and comment.

2. Development of a list of NGOs involved in teacher education

The list of NGOs was assembled from the existing lists available from EduSource, donors and NGO networks. Telephone numbers, fax numbers and addresses were checked.

3. Data collection

3.1. Distribution and completion of instrument

A letter of introduction was faxed to each of the NGOs at the end of April. In mid-May the reworked questionnaires were posted or delivered to all the NGOs on the newly compiled list. Twelve fieldworkers from around the country were trained in the completion of the questionnaire. They set up times to visit NGOs in their areas, to assist project personnel in the completion of the questionnaire and to collect the questionnaire and any other useful information, e.g. annual reports, course outlines, materials, brochures, external evaluations etc.

The organisations in the Northern Cape (1), Eastern Transvaal (2) and Northern Province (5) were not visited. Instead telephonic discussions were held with project personnel and the questionnaire was explained page by page. These organisations then returned the questionnaires and extra information by post.

3.2.   Collection of donor data

The donor questionnaire was delivered to each donor reportedly involved in funding teacher INSET. The results of the survey were collated by Khulisa Management Services and a report on the findings submitted.

4.   Data Processing

The returned NGO questionnaires were analysed and statistical information captured.

5.   Writing up of reports

Seven writers were contracted to write the provincial reports. These writers, with two exceptions, had been involved in fieldwork in 3 above. The writers attended a workshop to discuss the results of the fieldwork and the processed data and to draft the outline and design of the reports. A format for the reports was agreed on and the writers were provided with copies of the questionnaires and the supporting documentation submitted by organisations. In order to ensure that the information submitted had been correctly interpreted, profiles of each organisation were developed and faxed to organisations for comment. These reworked profiles can be found in *Profiles of NGOs involved in teacher development* which accompanies this report.

6.   Writing up of NGO Sector Report

The writing of the National NGO Report was undertaken by staff members of the Joint Education Trust and consists of two parts

A.   A quantitative overview of the NGO INSET providers in the formal school sector with respect to:

-the location and areas of operation of the NGOs
-the types of courses/programmes/ interventions being offered
-the aims of these programmes
-the number of teachers reached in 1993 and 1994 by these programmes
-a profile of the teachers reached by school level, race, gender and qualifications
-the human resources involved in NGO provision of teacher education and development
-the financial resources expended in this provision in 1994
-the physical resources of the organisations
-the governance structures of the organisations

B.   An overview of evaluations carried out in the NGO teacher education sector with respect to

-the methodologies adopted *(descriptions of project work, evaluation questions, gathering information, sifting and testing data, assessing effects)*

-the findings of the evaluations *(boundary conditions, INSET model and project management, effects on teachers. effects on pupils, costs)*

Both parts of the report are informed by the questionnaires. the supporting documentation submitted. the evaluations conducted, interviews conducted with NGO personnel and local and international literature on teacher development.

2.3   Methodological difficulties encountered

Where are the NGOs?

Information about NGOs involved in teacher education was not easily accessed for a number of reasons. First, no comprehensive list of these NGOs existed. Thus the initial task of compiling a list of NGOs involved in teacher development in the time available was difficult and not necessarily comprehensive. The Audit is therefore constrained by the information which was available from funders. NGO networks and NGOs themselves.

What is an NGO?

There is some confusion about which categories of organisation are considered non-governmental organisations. Organisations with a wide variety of origins and legal and tax structures (Education Trusts, Section 21 companies, teacher and community centres, projects operating under the umbrella of universities, outreach programmes initiated by private schools and even programmes initiated and supported by government departments) have come to be known as NGOs.

This report can therefore be said to cover those non-profit organisations that provide teacher development and support in the formal sector which are not universities, teachers' colleges, technikons or state departments and which receive funding from private sector or foreign donors. It must be noted that some of the organisations included in this report do not necessarily describe themselves as NGOs. One such category of organisations are those based at universities offering courses outside of the normal state-subsidised courses and receiving private sector funding for their courses. In a number of cases these units or organisations believed that they should be part of the audit of universities.

In the course of compiling the list of organisations involved in teacher development it was found that in addition to these organisations there are also a number of private sector teacher development initiatives which work in schools, usually in co-operation with NGOS and local teacher education institutions. There are also a number of publishing houses which run workshops and courses on how to use their publications. The teacher development work of the private sector initiatives and the publishing houses has not been included in this report.

Incomplete questionnaires

The gathering of the data was generally unproblematic. The vast majority of organisations welcomed the audit and said that they looked forward to the results. The organisations were, in the

main. prompt and enthusiastic in providing information to the audit. This was particularly commendable given the very busy schedules of many NGO personnel.

However, analysis of the questionnaires showed that the information provided was often incomplete. In particular, details of NGO staff qualifications and teaching experience. project spending and fixed assets. and the numbers and qualifications of teachers reached by NGOs were often inadequate or not provided at all. By contrast the open-ended questions which asked organisations to describe their potential for expansion. problems experienced and future role etc. were completed with care and insight.

Self-report data

Another constraining factor was that the audit relied almost completely on self-report data. In some cases audited financial statements and annual reports were submitted .and could be used to cross reference information provided in the questionnaires. External evaluations and research were also expected to provide material for validating information. However, very little quantitative data on teachers and course participants is provided in the evaluation reports and little classroom or school-based research is undertaken as part of the majority of evaluations. Both the ANC's 'A Policy Framework for Education and Training' and the CEPD's IPET document on teacher development and support, comment on the limited qualitative research into NGO activities and their impact on teaching and learning. 'Its effectiveness is seldom systematically evaluated.' (ANC, 1994) and 'Few evaluations, if any, have attempted to assess the impact of INSET programmes on (teaching and learning) variables.'(CEPD, 1994)

The above problem is compounded by the fact that a number of NGOs have not kept data on the numbers, names or profiles of teachers who have participated in their programmes or the names and locations of the schools where these teachers work. In some cases this information has been captured in the form of unprocessed teacher attendance registers and so was not in a usable form for the audit. Even when this information was provided cross-checking was not possible as neither funders, education departments nor schools require or keep this information. Two examples starkly indicate the nature of the problem. In the first submission by one NGO, the total number of teachers reached nationally was provided and confirmed when the profile of the organisation was compiled and faxed for comment. In a later request to the same organisation for the breakdown of the number of teachers per province, the national total changed by 1 488 teachers. In a second case an excellent database of teacher information has been established but it is clearly not used for analysis or information. The questionnaire described the qualifications of the 43 teachers as 38 with M+3 and 4 with M+4. However the database indicates that only 14 of the 43 programme participants had an M+3, 18 had M+4 qualifications and I1 had M+5 qualifications. It is possible that NGOs do not need or prioritize this kind of information but this data is necessary to make informed policy decisions concerning INSET priorities etc.

Commensurability of data

The interventions offered by NGOs vary a great deal. Programmes offered range from very brief interventions, such as two workshops per annum to intensive two-year distance courses with 50 hours of contact time and classroom support. For this reason the number of teachers reached by the various programmes must be treated with caution as the quality, duration and content of the

programmes are very varied. Programmes which provide the use of a resource centre cannot justifiably be compared with a programme involving classroom-based support.

Despite the above factors extremely rich quantitative and qualitative data has been collected which provides, for the first time, a national picture of an important but diverse and fragmented provider of teacher education.

CHAPTER 3 : International Literature

This section of the report relies on the work of writers identified by three South African scholars: Hofmeyr, de Wee and Schofield. 'A substantial body of literature from both the developed and developing worlds' is reviewed in Hofmeyr's PhD thesis (1991) and was updated by de Wee in 1992. Schofield (1995) somewhat modestly claims to have reviewed 'a small part of the international and national literatures on INSET, school effectiveness and school change.' His work looks at literature from the UK, USA, Malawi, Zimbabwe, South Australia and British Columbia in Canada.

Before describing the main strands of the above work it is worth noting three comments made by Hofmeyr on the status of the international literature on INSET. Firstly, since the mid-1970's research on INSET has burgeoned. She quotes Wade who declares that trying to keep abreast of the research in this field is 'nearly an impossible task' (Wade, 1985). Secondly. Hofmeyr emphasises that the empirical base of the literature is limited and that most studies rely on 'craft knowledge' (Griffin, 1983) defined as 'knowledge produced from practice that practitioners can agree to as central to or influential upon the work in which they engage.' However, she argues that 'much of this craft knowledge has been subjected to rigorous scrutiny and systematic enquiry so there is objective evidence to support the positions embedded in craft knowledge.' Thirdly, she claims that doctoral dissertations, typically with survey designs, account for most of the study of INSET (Daresh, 1987). In addition the field has been greatly enriched by a number of comparative international studies. for example, the INSET Africa Project (Greenland, 1985) and the OECD research programme (Hopkins, 1986). She argues that these studies have established a core of effective INSET practices across developed and developing countries, and urban and rural settings.

Two aspects of the international research identified by Hofmeyr, de Wee and Schofield will be dealt with here. These two aspects have been chosen because of their relevance to the South African debate in general and the National Teacher Education Audit in particular. The first is their description of the changes in the form and approach to INSET over the last two decades and the second is their views on the lessons that can be learnt from the international literature concerning INSET.

Robinson et al have provided illuminating histories of the changes in the approach to INSET in a variety of countries during the last twenty years. They describe the shift in emphasis from course-based to school-focused and school-based INSET, that is, from INSET which focused on the individual teacher through short courses held away from the teachers' schools to INSET which focuses on the needs of the teacher in relation to the school, Bolam (1992) shows how this latter approach emerged out of the teacher development models of INSET prevalent in the UK in the 1960s in which INSET was 'given' to teachers as individuals through non-school based courses by subject advisers or other specialists. According to Bolam material from these courses was seldom used by teachers in their environments, and the courses seldom included support or follow-up either through further courses or in schools. In reaction to this 'departmentally managerialist' approach, school-based INSET provision emerged.

Both Hofmeyr and Schofield explain that this shift in emphasis towards the school initially resulted in the development of school-based INSET where responsibility for staff development was placed at the door of teachers themselves. 'Staff of the schools were to take the initiative and

develop their own INSET programmes based on an analysis of their own needs and problems.' (Hofmeyr, 1991)

Hofmeyr and Schofield are in agreement that school-based INSET led to the emergence of school-focused INSET. Hofmeyr (1991) explains that this shift came about because school-based INSET had limitations and was criticised for parochialism 'because it depends on the resources of staff alone'. School-focused INSET on the other hand `maximises the advantages and minimises the disadvantages of course-based and school-based INSET.' Schofield (1995) has a more structural explanation for the shift to school-focused INSET. `Articulation problems emerged between micro- and macro-level components of the education system : education planners and administrators could not control or direct school-based activity. School-focused INSET emerged as an attempt to straddle the divide between the concerns of practitioner and administrator.' Much of the international literature favours school-focused approaches to INSET. However, there are a number of cautionary notes that need to be made concerning this statement. First, Bolam (1982) warns that school-focused INSET is a relatively untried strategy. Second, the term is used to describe a very wide range of interventions and approaches to INSET. The broadness of the approach is captured by Bolam when he says the term school-focused has been used to describe INSET aimed at `meeting the needs of the school, of groups and individuals within the school.' He continues that it is important to recognise that 'the philosophy of that strategy must be interpreted as permeating different types of INSET; these other types of INSET (i.e. the longer award-bearing courses for promotion, etc.) should also continue according to the priorities elaborated between the various partners concerned.' This broad definition partly explains why the writers reviewed mean very different things when they refer to school-focused INSET. A further complication is that some writers use school-focused and school-based INSET to describe the same approach and others again use the terms interchangeably as though one is a component of the other. The most that can be said about the approach to INSET currently adopted in the international literature is that INSET should address the needs of the school, but that the needs of individual and groups of teachers should not be ignored and that a wide variety of strategies may be adopted to address these sometimes conflicting needs.

Finally, Schofield and Hofmeyr both point to new literature which they claim is influencing and should influence INSET. For Hofmeyr, de Wee and Mc Lennan(1994) `the literature on education system and policy change and development studies also provides important insights into the roles of public and private sectors and the NGOs in INSET.' For Schofield (1995) the school change literature has advantages as it `situates schools in the context of their communities. Change in schools is considered holistically and is related to societal change processes. School change literature recognises the essential elements of chaos, complexity and contradiction.' Hofmeyr and Schofield, however, draw different conclusions from the systems change literature. For Hofmeyr `the insights from education policy studies and development studies support the core elements identified in the INSET literature thus strengthening the case for using them to derive effective INSET policies'. She provides a comprehensive summary of the international findings relevant to effective INSET programmes. These form the basis for the evaluation of INSET provision by the National Teacher Education Audit and have been summarised on page 4 of this report. An expanded version can be found in Appendix 6.

Schofield is much more cautious than Hofmeyr about the claims that can be made concerning effective INSET because of the `wildness in schools which disallows the overly preplanned modules and workshops of "distant rationalists" '. He argues that 'the actual life worlds of schools should force education planners to recognise practically that teaching is not a technical enterprise and that INSET is prone to and effected by the upheavals and contortions of school communities.'

Schofield nevertheless also suggests some lessons that can be drawn from international experiences.

?   The objectives of the teachers and not external facilitators must take precedence;

?   teachers must be allowed the professional space to reject initiatives that they feel will not contribute to their intellectual and professional growth; nevertheless,

?   school-based programmes should interface with district and departmental initiatives;

?   programmes need departmental support.

This chapter has attempted to provide a very brief summary of the main trends described in the international literature on INSET provision. It has also suggested some of the lessons that may be drawn from international experiences of INSET provision. In addition the chapter provides a background to the discussion on INSET in South Africa which is dealt with in the next chapter of this report.

CHAPTER 4 : THE SOUTH AFRICAN SITUATION

4.1.   Literature reviewed

This section draws on recent policy documents on teacher education (the Education Renewal Strategy (ERS), the National Education Policy Initiative (NEPI), the ANC Policy Framework for Education and Training, the CEPD's Implementation Plan for Education and Training (IPET) and Edupol's `Inservice Education : Policy Dynamics in South Africa' and a selection of writings on INSET by university academics and NGO personnel. There are two limitations in the literature available. Firstly, the policy documents use stakeholder views almost exclusively as their references and must be seen as works of advocacy rather than as works based on empirical research on INSET and its impact on teachers and schools. Similarly, the work of academics and NGO writers is also largely advocacy of particular models or forms of INSET and is rarely based on rigorous. sustained fieldwork. Secondly, the absence of the work of subject advisers and inspectors is an obvious weakness. In Britain and other countries it is this group which informs and produces much of the INSET literature. In South Africa published writings on classroom-based research and experience by state INSET workers is almost non-existent.

4.2.   Approaches to INSET

Has INSET provision in South Africa developed historically in the same way as that described in Britain and other countries above? No history of South African INSET has yet been written but clearly no single history could be told because, as is the case with all education provision in this country, there has been no co-ordinated INSET programme in South Africa. Formal INSET courses were offered by the 17 different education departments through various colleges, universities and the subject advisory services. Each education department of the Tricameral Parliament had its own distance education institution, catering for the needs of its `own' teachers. The House of Assembly created teacher centres which focused on short courses. The DET had 51 INSET education centres spread throughout the country. The homelands and the TBVC states also had no comprehensive strategy for INSET. Hofmeyr, de Wee and Mc Lennan (1994) claim that this fragmentation of policy is exacerbated by a further lack of co-ordination between the apartheid education departments and NGOs, and among the NGOs themselves.

The literature reviewed does not describe in any detail the INSET *approaches* adopted by each of the above departments. However, the policy documents and literature surveyed overwhelmingly support INSET that focuses on teachers and their needs, and contrast this with centralised course-based INSET offered by state departments. Hartshorne (1992), for example, contrasts the `centralised, top-down, efficiency approach' of government education departments with the provision of private agencies, which is `decentralised, operate(s) locally with groups of teachers or clusters of schools, provide(s) support systems for the teacher in the classroom, and increasingly involve(s) teachers in the planning and implementation of the programmes'.

This view of the division of INSET provision is now widely quoted : NGOs are seen as flexible and innovative organisations which work closely with their client communities while

departmental provision is seen as heavy-handed, inflexible and showing little understanding of, or ability to, address client needs.

Hartshorne is one of the earliest advocates of INSET that is `closer to where the teacher is and works, and closer to the realities of the school and its community.' Other support in the local literature for INSET that focuses on teachers, their needs and empowerment comes from Nicholson and van den Berg (1989), Walker (1990), Mehl (1987), Ncongo (1987), Thembela (1987), Flanagan (1991), Schofield (1995), Robinson and Versveld (1994), Davidoff et al (1994), Soobiah (1989), Niven (1989), Hunter (1988), Freer (199?) and the NEPI and IPET documents. Although the literature favours INSET that focuses on teachers' needs there is no sustained dedicated debate on the merits or demerits of school-based as opposed to school-focused or course-based INSET. Many of the writers use the nomenclature but it is not clear that they use it to mean the same thing. A number of these writers claim to support a school-focused system of INSET provision although the form and nature of the INSET programmes and models they describe is very different.

There are also writers with some concerns about school-focused INSET. Van Den Berg (1987) warns that school-focused INSET is largely a western Anglo-Saxon concept and may not be applicable in South African conditions. Secondly Millar (1984) suggests that the low levels of training and experience of many South African teachers can pose a problem for school-focused INSET. He claims that it can be argued that the majority of teachers are not ready for school-focused INSET which demands a relatively high level of education and experience. Gray's (1994) experience of rural science teachers with low levels of training and experience encourages him to claim that INSET should be 'multi-dimensional and involve centre-based, school-based, school-focused, group-focused and individually focused strategies to overcome contextual limitations.' Finally, Schofield (1995) argues that it is erroneous to think that teachers are chiefly responsible for school development. In his view `effective change occurs in supportive community environments and includes teacher. initiated INSET, school-based INSET, student development programmes, curricular reconceptualisation, school-based management and greater parental involvement in governance.'

It is significant that the academic debate on INSET has been strongly influenced by the context in which INSET in this country operates. Contextual factors which influence INSET are seldom absent from the South African literature. Most writers underscore the problems caused by apartheid education: the authoritarian, bureaucratic nature of the education system; poor management and leadership; the pervasive influence of fundamental pedagogics on teachers' thinking and practice; political tensions; the low morale of teachers; the poor working conditions of teachers and inadequate resources. As Hofmeyr et al (1994) point out `the school ecology is not receptive to innovation' and `Survival more than innovation tends to be the focus of teacher attention.'

The effects of the above context, and its influence on schools and the culture of learning and teaching has led to a shift in INSET focus to various forms of institutional development. It is perhaps for this reason that the stakeholders interviewed for the Edupol report in 1994 support `an eclectic approach including school-focused, distance education and course-based INSET' and `the articulation of INSET with wider change strategies'. Concern about contextual constraints has in some quarters led to an emphasis on certain minimum conditions which should be in place prior to INSET delivery. These include the role of change agents such as NGOs to provide stimulus for change, improved physical conditions in schools, a supply of learning materials,

participation of all key stakeholders in school governance. and codes of conduct for teachers, pupils and officials. In addition two recent policy documents. the IPET report on teacher supply and development and the report of the Teacher Education Task Team in Gauteng, present fairly comprehensive normative models of how the above problems may be addressed on a large scale. The above concerns described in the literature have been accompanied by a number of initiatives aimed at institutional development or a more holistic approach to school change and reconstruction. Examples are the Thousand Schools Project, the EQUIP Programme, the school rehabilitation scheme of Gauteng and the whole school development approach adopted by certain NGOs.

4.3.   Content of INSET

The literature on INSET suggests a divide between the content of the programmes provided by state departments. universities and colleges which offer upgrading courses, and NGOs. In the case of the state departments short courses aimed at subject knowledge or changes in the curriculum are offered but these are not accredited. In the case of the universities and the College of Education of South Africa (CESA), a phenomenon now widely known as the `paper chase' was encouraged. Stoker (1995) provides a commonly held view of this phenomenon. 'The current paper chase involving large numbers of teachers is a direct result of the policy of `equal pay for equal qualification' introduced in the 1980s for all race groups. In introducing this policy the valuable classroom experience of thousands of competent, committed teachers was disregarded and for the purposes of promotion and salary were considered to be under-qualified. For teachers to cope with this dilemma they had no option but to enter the paper chase, the result of which has led to neglect of actual teaching and no real improvement in the teaching of mathematics despite the time spent in studying. Teachers of mathematics for example would choose to qualify themselves in supposedly easier subjects other than mathematics and then return to the mathematics classroom. Not only has the practice fed to neglect of quality teaching in mathematics but a lowering of student performance in the classroom. Many educationists believe that teacher upgrade programmes were more often concerned with pre-planned prescriptive subsidy-earning courses and were less concerned with responding to teachers' classroom needs.' In contrast, it is a commonly held view that NGO INSET programmes respond to the practical needs of teachers in the classroom. The emphasis in these programmes is on a critical, reflective approach to teaching, to enable teachers to become more confident and self-reliant, introducing pupil-centred, contemporary approaches to teaching over traditional ways and encouraging materials development skills. Peacock (1995) claims that `this interactive or meditative methodology is usually characterised by the use of words such as child-centred, group work, self-expression, process, understanding, creativity and independence and is presumed to be in contradistinction to the traditional methods of teaching which are characterised by words such as teacher-dominated, authoritarian, transmission teaching, rote repetition.'

4.4   Conclusion

The hard distinction drawn above between different approaches to, and the content of, INSET programmes may be overstated. However, these descriptions raise the vexed question of how teachers' needs are determined and who decides on the most appropriate approaches to INSET. Schofield (1995) claims that 'the choice of approaches should be made by teachers, in facilitating environments created by government policy.' However if teachers alone decide on their needs, their material and professional development may occur at the expense of their schools' and pupils' needs. In South Africa teachers have registered in their thousands for courses which critics would say are inappropriate upgrading courses. However, it cannot be denied that these courses do address the material and status needs of teachers.

On the other hand, if expert outsiders determine teachers' needs they make assumptions about those needs, especially if the outsiders have not had substantial classroom observation opportunities. Bolam (1982) comments that 'if the principal and ultimate goal of INSET is to improve pupils' learning then it is surely inescapable that professionally acceptable ways of providing classroom-based INSET have got to be devised.' In South Africa it is important therefore. that programme designers base their courses on an analysis of the knowledge, skills and attitudes of teachers who participate in the courses, not on assumptions about the effects of Bantu Education and what happens in classrooms.

Too intense a focus on the needs of individual teachers and schools can lead to a neglect of the needs of the system as a whole. The uneven nature of education provision in the past suggests that INSET priorities should be those which address the needs of the schools and teachers most disadvantaged in the past. This should not be seen to suggest that ex-House of Assembly and House of Delegates INSET models are acceptable, as INSET has a role to play in the transformation of all South African education.

Perhaps the greatest INSET policy challenge is to develop strategies which provide incentives for *teachers disadvantaged by past education policies* to participate in, and drive, programmes which are concerned with the *institutional development of* schools and the *professional development* of teachers and are *in the best interests of the pupils.*

CHAPTER 5 : THE PROVIDERS

5.1 Introduction

No systematic survey of the NGO teacher education sector has been undertaken since 1986 when Monica Bot completed her 'Teacher In-service Education and Training Programmes in South Africa'. Her survey showed that 54 organisations were involved in non-governmental INSET at that time. Approximately 45 of these organisations were engaged in INSET for teachers at primary and secondary schools. In 1994 EduSource produced a directory of non-formal projects and organisations in the education field. This directory included all levels and sectors of education, not only the formal school sector. Both documents were invaluable in compiling a list of NGOs for this study. Other sources were the Joint Education Trust's database of funded teacher development NGOs and information provided by the Gauteng Educator Support Association (GESA) and the In-service Programme Initiative (IPI). Telephonic enquiries eliminated some organisations on the above lists as they are either no longer involved in teacher development or are concerned with teacher development outside the formal school sector. One hundred and three questionnaires were distributed and all were returned, Four of these were found not to fit the NGO definition used on page 7 of this report and so 99 NGOs are included in the study. After the analysis and writing of the provincial and national reports two NGOs requested questionnaires which were then posted. The information from these questionnaires has not been included in the report, but *profiles* of the two organisations can be found in *Profiles of NGOs involved in teacher development* which accompanies this report.

In two cases NGOs are decentralised and offer slightly different programmes and so among the 99 organisations there are five submissions from the Primary Maths Project (PMP) and three from the Teachers' English Language Improvement Project (TELIP). Organisations such as the Centre for Cognitive Development (CCD), the Catholic Institute of Education (CIE) and the Science Education Project (SEP) also have regional offices but have a much more centralised system of operating. In these cases the data was captured centrally and presented in one questionnaire. Table 1 shows the number of NGOs based in each province. The names and acronyms of all organisations can be found in Appendix 7.

TABLE 1 Number of INSET NGOs based in each province

PROVINCE	NGOs BASED
Gauteng	41
Northern Province	5
Mpumalanga	2
North West	4
Western Cape	19
Eastern Cape	6
Northern Cape	1
Free State	3
KwaZulu Natal	18
TOTAL	99

Table 1 depicts a situation of great difference in terms of NGO INSET provision with the Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal being well endowed and the other six being

particularly poorly serviced. However. many of the NGOs in the well-endowed provinces, especially Gauteng. operate in other provinces. Table 2 suggests that NGO INSET provision is a little more evenly distributed than seems the case from Table 1.

TABLE 2   Number of NGOs based and operating in each province

PROVINCE	BASED	OPERATING	TOTAL
Gauteng	41	8	49
Northern Province	5	17	22
Mpumalanga	2	21	23
North West	4	13	17
Western Cape	19	13	32
Eastern Cape	6	21	27
Northern Cape	1	14	15
Free State	3	20	23
KwaZulu Natal	18	18	36

5.2   Types of organisation

As was indicated above, the types of organisations captured in the NGO audit are extremely varied and are not easily categorised. However Hartshorne's (1992) four types of non-governmental INSET organisations were considered useful for categorising the 99 organisations. First, there are those organisations located at universities which offer programmes outside of the normal state-subsidised courses. In some cases these are located in university departments of education, but more often are found in extra-mural studies divisions, centres of continuing education, language or science institutes or institutes of education. Examples are TELIP and SELP at the Centre of Continuing Education (CCE) at the University of the Witwatersrand. The second type are independent organisations set up specifically for the purpose of providing INSET to teachers in the formal school sector, for example SEP, PSP and PMP. Thirdly, there are various organisations with wider interests for which INSET is but one of the activities they undertake, such as the Katlehong Resource Centre, Uplands Outreach Programme and the Palabora Foundation. Fourthly, there are a number of agencies which have grown out of local community action involving. teachers and other players and have a strong community flavour. Examples are the Sweetwaters Education Improvement Project and the KwaNgwanase Schools Science Teachers' Development Project.

The 99 organisations were divided into the above four categories in each province (Table 3). The organisations can also be divided according to their legal and tax status. Thirty-three organisations operate under the umbrella of another organisation. The majority of umbrella organisations are universities but there are also organisations which operate under the umbrellas of schools, religious bodies, national councils such as the South African National Council for the Blind and state departments such as the Parks Board. Forty-two of the organisations are Education Trusts and 17 are Section 21 companies. Four of these organisations have dual legal status, that is they operate as a trust and a Section 21 company.   Seven organisations did not provide their legal status.

TABLE 3   Number of NGOs by type

Province	University linked	Dedicated INSET	Not dedicated INSET	Community-based INSET	TOTAL
Gauteng	3	28	9	1	41
Northern Province	0	0	2	3	5
Mpumalanga	1	1	0	0	2
North West	2	1	1	0	4
Western Cape	7	5	7	0	19
Eastern Cape	3	2	1	0	6
Free State	2	1	0	0	3
Northern Cape	0	0	1	0	1
KwaZulu Natal	4	6	5	3	18
Total	22	44	26	7	99

5.3   Dates of establishment

Hartshorne points out that private agencies entered the field of in-service education and training following the tragedy of the events in Soweto and elsewhere in 1976. The submissions to the National Teacher Education Audit confirm this. Only 7 of the 99 organisations indicated that they had been established before this date. Three of these, the Valley Trust (1950), the Umgeni Valley Trust (1969) and the Wild Life Society (1926) began teacher education programmes in the 1990s while the other 4 were established between 1970 and 1975. Nine organisations were established between 1976 and 1979. Forty-five were established in the 1980s and 38 in the 1990s. Many of the 26 non-dedicated INSET organisations began offering teacher development programmes some time after their establishment.

5.4   Networking

While fragmentation, a lack of co-operation and even duplication of efforts characterised the NGO sector up to the early 1990s. many organisations have begun networking and establishing NGO fora and alliances in the past two years. Only 19 of the 99 organisations reported that they do not belong to any network or professional organisation. The rest belong to a wide range of such associations (See Appendix 8) and many belong to three or four national or local networks. In many cases the associations are related to the specific work of the NGO, e.g. NGOs offering courses in guidance and counselling belong to the South African Vocational Guidance and Education Association (SAVGEA).

Over 30 of the networks or organisations appeared only once in the returned questionnaires but a number of recently established provincial fora were mentioned with some frequency. National professional organisations such as the Association of Maths Educators of South Africa (AN-1ESA) were also mentioned by NGOs operating in different provinces. The associations or fora mentioned most frequently were the Thousand Schools Project and the In-service Programme Initiative (IPI). However, at neither national nor provincial level is there a network to which the majority of NGOs belong, making communication with the NGO sector as a whole difficult.

In addition to joining and forming formal networks and associations, NGOs have begun establishing relationships with the business sector. teacher unions. universities, colleges. community organisations and government departments. In most cases these relationships are at an information sharing stage but more and more organisations are establishing formal relationships or working partnerships with other sectors/stakeholders in teacher education.

TABLE 4   Number of NGOs linked to teacher education stakeholders by type

Teacher Education Stakeholders	No. of NGOs which reported links with stakeholders
NGOs	87
Community Organisations	42
Businesses	41
Colleges of Education	55
Universities	65
State Structures	62
Teacher Unions	34

? These

  NGOs are unevenly distributed

5.5   Summary of Chapter 5

? Ninety-nine NGOs are concerned with INSET for teachers in the formal school and college of education sector through South Africa with those in the Western Cape, KwaZulu Natal and Gauteng forming 79% of the total.

? NGOs in the Western Cape, KwaZulu Natal and Gauteng operate in other provinces which makes the provision of INSET by NGOs more even than the geographical location of the bases of the organisations suggests.

? Twenty-two of the NGOs are based at universities, 45 are dedicated INSET organisations, 26 organisations offer a wide range of educational services of which INSET is only one, and there are seven community-based NGOs working in teacher development.

? Three organisations were established before 1970, 13 in the 1970s, 45 in the 1980's and 39 in the 1990s.

? Eighty percent of all organisations belong to professional or organisational networks or associations. However, at neither national nor provincial level is there a dominant network. This makes communication with the sector difficult.

? NGOs have begun to network with other teacher education stakeholders such as universities, colleges, education departments and teachers' organisations but in general these links are informal and do not yet constitute partnerships or formal agreements.

CHAPTER 6 : SERVICES OFFERED

6.1 Nature of services

NGO teacher education providers were asked to indicate what types of services they provide to teachers. Very few respondents offer only one type of service or intervention. Most offer three or four different interventions and 19 provide five forms of service namely short courses, school-based courses, classroom support, materials and information. Table 5 below provides an overview of the range of services provided by INSET NGOs based in each province.

TABLE 5   Nature of NGO services

Services offered	Gaut	WC	KwN	NP	EC	NC	Mpu	NW	FS	TOT
Short course	36	13	15	4	6	1	2	3	3	83
School-based course	18	14	14	3	4	1	2	1	1	58
Classroom support	28	11	11	4	6	1	1	1	3	66
Materials	27	13	14	4	5	-	2	2	3	70
Information	19	6	7	-	1	1	2	1	1	38

Short courses

Eighty-three of the 99 organisations recorded that they provide short courses. However, both the descriptions by project personnel of the programmes offered and the course outlines and materials submitted to the audit suggest that in the majority of cases these courses are in fact ad hoc workshops or series of workshops. The audit of NGO programmes supports the point made by Manganyi (1995) that NGOs have, in the main, not developed their interventions into outcomes-based courses that may be accredited by higher education institutions or the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). This is not to suggest that all INSET programmes should be accredited outcomes-based programmes. NGOs have provided a variety of important interventions that do not ft into this category of programmes e.g. as agencies of political transformation, conflict resolution, providing alternative views and philosophies of education, classroom-based support, alternative materials to name a few. However, if NGOs wish to have their programmes recognised either by education departments or higher education institutions, and many do, it is difficult to imagine how these programmes or ad hoc workshops may be accredited.

School-based courses and classroom-based support

The number of organisations which provide school-based courses (58) and classroom support (66) is surprisingly high given that these forms of INSET are widely acclaimed to be effective but are also time-consuming and expensive forms of INSET.

It can safely be said that no other provider is offering these forms of INSET in black schools in any sustained way. In this sector of the education system the subject advisory services and inspectorate have been either overstretched or unwelcome at schools in recent years. Classroom-based support by state INSET workers has therefore been limited. Similarly university and college staff have generally not gone into township and farm schools during teaching practice.

Materials

Seventy per cent of organisations have developed and/or provide materials as part of their service to schools and teachers. Although the audit asked NGOs to submit examples of materials it was not possible to do an in-depth evaluation of these materials. A wide range of education and subject specialists would be needed for this task. However, the wealth of well designed, interactive and stimulating materials submitted suggests that this is a strength of the NGOs and a resource that should be tapped by new education departments, schools and publishers. Two notes of caution must be sounded. One is that many of the materials are worksheets or a series of worksheets on a particular topic and these do not necessarily form part of a comprehensive course. Secondly, NGOs have sometimes developed materials on topics that they believe should be taught but are not in fact part of the mainstream syllabus. Evaluations of INSET programmes (See Chapter 11) suggest that teachers want assistance in completing and teaching the *existing* syllabus and so these alternative materials may be seen and treated as superfluous.

6.2   Focus of interventions

The NGO audit demonstrates that not only do NGOs provide a wide range of services but that their interventions are aimed at providing a range of skills. Some of the organisations claimed to be addressing all the areas in Table 6 below and the majority ticked at least four of the areas. However, it was clear from the programme descriptions, the aims of the organisations and the objectives of their programmes, that projects generally aim to develop teachers to bring about change in the classroom. Common to the vast majority of organisations was the concern to make teachers agents of change by improving classroom practice through progressive teaching methodologies, concepts and attitudes.

TABLE 6   The focus of NGO interventions by type

Focus of intervention	Gaut	WC	KwN	NP	EC	NC	Mpu	NW	FS	TOT
Subject knowledge	28	13	12	4	6	1	2	2	2	70
Cognitive development	26	11	9	1	4	-	2	2	-	55
Study skills	15	4	5	1	1	-	1	2	-	34
Whole School	15	6	4	1	3	-	1	1	-	31
New roles	14	5	5	1	4	1	1	-	-	31
School management	18	4	2	1	2	-	1	-	-	28
Curriculum developm.	24	13	8	3	2	1	1	2	2	56
Materials development	23	15	12	2	5	-	2	3	3	65
Teaching methodology	33	15	16	4	6	1	2	4	3	84

Teaching methodology

:Many organisations stressed that their programmes aim to *change* teachers' practice from an authoritarian, talk and chalk mode to a pupil-centred, enquiry-based approach to teaching and learning. They aim to encourage teachers to build on what pupils already know and to have pupils work co-operatively in groups to solve problems, discuss issues, negotiate meaning and reflect on what they are doing.

The work of two evaluators described in more detail in Chapter 11 provides useful insights into current classroom practice in South Africa's many diverse schools. These researchers, who between them have visited over 300 traditionally black schools throughout South Africa. claim that the commitment to an 'interactive' methodology has been widely accepted. Peacock (1995) asserts 'It is important to reinforce this point when many still speak of traditional methods versus interactive methods as if the battle still rages. The experience of this evaluator - after extended visits over the past few years to in the region of 100 traditionally black schools - is that in fact the interpretative methodology is widely accepted on all sides as desirable. This is particularly true of group work which is now the normal classroom experience of many pupils.'

Moreover both researchers claim that the way in which these interactive methodologies are transferred into the classrooms 'conspire against any improvement in the quality of children's learning experiences.' Peacock claims that in his experience the way group work is practiced means that `Most children most of the time do nothing .... and certainly nothing as cognitively demanding as individual reading and writing.'

He concludes: `The struggle to introduce an alternative and more enlightened methodology has been won. The next target is to introduce and reinforce more cognitive effort to be routinely required of pupils. A most urgent priority is to develop ways of working with teachers - ideally within some co-ordinated regional or national framework of clearly articulated issues - on raising the quality of cognitive effort required of pupils during normal schooling.'

It is possible that the researchers quoted above in the main visited schools reached by NGOs, but the points made in their reports need to be taken seriously by all INSET providers.

Subject knowledge

Just under 70% of organisations recorded that their programmes were concerned with subject knowledge. This is a surprisingly high figure as very few organisations mentioned this as an aim or objective of their programmes. In addition only a handful of programmes mentioned teachers' poor subject knowledge as one of the problems they faced. Nevertheless it is widely recognised that both the secondary education and college education of many teachers has been of such poor quality that teachers, particularly at the secondary level, do not have sufficient command of the subject matter they are teaching to teach effectively. One can thus assume that in most cases, except for the formal upgrading programmes, NGOs are concerned with developing the subject knowledge required for teaching a particular subject, not an extension of knowledge beyond that required at school level.

It is interesting to note that donors clearly see the development of teachers' subject knowledge as a priority. The informal survey of donors conducted by Khulisa Management Services (Appendix 9) in June 1995 indicates that 75 % of donors saw this as a priority while the second donor priority was teaching methodology (61%). It is possible that donors have been influenced by studies such as the World Bank policy study `Education in Sub-Saharan Africa' (1988) which suggests that a sound secondary education should be the major access criterion to primary teacher training. Other studies suggest that if a high growth economy and global competitiveness are South Africa's priorities then the development of junior secondary pupils' computing and communication skills is a priority. This would also require that teachers' subject knowledge is strengthened,

Cognitive development

Only three organisations (CCD, St Mary's Outreach Programme and UPTTRAIL) described cognitive development or thinking skills as the *content* of their programmes. However 56 organisations marked this as an area of focus in that they regard their problem-solving approach to teaching and learning as cognitive development and a way of undermining the influence of fundamental pedagogics.

Whole School

Only six organisations (ESP, TIP, CIE, PEUP, MEDU and Toyota Teach) describe their programmes as `whole school development' but many NGOs recognise that isolated subject specific interventions are not as effective as they might be and that a more holistic approach to INSET is more appropriate. For this reason they provide broadened interventions (working with principals, department officials, materials supply etc.) and describe these as whole school development.

New Roles

This question was directed at those programmes in which teachers who are qualified in oversubscribed subjects are retrained in scarce subjects. No organisations reported that they are involved in this type of programme. However, 32 organisations responded that they are involved in developing new attitudes or styles of teaching and management.

School Management

Twenty-eight organisations recorded that they were involved in management and leadership training. Only 10 of these organisations focus on management training for principals, deputies and heads of department. The other 18 are involved in the training of leader teachers and developing the leadership and management skills of teachers as part of sustaining the INSET intervention when the NGO withdraws or as a part of good teaching practice.

Management for principals and HODs is a relatively new area of INSET intervention. All 10 programmes involved in this form of INSET were established after 1990 and half of these began operating in 1994. The informal donor survey also shows school management to be a recent and growing donor priority. This shift in focus grows out of the recognition that inept and poor management debilitates many schools and that state interventions in this regard have generally been inappropriate and ineffective.

Curriculum and Materials Development

Fifty-six organisations indicated that they are concerned with curriculum development and 65 with materials development. It is clear that this is an area in which NGOs have played an important part not only in assisting teachers with curriculum and materials development but with

developing and advocating new curricula and materials to replace the often outmoded, irrelevant and racist offerings of the past.

6.3 Programmes offered

The 99 organisations offer a total of 196 programmes (Table 7). Appendix 10 provides an overview of all the programmes offered. The vast majority of these are non-accredited short courses or workshops. Six programmes are offered at colleges of education, 18 are accredited by higher education institutions towards diplomas or degrees which are recognised by the state for salary notches and 16 are certificated by tertiary or professional institutions but are not recognised for salary purposes.

TABLE 7   Status of programmes offered by NGOs

Province	Accredited	Non-Accredited	Certificated	Total
Western Cape	5	32	1	38
Gauteng	6	57	5	68
Eastern Cape	2	17	3	22
Free State	1	6	0	7
North West	1	3	1	5
Mpumalanga	0	3	1	4
Northern Province	0	9	1	10
Northern Cape	0	1	0	1
KwaZulu Natal	3*	34	4*	41
TOTAL	**18**	**162**	**16**	**196**

* one course is both certificated by one institution and accredited by another.

Courses offered at colleges of education

Only three organisations offer PRESET programmes. READ offers its primary school and secondary school *Reading and Learning* courses to colleges on request and claims to have reached 3 507 pre-service students in 1993 and 1 485 in 1994. However, this programme is not yet accredited by colleges but is seen as an extra-curricular intervention. Secondly, members of staff at CRIC offer modules of an optional course of the HDE at both UCT and UWC. Thirdly, members of CENCE offer science training seminars to PRESET students at UPE.

In addition to these PRESET programmes, three organisations work with college lecturers. RADMASTE offers a College of Education Maths Programme and College of Education Science Programme to lecturers at colleges of education across South Africa. Three to five-day workshops are held twice per year and in 1993 and 1994 were attended by more than 100 lecturers. Lecturer teaching resources and student learning materials have been developed by RADMASTE and these are discussed and disseminated at the workshops. Fulcrum offers subject workshops and workshops on request to colleges of education in KwaZulu Natal. Regular support visits are also undertaken by project personnel. Finally, MEP facilitates the networking of maths teaching personnel at eight Western Cape colleges of education. This organisation also assists with curriculum design for the first two years of college maths.

Accredited courses

A large percentage of NGOs see lack of accreditation of their work as a disincentive to teachers. They would therefore like their courses recognised by higher education institutions or government departments. The process of accrediting NGO work is a recent trend. Appendix 9 shows that a number of organisations are seeking accreditation for their programmes.

Organisations were asked whether any of their programmes are accredited by higher education institutions. Nineteen programmes were given this status by project personnel. However, it is clear that only a handful of these are programmes which exempt teachers from courses. modules or assignments towards formal diplomas or degrees. In the other cases NGO staff present *existing* university or college courses or provide tutorial support to teachers who are studying for matric. diplomas or degrees. It could be argued that these, in the strict sense of the word, are not *accredited* NGO courses.

The organisations which reported to be offering accredited courses are

- ? **MSTP**: one module of the eight module *FDE in Development, Management and Administration* at the University of the Witwatersrand.
- ? **ORT-STEP**: part of *FDE in Maths, Science and Technology* at Potchefstroom University.
- ? **CASME**: *FDEs in Biology* and *Physical Science* at the University of Natal. • IMSTUS: FDE *Natural Sciences* at the University of Stellenbosch.
- ? **TAIM**: *FDE Maths* at the University of the Western Cape.
- ? **CENCE**: *FDE Maths and Science* and *FDE English Language* at the University of Port Elizabeth.
- ? **Toyota Teach**: teachers who have participated in this programme may be exempted from a unit of a module or an assignment of the *Diploma in Education* H course or the *FDE in Management* offered by Natal College of Education.
- ? **ELET**: Students who complete *the Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English (DOTE)* are accepted without an interview and exempted from writing the methodology component of the Honours in Linguistics course at the University of Natal.
- ? **POLP**: modules of the *HDE* at the Cape College of Education.
- ? **L-MAP**: teachers who have completed courses are exempted from methodology components of the *FDE English Language* and the B. Prim. Ed at the University of Port Elizabeth. This programme was also accredited by University of the Free State but as the relevant diploma is no longer run a new agreement is being sought.
- ? **TLRC**: a module of the *B.Ed at* University of Cape Town.
- ? **TOPS***: M. Ed.Management* accredited jointly by the University of Carolina and the University of Durban Westville.
- ? **TAP**: B.Sc at Medical University of South Africa
- ? **Sweetwaters Integrated Education Project** provides tutorials for teachers studying for matric and for teachers studying towards a diploma in education through the College of Education of South Africa or the College of Continuing Education.
- ? **St Alban's** programme at Sprinkell offers matric classes in 12 subjects for teachers upgrading their academic qualifications

? **Science Education Centre** provides tutorial assistance to teachers studying maths, biology, chemistry, and physics at the University of South Africa.

Certifcated Courses

Although the number of certificated courses is shown as 15, four of these are the same courses but are offered by different organisations. There are in fact 11 certificated courses run in South Africa. They are

? *Certificate for Primary Maths Education(CPME)* offered by the PMP (W. Cape), CENCE and RUMEP. *The Diploma for Primary Maths Education (DPME)* offered by RUMEP. Both the certificate and diploma are accredited by the University of Cambridge Examining Syndicate (UCLES),

? *Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English (COTE); Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English (DOTE); Certificate for English Medium Teachers (CEMT), Primary English teaching in Rural Areas (PETRA)* certificated by University of Cambridge Examining Syndicate (UCLES) and offered by ELET in KwaZulu Natal, CENCE in the Eastern Cape and the Palabora Foundation/ELET in the Northern Province.

? *Diploma in Education Management* offered by CET and certificated by the South African Institute of Management.

? *The Change Agent in Primary Maths Education (CAPME)* offered by RADMASTE and CPE and certificated by Wits University.

? *The Advanced Certificate for Primary Science Educators (ACPSE)* offered by RADMASTE and certificated by Wits University.

? *The Tutor and Language Facilitators' Course* and *Teachers' English Language In-service Course* offered by TELIP Soweto, TELIP North West and the Wits Rural Facility and certificated by Wits University.

? *Sharenet's Environment Education Certificate* one-year course certificated by Rhodes University.

Non-accredited programmes

The other 162 programmes are non-accredited programmes of varying design and length. These interventions range from half-day meetings to two-year distance courses. The vast majority of programmes take the form of workshops. Some of these workshops are presented as courses with set curricula and materials, others are developed in response to particular teacher requests or perceived needs and can best be described as ad hoc workshops or as series of workshops covering different topics. Classroom support or visits of some nature were mentioned by over 60 programmes.

6.4 School level at which programmes are aimed

Table 8 shows that only 49 programmes focus on teachers from a particular school level which suggests that the other programmes are not syllabus-specific but aim at generic knowledge. attitudes and skills. Just over a quarter of the programmes are offered to educators at all levels of the formal school system while considerably more programmes were offered to primary teachers (80) than secondary teachers (48).

TABLE 8   Targeted school levels of NGO programmes

Prov	JP	SP	JP/ SP	JS	SS	JS/SS	JP/SP/ JS	SP/JS	SP/JS/ SS	All	Total
Gaut	3	5	17	1	5	12	4	0	2	19	68
WC	2	2	10	1	1	5	0	1	1	14	38*
EC	4	4	6	0	1	1	1	0	3	2	22
NC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
KwaN	1	2	7	2	5	9	3	4	1	6	41**
NP	1	0	6	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	10
NWest	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	5
Mpum	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4
FS	4	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	7
Total	16	14	50	4	15	29	8	5	8	45	196

*1 directed at college lecturers
**1 directed at college lecturers

6.5 Type of educators at which programmes are aimed

Ninety-seven per cent of the 196 programmes offered are directed at in-service teachers. However, many of these programmes also target HODS and to a lesser extent Principals and Subject Advisers. Very few of the programmes are specifically directed at the work of the HODs, Principals and Subject Advisers but several interviewees and questionnaires pointed out that these educators have increasingly been targeted to ensure their understanding and support of the ideas and programmes to which teachers are exposed.

TABLE 9 Number of programmes aimed at different types of educators

Type of educator	No. of programmes
Teachers	190
HODs	94
Principals	65
Subject Advisors	40
Parents	1
College lecturers	4
Pre-service students	2

6.6   Focus of programmes offered

The programmes focus on a wide variety of areas as can be seen in Table 10. To what extent do they address the priority areas established by policy makers in recent years?   Hofmeyr, de Wee and Mc Lennan 1199-1) claim that there seems to be consensus on the following INSET priorities:

?   teacher educators;
?   colleges, schools and teachers in rural areas:
?   unqualified and under-qualified primary school teachers. • language development of teachers:
?   unqualified and under-qualified secondary school teachers. especially in science and mathematics:
?   adult educators and trainers: • pre-schoolteachers:
?   school leadership training;
?   the incorporation of appropriate feedback and follow-up mechanisms.

Only three of the 196 programmes are aimed at teacher educators and four at the formal upgrading of un-and under-qualified teachers. Maths. science. language and management courses at all levels of the school system feature strongly but there are many other interventions which do not seem to address the list of priorities.

Should South Africa's NGOs focus on the above priorities? There are two ways of approaching this issue. Firstly, in other countries NGOs concentrate on particular gaps in state provision such as programmes for learners with special needs. A number of the programmes offered in South Africa such as those directed at the visual arts and the special education programmes fit into this category of provision. These programmes may not be seen as national priorities but are nonetheless important as they are areas in which the state offers little or no provision.

Secondly, NGOs claim that their strength lies in their being flexible, innovative and able to adapt quickly to changing circumstances. If this is the case then NGOs, through their field experience, should be able to ascertain needs and suitable means of addressing these. For this reason, rather than only addressing established policy needs. NGOs should lead the field in *establishing* INSET priorities and needs and policy makers should take seriously the shifts in emphasis of NGOs as they pilot new programmes and adapt them to changing needs and circumstances. In this regard NGO fieldwork has arguably resulted in a number of interventions which seek to address the collapse of a culture of teaching and learning and the most pressing problems faced by teachers and schools. Examples are whole school development programmes, the Thousand Schools Project, the EQUIP programme, cognitive development programmes. peace education, assessment, integrated studies and language and learning courses, to name but a few.

TABLE 10 The Content Focus of NGO programmes

Content Focus	G	WC	KN	NC	NP	EC	Mpu	NW	FS	Tot
English	8	1	13		1	6	2	1	1	33
Language and Learning	8	1								9
Xhosa									1	1
Afrikaans		2							1	3
Study skills	1									1
Thinking/cognitive skills	4									4
Mathematics	5	8	4		4	6			3	30
Science	8	1	2		2	2		1	1	17
Maths, Science and Technology	1									1
Maths/Science	1		2			1				4
Science/Biology			5							5
Maths /Science/Biology	1	1						1		3
English/Science/Maths			3							3
Special Education	3									3
Integrated studies	1	1								2
Religious/values education	1									1
Management	5	1	2			2				10
Guidance and counselling	3	4		1		1				9
Visual arts	2	2								4
Computer training	3	1	1							5
Whole school development	2	2	2					1		7
Code of Conduct	1									1
Matric upgrading	2									2
Professional upgrading	2									2
General methodology	3	2	1		2	3	2			13
Associations	1									1
Assessment	1									1
Media in Education			2							2
Environment		1	4					1		6
Library					1					1
Sport						1				1
Waldorf Education		2								2
Out of school youth		2								2
Peace Education		1								1
Multicultural Education		1								1
Resources		1								1
Materials development		2								2
Governance		1								1
Technology	1									1

6.7   Summary of Chapter 6

? Eighty-three percent of organisations claim to provide short courses. In most cases these are workshops or series of' workshops. not courses.

? Fifty-eight percent of organisations provide school-based workshops and 66% provide classroom-based support suggesting that NGOs have considerable field experience of South Africa's many diverse schools.

? Seventy percent of organisations have developed materials and/or offer materials as part of the service they provide.

? The focuses of NGO interventions are teaching methodology (85%), subject knowledge (71%), materials development (65%). cognitive development (56%), curriculum development (56%), study skills (34%. whole school development (31 %), new roles (0%) and management (29%) - a relatively new and growing form of INSET intervention.

? Classroom-based research suggests that interactive forms of teaching methodology are widely accepted and practiced. However. the form in which these new methodologies are practiced does not encourage cognitive application or individual endeavour.

? NGOs offer 191 programmes. Three of these are PRESET programmes, three are directed at college lecturers, 19 are accredited by higher education institutions and 15 are certificated. The other 151 programmes are courses or workshops of varying length and content.

? Seventy-two or 38% of programmes were offered to primary teachers and 45 or 24% to secondary teachers. The other 38% of programmes were offered to a combination of school levels suggesting that these programmes are aimed at generic skills, knowledge and attitudes rather than being syllabus-specific.

? Ninety-seven percent of programmes are aimed at teachers. HODS, Principals and Subject Advisers are increasingly targeted by the same programmes to ensure these educators' understanding and support of the INSET programmes and ideas to which teachers are exposed. Very few programmes are aimed at the work of HODS, Principals and Subject Advisers.

? Programmes focus on a wide variety of subject matter. While English, maths and science dominate, the number of programmes aimed at institutional development such as whole school development and management programmes, is increasing.

? Policymakers need to take account of these switches in focus because of NGOs' field experience.

CHAPTER 7 : EDUCATORS REACHED

7.1.   Numbers of educators reached

The NGOs involved in teacher development were asked to provide figures of teachers reached in 1993 and 1994. The responses show that the number of teachers participating in NGO programmes varies considerably from programmes which reach up to 11000 teachers per annum to those that reach less than ten teachers per annum. The number of teachers which NGOs reportedly reached per province is provided in Table 11. In addition the number of primary and secondary teachers employed in each province in 1994 (EduSource, 1995) is provided in the third column.

Table 11 suggests that just under a third of South Africa's teachers are reached by NGOs. As can be expected the provinces where the most NGOs are based reach higher percentages of teachers than the provinces which have few teacher development NGOs based in the province. In Gauteng 37% of all teachers are reached by NGOs, in the Western Cape 38% of all teachers and in KwaZulu Natal 32% of teachers participate in NGO INSET programmes. The lowest percentages of teachers reached by NGOs are those in Northern Cape (16%). Northern Province (16%) and Mpumalanga (15 %). The one exception to the above trend is in the North West province which has the highest percentage (56%) of teachers reached by NGO's.   However, it must be noted that over 11 000 of the 15 000 teachers reached by NGOs in the North West were reached by PEUP, which was set up by the former Bophuthatswana Education Department and which many would argue is not an NGO.

TABLE 11   The number of teachers reached by NGOs by province

Province	1993	1994	Total no. of teachers employed
Northern Province	9 177	17 547	50 109
Mpumalanga	2 932	5 140	25 177
Gauteng	15 355	20 078	48 407
Western Cape	2871	6813	33 848
Eastern Cape	16 077	15 893	58 438
Free State	18 997	20 357	23 684
KwaZulu Natal	9 364	15 300	68 356
Northern Cape	330	2 736	7 208
North West	5 191	7 998	26 676
Total	**80 294**	**111 862**	**341 903**

The figures provided in Table 11 should be treated with some caution for four reasons. Firstly, the teachers' and schools' lists submitted by NGOs suggest that in a number of cases the same teachers are being reached by two or even more NGOs.

Secondly, many organisations guessed the numbers of teachers reached. It was clear from the teachers' lists provided that while many of the estimates were fairly accurate they were guesses nonetheless. There were also frequent inconsistencies in reporting.

A third reason to treat the figures with caution is that some of the larger organisations could not distinguish between the number of delegates to courses and the numbers of teachers reached. In some cases the difference was substantial. In one case the co-ordinator of an organisation suggested that the figure given in the questionnaire in fact referred to delegates and not to teachers and that the number given should be halved to provide the number of teachers. Fourthly, there are considerable differences in the nature and content of the programmes offered. Some programmes have a conspicuously high throughput of participants because of the content and nature of their programmes. Teachers who have attended one two-hour workshop in a year cannot be compared with those who have participated in a rigorous course followed by classroom support. It is also not possible to say that in each programme participants received the same or even similar support. This is endorsed by the evaluation reports in which teachers claim not to have received the classroom support the provider organisations claim to offer.

A final point to be made about Table 11 is that it does not give any indication of the geographical distribution of teachers reached. For example, there are a number of programmes based in the fatal Midlands area which reach a small number of schools and teachers. On the other hand there are large expanses of the province where NGO-based INSET provision is scarce. In the Northern Cape it can safely be said that almost all the teachers reached are in the Kimberley area.

7.2   Profile of educators reached

Organisations were asked to provide the numbers of teachers who participated in their programmes by race, gender and qualifications. As the records kept by most NGOs are either incomplete or lack information, project staff were requested to estimate the numbers of teachers by race. gender and qualifications. Thus, much of the data in Appendix 11 (which gives overall percentage breakdowns in terms of race and gender for programmes run by organisations) represents responses to the questionnaire. This does not always correspond to the teacher lists provided by the NGO. Moreover, many NGOs did not provide this information.

Conclusions drawn from this incomplete information may be questionable. However, the estimates on race and gender are likely to be fairly accurate estimates of the teachers reached.

Race

The NGOs can be said to be working mostly with black teachers, although there were differences in the profiles of teachers reached in each province and these are summarised below.

NGOs reported that in Mpumalanga, Northern Province, Free State and North West they work overwhelmingly with black teachers.

In line with population figures for the Western Cape, the programmes based in this region are reaching more `coloured' teachers than African. A fairly substantial group of NGOs based in the Western Cape also works with white teachers which reflects either historic ties to the former Cape Provincial Education Department or efforts to assist white teachers to teach in a multi-cultural/multi-lingual environment. In the Eastern Cape and Northern Cape the participants were predominantly black but there were significant numbers of 'coloured' teachers.

In Gauteng all the programmes reported reaching black teachers with the lowest percentage. of black participation mentioned being 5%. More than half of the programmes reported that the participants were 95 -100% black teachers. Eleven programmes reached Indian teachers but in nine of the eleven cases these teachers constituted less than 10% of the group reached and in total amounted to less than 150 teachers. Twenty-two programmes reached white teachers but again this involved small numbers except in the case of the CIE and IEB. In the smaller programmes high white teacher figures were recorded in programmes which were either testing new materials or aimed at improving relationships and building understanding between races and contexts. Twelve programmes involved `coloured' teachers. In seven cases these teachers constituted less than 5 % of the teachers reached by the programme.

In KwaZulu Natal the overwhelming majority of teachers participating in NGO INSET programmes are black. In only a few instances, typically those programmes promoting environmental education, are there substantial numbers of white, Indian or `coloured' participants.

Gender

In most cases the NGO figures on gender reflected the gender ratios of the teaching profession. In the case of disparities it is important to take account of the school phase and the type of programme being offered. More female teachers were reached than. male teachers in programmes improving the quality of primary education. In programmes promoting secondary education quality, especially maths and science and school management, more males than females were reached. Accredited courses, especially the science and maths and management courses, were conspicuously male in profile.

Qualifications

Very few organisations were able to provide information on teachers' qualifications and so this was not included in Appendix 11. Approximately 25 % of organisations guessed teachers' qualifications but in the absence of supporting evidence no meaning can be attached to these estimates. Organisations can generally be divided into three categories; those who do not gather this information at all (75%); those who gather data in the form of teacher application forms making this information difficult to access (15%); and those who have established databases (10%). For obvious reasons those programmes which have to register teachers with a tertiary or state institution and offer formal upgrading programmes are in the second and third categories.

However, one of these institutions, despite collecting the information on a database, had clearly not analysed it. The list of teachers and qualifications submitted contradicted the information provided in the questionnaire. Whereas 38 teachers were reported to have M+3 and four teachers an M+4, in fact only 14 of the 43 had an M+3. Eighteen teachers had an M+4 and 11 had an Honours degrees or B.Ed. This information contradicts the widely held view that teachers are only concerned with a paper chase that links qualifications to financial gain. Seventy percent of the educators on this FDE programme were not going to improve their qualification status through this two year diploma.

Organisations which gather data through teachers' application forms also generally do not seem to use the information provided by teachers. In one case the NGO audit fieldworker in a three-hour audit of the teacher application forms found that less than 20% of the participants in the course were teachers.

The fact that many NGOs do not keep information on teacher qualifications suggests that organisations do not see un- or under-qualified teachers as an INSET priority but believe that all teachers in DET or homeland schools need INSET of the kind they are offering. This may be so: teacher qualifications in this country are not an indication of the quality of teachers' education or their teaching practice. However, teachers in South Africa have experienced a wide and uneven range of secondary education, PRESET and INSET offerings (even in the so-called bush colleges and HBUs) and for this reason should not be treated and 'INSETTED' as a homogeneous group. The absence of information on teachers' qualifications and experience calls into question the appropriateness of the programmes offered and the materials developed. Collecting data on teachers' qualifications, where these were gained and what type of INSET they have received, will go some way to improving the research base for both PRESET and INSET in this country. The lack of data on teachers' qualifications is particularly strange given that accreditation has become a burning issue in INSET and that more than half of the organisations who participated in the audit listed this as either a problem for their work or a recommendation for future teacher development. It seems obvious that this data is necessary to develop appropriate courses and materials.

7.3 Selection criteria

Approximately 50% of the NGO programmes do not have selection criteria for participation in their programmes. The selection criteria applied by the other 50% of the programmes can be divided into two categories:

Formal, accredited programmes. These require teachers to meet the entrance qualifications of higher education institutions and to have some teaching experience. In some cases completion of preparatory work is also required.

Informal, non-accredited courses. By and large these were broadly inclusive. For example, there are programmes which simply expect course participants to be practicing teachers. Secondly, there are programmes that require certain academic qualifications or particular English literacy levels for participation. A third set of programmes requires three or four years of teaching experience. Another set of programmes requires that teachers are involved in teaching a particular subject, or are teaching at a certain school level, or in a particular type of school. For example, teachers should be secondary school science teachers or teachers teaching in schools for the blind. One programme requires that teachers are teaching a particular combination of pupils. A fifth set of programmes requires local education authority approval or even choice of teachers for the programme. Finally there are those programmes which look for the commitment of teachers to a particular educational idea such as language across the curriculum, alternative teaching methods or the reconstruction of black schools.

This variety in selection criteria is further illustrated by the fact that some programmes are seeking commitment and accountability from schools and teachers by signing agreements or

contracts with schools. Of note are two NGOs whose criteria are directed at the sustainability of the programme. One of these requires the participating teacher to be elected by the staff and to have good communication skills as this teacher is expected to introduce and share workshop material with other teachers in the school. Another programme requires that there are at least two participants from each school on the programme and that one of these is either the principal or deputy. The school must also be in the proximity of four other participating schools so that local discussion fora can take place and the schools can be reached cost effectively by the project staff.

7.4 Demand for Programmes

The majority of NGOs in this study responded that they could easily expand to take more teachers. A significant number of INSET NGOs have been established in the past four years suggesting that there is still sufficient demand for teacher INSET programmes. Another indication of the demand for programmes is given by the increase in numbers of participating teachers from 1993 to 1994.

Some NGOs commented that their expansion is only constrained by financial factors and that without this constraint three to four times the existing number of teachers could be reached. These estimates may be rather ambitious in view of the difficulty of attracting suitable staff to undertake teacher development.

7.5 Summary of Chapter 7

? NGOs reported that 79 167 teachers were reached in 1993 and 102 201 in 1994. The numbers reached in 1994 represent just under 30% of the teaching stock in 1994.

? The number of teachers reached by NGOs should be treated with caution as there were some inconsistencies in reporting and many organisations do not keep records of teachers who attend programmes or information on the schools where these teachers work. There is also some evidence that the same teachers are reached by more than one NGO.

? The absence of information on teachers meant that information on the race and gender of participants had to be estimated by organisations while information on the qualifications of teachers reached could not be provided.

? The majority of teachers reached by NGOs are black. In the Western Cape significant numbers of `coloured' teachers were reached. In the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Gauteng small numbers of `coloured' teachers participated in NGO programmes. Very small numbers of white and Indian teachers were reached and these were in programmes promoting multi-cultural education, peace education and environment education or were teachers who teach at Catholic or IEB-examined schools.

? In most cases the NGO figures on gender reflected the gender ratios of the teaching profession. In the case of disparities, it is important to take account of the school phase and the type of programme being offered.

? More female teachers were reached than male teachers in programmes improving the quality of primary education.

? In programmes promoting secondary education quality, especially maths and science and school management, more males than females were reached.

? Accredited courses, especially the science and maths and management courses, were conspicuously male in profile.

? Very few organisations were able to provide information on the qualifications of the teachers reached. Approximately 25 % of organisations guessed teachers' qualifications but in the absence of supporting evidence no meaning can be attached to these figures.

? Organisations can generally be divided into three categories : those who do not gather information on teacher qualifications (75%); those who gather data in the form of teacher application forms making this information difficult to access (15%); and those who have established databases (10%). For obvious reasons those programmes which have to register teachers with a tertiary or state institution (formal upgrading programmes) are in the second and third categories.

? The absence of information on teachers' qualifications is a stumbling block to research on INSET and raises questions about the appropriateness of the courses run and the materials developed.

? Approximately 50% of the NGO programmes do not have selection criteria for admission to their programmes. The selection criteria applied by the other 50% of programmes can be divided into two categories:

> *Formal, accredited programmes.* These require teachers to meet the entrance qualifications of universities and to have some experience teaching the subject. In some cases completion of preparatory work is also required.

> *Informal, non-accredited courses. By* and large these were broadly inclusive, for example teachers in-service, or teachers teaching particular subjects at particular levels. Other programmes expected some kind of community or education department approval or recommendation.

? The majority of NGOs reported that they could expand to accommodate more teachers. The main constraint on expansion is said to be funding.

CHAPTER 8 : STAFFING

8.1 Number of personnel employed by INSET NGOs

The total number of people employed by NGOs in the teacher development sector in July 1995 was 1 592. Of these 1 033 were involved in one way or another with the *delivery* of the programmes, that is curriculum or materials development, presenting courses or providing classroom-based support. The other employees were concerned with the finances and administration of the organisations and a small minority with service functions (drivers, gardeners etc.)

TABLE 12 Number of staff and programme staff employed by NGOs by province

Province	Total staff	Programme staff
Gauteng	892	541
KwaZulu Natal	224	164
Western Cape	275	167*
North West	45	33
Free State	18	15
Northern Cape	4	2
Eastern Cape	78	58
Mpumalanga	6	5
Northern Province	50	47
TOTAL	**1 592**	**1 032**

*without Novalis, Master Maths and TOPS

Among the NGOs there are twelve which have over 30 employees. Other NGOs operate with a small staff component and as a result these personnel have developed a wide range of experiences and skills. These include course presentation, workshop facilitation, materials development, report writing, keeping abreast of policy and academic debates, advocacy work, fund-raising etc. In some instances, especially in Gauteng, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu Natal, NGO personnel are also often involved in university teaching, sit on Boards of Trustees, administer and drive NGO and professional fora, attend conferences or are members of government task teams. A Johannesburg-based personnel consultant claims that people with NGO experience are attractive potential employees because they have developed a wide range of skills and are also generally dedicated, motivated and resourceful.

8.2   Race and gender of NGO programme staff

Table 13 below shows that fifty-seven percent of programme staff are female and 43% are male. These figures are slightly skewed by one project which employs over 90 programme staff members most of whom are male. 52% of programme staff are black. 2% are Indian, 6% are coloured and 40% are white. Organisation management and particularly directors are, by contrast. predominantly white and male.

TABLE 13   Race and gender of programme staff

Provinces	F	M	TOT	B	C	I	W	TOT
Gauteng	296	245	541	318	20	9	194	541
W.Cape	92	75	167	30	26	2	49	167**
E.Cape	41	17	58	21	4	1	32	58
N. Cape	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	2
KZNatal	100	48	164*	64	7	4	89	164
FS	11	4	15	3	1	-	11	15
NWest	21	12	33	26	-	2	5	33
Mpumalanga	4	1	5	1	-	-	4	5
N. Prov	12	35	47	41	-	2	4	47
TOTAL	577	439	1032	504	60	20	388	1032

* 16 not provided
** 60 not provided

8.3   Academic qualifications and teaching experience of NGO Programme Staff

There are no broadly agreed criteria for determining the effectiveness of teacher educators. However, South African policy documents and writers (NEPI, ANC, Hofmeyr) have suggested that teacher educators in colleges and, to a lesser extent, universities, are inadequately and inappropriately qualified and are often not suitably experienced for the role of teacher educator. Table 14 provides an overview of the academic and professional qualifications and teaching experience of NGO programme staff. The table indicates that there are many highly qualified staff among them. Thirty-five percent have a post graduate degree. Of these 3 % have a Ph.D, 15 % a Masters degree and 17% a B. Ed. or Honours degree. In addition 36% have eleven or more years of teaching experience and 33% have 5-10 years teaching experience. (In the case of the majority of white programme workers this was not gained in DET, farm or homeland schools.) However, of some concern is the fact that over 41 % of programme personnel, that is, those who develop and/or deliver the programmes, have less than a first degree and 31 % have less than 5 years' teaching experience. At least half of those with less than 5 years' teaching experience have no teaching experience at all.

This phenomenon can, to a large extent, be explained by the fact that NGOs, because of the uncertain nature of funding, cannot offer employees security or career paths. Government departments, universities and colleges are clearly competitors for the best people in this market. NGOs themselves declare that this is a difficulty and that the situation is growing worse as the funding circle tightens.

TABLE 14   Academic qualifications and teaching experience of NGO programme staff

Project Name	Qualifications						Teaching Experience (years)			
	Diploma	B-degree	BEd/Hon	M	PhD	Tot	<5	5-10	11–	Total
Gauteng	177	119	92	77	12	477 a	140	176	184	500 b
W.Cape	40	37	26	31	17	151 c	64	31	52	147 d
E. Cape	17	15	5	6	-	43 e	28	6	24	58
N.Cape	-	2	-	-	-	2	2	-	.	2
KwaZ Natal	53	48	23	22	2	148 f	40	86	37	163 g
Mpumalanga	-	-	3	1		4 h	4	1	-	5
N.Province	8	15	12	5	-	40 i	7	12	27	46 j
FS	3	4	4	1	3	15	7	4	4	15
NWest	16	4	5	8	-	33	6	7	20	33
TOTAL	314	244	170	151	34	913	298	323	348	969

a 52 personnel with less than Diploma; 12 not provided
b 41 unknown
c 16 personnel with less than Diploma
d 20 information not provided
e 10 less than Diploma; 5 not provided
f 15 less than diploma; 1 not provided
g 1 not provided
h 1 less than diploma
i 7 less than diploma
j 1 not provided

There are those who would argue that qualifications and teaching experience are not the only criteria that should be used to assess the suitability of teacher educators. For example, NGOS have in the past won support for their progressive philosophies and methodologies, their enthusiasm, energy, dedication and innovative ideas. All the above need to be considered when assessing the various strengths and weaknesses of teacher educators. However, three points need to be made about the NGO personnel involved in teacher development.

Firstly, it is possible that project personnel are offering INSET to teachers with considerably better qualifications and more teaching experience than they themselves have.

Secondly, there appear to be no minimum qualifications required for involvement in delivering NGO programmes. This is in sharp contrast to universities and colleges which apply fairly strict criteria in their selection processes. Even if one does not agree with these criteria they are objective benchmarks for employment. NGOs appear to have no similar quality control mechanisms in place. Typically Boards of Trustees are responsible for the appointment and termination of contracts but it is not clear what criteria are used for these appointments.

Thirdly, NGO personnel correctly point out that they are among the few teacher educators who have experience of black, farm and other disadvantaged classroom situations. There are two points to be made here.   Few NGO programme personnel have *teaching* experience in these classrooms.   In the absence of teaching experience the teacher support experience gained in malfunctioning schools cannot be considered sufficient expertise to offer teacher development interventions.

Finally, teacher educators in South Africa have also been judged by the philosophy of education which they practice and teach (NEPI, Hofmeyr, Enslin, Chisholm). An inappropriate philosophy of education has been blamed for many of the problems in teacher education and the aim of many NGOs is to undo the effects of fundamental pedagogics and replace it with more progressive philosophies and theories of education. The NGO audit shows that these organisations adopt a

huge variety of approaches and philosophies ranging from sophisticated understandings of how children (and adults) learn, to theories of organisational change. However, in some cases there appears to be low levels of conceptual understanding of why INSET is being conducted or how learning occurs.

8.4   Summary of Chapter 8

? A total of 1 592 staff are employed by NGO INSET programmes. Of these 1 032 are involved in programme delivery.

? These staff members have developed a wide range of skills and experiences including developing materials, presenting courses, facilitating workshops, report writing, fund-raising, and participating in and contributing to academic and policy debates.

? Fifty-seven percent of programme staff are female and 43 % are male.

? Fifty-two percent of programme staff are black, 40%o are white. 2% are Indian and 6% `coloured'.

? Thirty-five percent of programme staff have post graduate degrees; 24% have first degrees; 31 % have diplomas and 10 % have less than diplomas.

? Thirty-one percent of NGO staff have less than 5 years' teaching experience; 33 % have 5-10 years' experience and 33% have more than eleven years' experience.

? Because of the uncertain nature of funding, NGOs cannot offer employees security or career paths. Government departments, universities and colleges are competitors for the best people in this market.   -

? It is possible that in urban areas NGO project personnel are offering INSET to teachers with considerably better qualifications and more teaching experience than they themselves have. • There appear to be no minimum qualifications required for involvement in delivering NGO programmes.

? NGOs appeal to their experience as the basis for their expertise but it is unclear the extent to which experience of malfunctioning schools contributes to one's expertise as a teacher educator.

? The NGO audit shows that NGO project personnel adopt a huge variety of approaches and philosophies to teacher education and INSET.

CHAPTER 9 : FINANCE

9.1   Income

Financial support for NGO teacher development comes from a number of sources (Table 15) and amounts to R152 764 429. The 26 organisations which provide a number of different services in addition to INSET (Hartshorne's category 3) were not able to separate their income according to different activities, so the amount generated by INSET NGOs is slightly inflated by these organisations.

The amount received per province is clearly disproportionate to the numbers of teachers in each province and to the number of NGOs. The fact that Gauteng NGOs receive such high proportions of foreign and local donor funds can probably be explained by their proximity and therefore access to the bases of these donors. However, it must be remembered that NGOs particularly in Gauteng, the Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal provide support to teachers in other provinces. It is not possible to extract expenditure of NGOs by province as NGOs were not able to divide their budgets into amounts spent in each province.

TABLE 15   NGO Income by province

Province	Government	Foreign	Local	IDT	Income	Private Giving	Interest	Other	Total
Gauteng	5 464 355	20 444 832	29 416 868	16 033 838	3 832 073	5 067 425	2 124 248	164 000	82 547 639
N.Prov	975 155	1 057 714	2 052 933	69 984	692 400	-	14 858	1 321	4 864 365
Mpumal	-	210 000	423 600	-	2 100	-	-	36 000	671 700
N.West	1 748 244	161 500	379 000	-	-	-	-	-	2 795 444
Free State	-	278 210	1 031 565	280 698	91 475	-	-	-	1 681 948
W.Cape	-	4 641 663	5 570 258	7 056 254	2 243 147	440 000	-	704 870	20 656 192
E.Cape	120 418	1 546 653	2 886 858	629 745	453 367	-	36 361	-	5 673 402
N.Cape	-	115 541	258 335	-	99 196	-	9 773	-	482 845
KwaZ N	306 981	4 519 233	11 850 149	6 859 453	2 259 378	195 949	249 227	7 140 524	33 390 894
TOTAL	8 615 153	32 975 346	53 869 566	31 466 672	9 673 136	5 703 374	2 434 467	8 046 715	152 764 429

Table 15 shows that local corporate funders are the biggest source of income for NGOs involved in teacher development and support. They provide 35 % of the income while the other two large contributors, foreign funders and the Independent Development Trust, provide 22% and 20% of the funding respectively. Government contributed 6% of the total income of NGOs. This amount consists mostly of money given to PEUP by the former Bophuthatswana Education Department and personnel secondments in the case of Gauteng.   Self-generated income contributed 6% of the total, private giving and endowments 4 %, interest 2 % and other 5 %.

Of some concern is the low proportion of income generated by the organisations from the sale of services or materials. This is particularly worrying in view of the present uncertainty of funding, However, a number of organisations have started charging for their services and materials and this amount should increase in the next years' budgets. Eighty percent of organisations reported some self-generated income. Of these eight reported self-generated income which amounted to more than 10% of their total budget and another seven reported self-generated income of over 20% of their 1994 budgets.

The costs of NGO INSET programmes is an area that has as yet not come under public scrutiny in the same way that the relative costs of teacher education at universities and colleges have. It is clear that most NGOs are unsure of what the cost of their services amounts to. New initiatives

such as the IDT's Thousand Schools Project and the NBI's EQUIP Programme require that school governing bodies decide on INSET priorities. If the school is to decide which NGO services it wishes to buy, the cost of such services and a description of what these costs buy must be available to the school so that those responsible can make informed decisions.

In addition, NGOs are asking to be contracted in to assist provincial governments and in these cases they will also be required to cost their services. The practice of establishing unit costs or per capita costs for INSET work is extremely difficult. Different cost structures have to worked out for different activities. A workshop for 50 teachers cannot be compared to intensive classroom-based support for ten teachers.

It is unlikely that organisations will be able to move to complete independence of donor support as NGOs tend to work among the poorest of teachers and schools and in these cases cannot charge teachers for courses. However, in many cases organisations pay the transport, accommodation and refreshment costs of teachers. In order to ensure the sustainability of these NGO programmes, it will be necessary for participants, schools and education departments to make some contribution to the programme costs.

An informal survey of 28 donors conducted by Khulisa Management Services in June 1995 showed that donor funding of INSET had increased by 38 % since 1993. The chart on page 6 of Appendix 9 shows that local and foreign donors contributed R 69 399 161 to INSET NGOs in 1993 and R 79 751 891 in 1994. In 1995 R 95 765 004 was committed. In this sample there are South African trusts, corporate donors, bilateral and multi-lateral international donors and several US foundations working in South Africa. Like all institutions in South Africa, donors are in the process of revising their programmes. In particular many donors are attempting to change their programmes to follow priorities in the RDP of the Government of National Unity. Therefore this June 1995 snapshot of donor priorities may not even hold in the medium term. However, the survey shows that 79% of donors intend to continue supporting INSET NGOs and only those donors who have changed their mandates, for example the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) and Kagiso Trust, or who are attempting to work in partnership with government, will discontinue their support.

In the light of the real expansion of funding of teacher development NGOs, one explanation for the funding squeeze that NGOs claim to be facing could be the increase in the number of NGOs in the last three years. While the pool of funds has increased so has the competition for the pool and this has resulted in less money for each organisation.

9.2   Fixed assets

Projects were asked to provide the amount spent on land. new buildings, land improvement, renovations, vehicles, equipment, materials and investments in the last five years. A small percentage of organisations did not complete this section. Table 16 shows that a total of

R34 924 546 was spent. However, the majority of organisations were extremely conservative in their estimates and often excluded amounts spent on computers, printers, books etc.

TABLE 16   Amount spent on fixed assets in the past 5 years

Province	Amount spent on fixed assets in past 5 years
Gauteng	R10 804 432
Western Cape	R3 164 149
KwaZulu Natal	R14 302 447
Eastern Cape	R1 776 885
North West	R1 444
Northern Province	R7 816 638
Mpumalanga	R73 000
Free State	R6 520
Northern Cape	R150 000
TOTAL	R34 924 546

9.3   Resources and equipment

Tables 17 and 18 provide information on the equipment and resources owned by NGOs or which they have access to. The figures provided in Tables 16 and 17 are a conservative estimate of the resources, equipment and fixed assets that NGOs have at their disposal. As education departments attempt to reconstruct education and training in South Africa these resources, as well as the human resources located in NGOs, should be used to optimum effect.

TABLE 17 Resources and equipment owned by NGOs

OWNED	GAU	WC	KW	NC	NPr	EC	Mpu	N W	FS	TOT
Resource Centre	18	15	18	1	3	2	2	1	1	61
Libraries	16	13	7	1	4	2	1	2		46
Computers	369	276	78		47	14	56	7	20	867
Laboratories	18	0	0		2	1	1			22
Lecture halls/ classrooms	78	10	14	+	14	19	11	1		147+
Residences	3	1	2		1		42*			49
Vehicles	113+	15	35	1	14	13	12	2	1	205+
Photocopy machines	84+	17	21		9	2	2	3		138+
Video machines	61+	17	48		8	4	2		2	152+
Overhead projectors	36		52		4	6	4	1	1	104
Laminating machines	2	3	1							6
Cameras	7+					1				8+
Printers	3+		1			1				5+
Video Recorders					4	2		1	1	8

TABLE 18 Resources and equipment to which NGOs have access

	GAU	WC	KW	NC	NPr	EC	Mpu	N W	FS	TOT
Resource Centres	45+	90				2		2		139+
Libraries	45+	58			2	4		4	3	106+
Computers	82+	14			1	15		69	1	182+
Laboratories	34+	7				1			1	43+
Lecture halls/ classrooms	1406	+			500	20	1	+	+	1927+
Residences	30+	+				2		2	2	36+
Vehicles	21+	5				1	2	10	3	42+
Photocopy machines	31+	+			1	3	1	40	3	79+
Video machines	24+	+				2		2	1	30+
Overhead projectors	7				4	11				22
Laminating machines	7	5				1				13
Cameras						1				1
Printers					4					4
Video Recorders						1				1

*Wits Rural Facility

9.4 **Summary of Chapter 9**

? Financial support for NGO teacher development comes from a number of sources and amounts to R152 764 429.

? Local corporate funders are the biggest source of income for NGOs involved in teacher development and support. They provide 35% of the NGOs' income while the other two large contributors, foreign funders and the IDT provide 22% and 20% of the funding respectively. Government contributed 6% of the total, self-generated income contributed 6%, private giving and endowments 4%, interest 2%o and other 5%.

? Of some concern is the low proportion of income generated by the organisations from the sale of services or materials. However, a number of organisations have started charging for their services and materials and this amount should increase in the coming years' budgets.

? The costs of NGO INSET programmes is an area that has not come under public scrutiny in the same way that the relative costs of teacher education at universities and colleges have. but it seems certain that they will, especially considering that NGOs are asking to be contracted in to assist provincial governments or to be accredited by higher education institutions.

? The practice of establishing unit costs or per capita costs for INSET work is extremely difficult. Different cost structures have to be worked out for different activities.

? It is unlikely that organisations will be able to move to complete independence of donor support as NGOs tend to work among the poorest of teachers and schools and in these cases cannot charge teachers for courses. However, in many cases organisations pay the transport, accommodation and refreshment costs of teachers. In order to ensure the sustainability of these NGO programmes, it will be necessary for participants, schools and education departments to make some contributions to the programme costs.

? An informal survey of donors conducted by Khulisa Management Services in June 1995 showed that donor funding of INSET had increased in the last two years and that the majority of donors intend to continue their funding of INSET.

? A total of R34 924 546 was spent on fixed assets (land, new buildings, land improvement, renovations, vehicles, equipment, materials and investments) in the last five years. The majority of organisations were extremely conservative in their estimates and often excluded amounts spent on computers, printers, books etc.

? As education departments attempt to reconstruct education and training in South Africa these resources, as well as the human resources located in NGOs, should be used to optimum effect.

CHAPTER 10: GOVERNANCE

10.1   Number and Type of Structures

Table 19 below indicates that teacher development NGOs can be divided into the following governance and legal structures:

TABLE 19   Governance and Legal Structures

Structure	Number
Educational Trusts	42
University Umbrella	22
Section 21 Corporation Not for Gain	17
Various Umbrella Institutions (including Schools, Churches, NGOs, Associations)	11
Unknown	7
Total	99

The table shows that approximately 40 per cent of the teacher development NGOs reported that they are defined as Educational Trusts, over 20% are part of university structures, and the remainder are primarily Section 21 companies or operate under various umbrella structures. Nearly all organisations surveyed reported that they have a governance structure which takes ultimate responsibility for the functioning of the organisation. These structures have a variety of names, including: boards of trustees, boards of directors, boards of control, management committees, members, university senate, etc. Unfortunately, these structures are often loosely defined. Thus for example, not all trusts have trustees and not all university-based NGOs report to the university senate.

Only a small percentage of organisations surveyed have a single governing structure, while the majority have two structures often called the board and the management committee. A few organisations reported that they had three structures and one organisation reported having four structures. .

For 40 teacher training NGOs, the second tier of authority is a Management Committee. These bodies consist of governing body members and NGO staff and are concerned with the day-to-day management of the organisation, preparing financial and programme reports for the governing body and carrying out the decisions of the Board.

Finally, a number of NGOs have advisory committees. In most cases, these committees appear to consist of teachers or educational experts who assist with programmatic planning. In a few cases, there were reports of fund-raising and other advisory committees.

10.2   Powers of Structures

South African law states that non-profit governing boards 'must carry out their duties and exercise their powers with the care, diligence and skill which can be reasonably expected of a person who manages the affairs of others'. Areas where the care, diligence and skill should be focused include:

? Policy Formulation;
? Fund-raising;
? Public Relations; and
? Accountability (financial. programmatic and to beneficiaries/donors).

It is very difficult to gauge from the documentation supplied by organisations how influential their governing bodies are, or how strongly they fulfil the roles described above.

In most cases, organisations surveyed reported that their top decision-making bodies are concerned with budget approval and financial control, including the approval of staff salaries and benefits. These governing bodies are often described in the questionnaires as policy-making bodies although from the description of their powers they were reportedly only adopting the annual reports presented by programme personnel. They are also described as being concerned with personnel policy, particularly the appointment of staff and termination of services. In very few cases, governing bodies play a role in fund-raising and public relations work. Finally, some, but not all, have the power to dissolve the Trust or organisation. Most organisations reported that their governing bodies generally meet twice a year.

It is clear that many of the organisations surveyed face the same problems as other non-profit organisations in South Africa. These include high absenteeism by board members, the `rubber stamping' approval of policies made by staff, and limited initiative. This finding is supported by the fact that some NGOs reported that their trustee meetings were unable to meet quorum requirements for decision-making throughout 1994. In order to address this shortcoming, one NGO recently added the following clause to its constitution:

'Any member who fails to attend three consecutive meetings of the governing body without leave of absence shall be deemed to have resigned.'

A study of non-profit boards (Mathiasen, July 1992) indicates that as organisations grow, their boards must take on new and stronger roles. If the board, like the organisation, does not develop, ultimately the organisation will falter. The typical pattern of transition is from a "following board" essentially supporting the staff of a new organisation to a "governing board" that shares the roles and responsibilities of governing with the staff. The final phase of transition is to an "institutional board" which conducts all fund-raising and takes policy decisions.

Many of the teacher development NGOs who participated in this audit exhibit the characteristics of organisations in transition from a following board to a governing board. This transition process is typically marked by frustration on both sides: the board feels its input is often not meaningful, and staff are frustrated by the lack of input and feedback from the board. This observation is reinforced by views contained in the questionnaires which showed that organisations could not easily describe their governing body's roles and responsibilities. Moreover, there was often a disturbing perception reflected in questionnaire responses that the board should play a managerial, rather than a governing, role. Overall, a board should protect

and nurture its organisation, but not be involved in the day-to-day management of the programmes. The role of the board is not to supplant the NGO's management, but to provide guidance. The National Centre for Non-Profit Governing Boards based in the USA provides guidelines for governing board responsibilities. These can be found in Appendix 12.

Only a few organisations surveyed listed committees under the roles and responsibilities of governing bodies. A mark of a maturing organisation is the need to delegate tasks and responsibilities. This is particularly true for busy board members. Examples of committees include:

?   planning;
?   financial management:
?   personnel policies {job descriptions and grievance policies, but not personnel administration);
?   fund-raising and development (proposals still written by staff, but governing body members play an active role);
?   nominating (selection of the Executive Director, nominating and filling vacancies on the board to ensure balanced representation of communities, political affiliation, age, race, gender, etc.); and
?   public relations.

10.3   Composition of Boards

Most governing bodies of the teacher development NGOs surveyed are composed of individuals who are invited to sit on the Board. Generally they do not represent constituencies but serve in their personal capacities. Often they are prestigious community members. While many have an understanding of education issues, governing bodies are rarely dominated by teacher education stakeholders or experts, such as teachers, principals or teacher educators from colleges and universities.

Table 20 provides a profile of the race and gender of board members. Governance structures in all provinces are dominated by males who make up 65% of governance positions. The racial profile also does not represent the profile of the South African population. Just under 41 % of members of governance structures are black, 51 % are white while less than 6% of governance and management positions are held by `coloureds' and 2% by Indians.

TABLE 20   Composition by Race and Gender of Governance Structures

Provinces	F	M	TOTAL	B	C	I	W	TOTAL
Gauteng	197	466	663	256	25	24	358	663
W. Cape	51	109	160	38	26	-	77	160
E. Cape	9	60	69	25	3	-	41	69
N. Cape	3	8	11	-	11	-	-	11
KZ Natal	73	112	185	98	2	4	81	185
Free State	9	20	29	14	2	-	13	29
North West	11	31	42	28	1	2	11	42
Mpumalanga	11	18	29	11	-	-	18	29
Northern Prov	15	30	45	28	-	-	17	45
TOTAL	437	796	1233	498	70	30	617	1233

F = female, M = male, B = black, C = 'Coloured', I = Indian, W = white

In this context the submissions from the organisations give some cause for concern. First there are a number of people whose names appear on boards five or six times. These high profile individuals include members of parliament and business people. It is questionable in these cases whether they have the time to give quality attention to this important work. Secondly, representatives from the teacher education community, such as teacher educators from universities or colleges, teachers, principals and government officials tend to be absent from the governance structures of NGOs involved in teacher development. Finally, boards tend to lack financial, legal, public relations and fund-raising expertise. All of these factors may serve to constrain the ability of the Boards to make measured and informed decisions about the work of the organisations. It is clear that many organisations should now become more proactive by identifying and approaching individuals selectively to strengthen their organisations.

10.4   Tax Status

Over 50 % of the organisations surveyed are registered with Section 18(A) status which enables the provision of a tax certificate to exempt South African corporate donors from tax equivalent to their donation. A few organisations reported that they were registered under Section 10(1)(1). This section states that all religious, charitable and educational institutions of a public character whether supported wholly or partly from grants from public revenue shall be exempt from paying tax on receipts and accruals to the organisation. It is likely that many of the organisations surveyed have Section 10(1)(f) status, but are unaware of this status. For obvious reasons attainment of tax exemption is viewed favourably by South African corporate donors and will, thus, enhance sustainability.

10.5   Summary of Chapter 10

? Most teacher education NGOs are educational trusts, 20% are university-based and 17% are Section 21 corporations not for gain. These NGOs generally have two management structures: a governing board or university senate and a management committee.

? While South African law specifies that governing bodies must carry out their duties and exercise their powers with care, diligence and skill, the responses to the questionnaires showed that many boards and staff of teacher development NGOs do not understand the role their boards should play.

? Many of the governing bodies of teacher development NGOs are in transition from following boards to governing boards but, if not encouraged, organisational development will falter.

? Governing bodies should take a far more proactive role, publicly committing each member to contribute to the development of NGOs. This entails membership of committees, a real contribution to the work. and perhaps, expansion of the board membership.

? Generally, governing bodies are composed of prominent individuals and rarely of teacher education and other critical expertise. which may constrain the ability of the board to ensure accountability and make informed programmatic decisions.

? Women only hold 35% of all governance positions and white South Africans dominate with 51 % percent of the positions. This profile does not represent the population profile of South Africa. While some provinces show better gender and racial representation than others, clearly there is room for improvement.

? Over 50 % have Section 18(A) tax status, while few reported Section 10(1)(f) status. Teacher development NGOs should attain tax-exempt status whenever possible to enhance their sustainability.

CHAPTER I1 : INSET, NGOs AND EVALUATION IN SOUTH AFRICA: A REVIEW

11.1 Introduction

While the preceding chapters focus on a quantitative delineation of NGOs involved in INSET, the present chapter is an attempt to examine the quality of their work through the review of evaluation reports submitted by NGOs as part of the data collected for the Audit.

A total of 54 evaluations covering 33 INSET programmes were reviewed. These were gathered by requesting all NGOs who participated in the National Teacher Education Audit to supply copies of any evaluations performed of their projects. In addition, Khulisa Management Services were commissioned to gather evaluation studies from funders as part of their informal survey of donors involved in INSET. The evaluations surveyed are referenced in the text in *italics* and listed in Appendix 13.   All other works referred to in the present chapter are listed in the Bibliography.

Conventional wisdom has it that NGOs, being small and flexible, close to their client communities and free from the clumsy bureaucracy of government, are able to deliver services more efficiently and effectively than the state. Korten (1990) recognises three ideal phases in the development of an NGO:

- ? The organisation focuses on a specific local problem and develops an innovative solution
- ? After achieving success, the project gears up its activities and begins to implement the model on a larger scale
- ? A mature phase is reached when the NGO becomes involved in policy advocacy, thus making the lessons learned available to government and other actors

The present chapter examines these claims with respect to INSET NGOs, through an analysis of the evaluations under review.

11.2 Issues in Evaluation Method

2.1 The flight from positivism: a qualitative/quantitative stand-off

Education processes are very difficult to change.   The effects of educational programmes are exceedingly complex and difficult to measure. And, because of the complexity imposed by intervening variables, effects are difficult to assign to particular interventions. Not even the most ardently `quantitative' evaluator would question these propositions today. However, the flight from positivism exhibited by the social sciences since the 1960s has instilled an increasing self-consciousness amongst evaluators about making claims to objectivity

> "…...there can be no such thing as an `objective evaluation'; such a phrase is an oxymoron"
>
> *(Bateson, 1995)*

Two assumptions guide such work:

? Any attempt to provide objective evidence for programme effects would, even if it were possible. reduce the evaluation to such a level of crudity as to miss the most important phenomena.

? The best we can hope for is the informed judgement of someone expert in the field in which the project under evaluation is working:

"……evidence of success should be documented collections of carefully selected anecdotes and testimonials, both positive and negative, couched in the professional judgements of qualified educators." *(Bateson, 1994, 2).*

The above description is the approach most commonly employed in the evaluations under review. The anecdotes which appear in these studies are, in the main, not used as evidence by any stretch of the term, but as illustrations to the assertions of the evaluator. In many cases the anecdotes are not even quoted but merely referred to.

The test case for this approach arises when two evaluators reach different conclusions from the same situation. For example, in their evaluation of the TOPS Management Programme, *Gilmour and Soudien* concluded "from the testimony of facilitators and participants and from the physical organisation of the schools visited" that "Most schools from which participants are drawn are now running far more effectively than before" (13), and that these changes are due to the "considerable impact from the TOPS programme" (22).

Yet, in a review of existing data on TOPS, which included the above study, the *IEQ* evaluation notes gaps with respect to observational data and a lack of adequate comparison which would allow attributing change to the TOPS programme. These observations pose a grave challenge to *Gilmour and Soudien's* conclusions. What does the reader make of this contradiction? Because *Gilmour and Soudien* do not build a systematic case there is no way of testing their evidence and hence of adjudicating between the two reports. Would we believe OJ's defence counsel merely because he is a renowned expert in criminal law?

Evaluations could not happen without expert judgement. However, not only must judgement be delivered, but justice must also be seen to be done, and judgement must be open to review. If the evidence is not systematically presented and if the case is not argued in full, the conclusions must be treated as provisional until corroborated by independent means. The remainder of this section is concerned with a discussion of ways in which the studies under review gather, sift, weigh, test and present evidence in order to build their cases.

The *Schollar* and *Dyrenfurth* evaluations described in Appendix 14 represent exemplars of what have come to be known as the `qualitative' and `quantitative' approaches, respectively. They have been outlined in some detail for three reasons.

First, both represent good evaluation practice because the studies are designed and argued in such a way that inspires confidence in their findings. Since all evaluations are shaped and directed by the questions they attempt to answer and the conditions under which they are conducted, it is a dangerous thing to attempt to prescribe any kind of template for the ideal evaluation. But the real examples described in the appendices may provide invaluable guidance to the novice evaluator. Our discussion below concludes that such guidance is sorely needed in South Africa at the present

time. Much of what follows in this section would appear to be elementary, but our survey indicates that many evaluators do not follow the basic principles of research and evaluation. Second, the two studies illustrate the respective strengths and failures of the two broad approaches to evaluation. *Schollar's* sure-footed classroom observations provide a wealth of insight and information about schools. teachers. pupils and child-centred teaching methods. However, *Schollar* admits that only a quasi-experimental approach is capable of establishing causal links between project interventions and learning outcomes.

Dyrenfurth's rigorous design. on the other hand, allows very little room for doubt that the project pupils have learnt more about technology than their non-project counterparts. However, he is candid about the weakness of the classroom component of his study, and there is a yawning gap between the project managers and their curriculum, on the one hand, and the improved knowledge of the pupils, on the other. Were the learning gains due to good, teacher-proof materials? Or were the teachers central in facilitating the pupil learning gains? What methods did the teachers employ? How were they trained?

There is little overlap between the two studies and we are left with the conclusion that neither approach is complete on its own.

Finally, the *Schollar* and *Dyrenfurth* studies provide fertile examples for both the discussion of methodological issues in the present section, and for the analysis of evaluation findings about INSET projects in section 3 below. They also give conceptual and illustrative flesh to our *concluding* recommendations in section 4.

2.2 Description of the project and its work

Any evaluation should contain a description of the overall dimensions of the project under assessment in order to orient and locate the reader. This description should include:

The objectives and intended outcomes : what the project is attempting to do. It is impossible to attach a value to any initiative if its intentions are unknown. And a vital step in understanding the intentions of an intervention is a clear statement of the problem it sets out to address.

It is fashionable for INSET programmes to distance themselves from `deficit models'. These programmes motivate their intentions instead in terms of a `developmental' approach. However there is no getting around the fact that programmes that provide support, development or training to teachers consider that some teachers and schools are more in need of development than others. What is this need, and how does it manifest itself? are questions which are prerequisite to identifying suitable measures of success.

If, for example, a project is directed towards management training for principals, then it would seem logical for the evaluation to ask about the conditions in the schools which motivate for such training. Is it because there is no timetable after three weeks of the start of the year, because teachers come and go as they please, or because the school day is subject to frequent unscheduled interruptions? And if these are problems, then surely a measure of success of the project would he to look at the extent to which it addresses these dimensions of school management.

Evaluators who adopt a 'qualitative' stance by and large avoid this kind of logic, arguing that an obsessive focus on outcomes obscures much that is valuable. The deficiencies identified above in Dyrenfurth's evaluation of PROTEC could be taken to illustrate the argument. but surely the point is not that evaluations should throw out the outcomes baby because of potential distortions, but should rather add components which render the bath water more transparent.

The activities undertaken in pursuit of the objectives: what the project does.   For example, four-day workshops, one-day planning sessions, classroom visits. Many evaluators either omit this aspect altogether or allow some, but usually not all, of this information to seep out incidentally during the course of the report.   It   is bewildering for the reader to be plunged into analyses of isolated activities without having an overall picture.

The scope of these activities. For example: how many teachers from which schools attended workshops of each type and how frequently. This is the most frequently omitted element of evaluations. As Chapter 7 has shown, in the overwhelming majority of cases the information is not available from organisations. *Khulisa and Schollar* had to piece together what they could, and the results are far from satisfactory.

2.3   Evaluation questions

Evaluations may be commissioned by a variety of agents : the project management, its parent organisation (e.g. a university), the board of trustees. donors, to name the most common. In addition, agents may have a variety of reasons for the evaluation : donors are likely to be interested in fiscal accountability. while trustees may be more interested in management issues. Weiss (1990) points out that this complexity can result in the evaluation not being focused enough to satisfy any of the parties. She recommends that the questions driving the study should be formulated in consultation with major stakeholders and clearly articulated. -

In Leat's (1990) view, stakeholders are often not sufficiently knowledgeable to ask appropriate questions or to assess the adequacy of the answers. This is especially true in what Leat refers to as programme accountability : assessing the quality and relevance of the services offered by the project. This is the most difficult and hence the most underevaluated aspect of NGO work. Because of this problem, there is often a gap between the issues actually addressed by an evaluation and the importance attached to its findings: an assessment which reports favourably on management practices may be taken to imply that the services delivered by the evaluatee are of a satisfactory quality.

These observations are in accord with the findings of our survey. The majority of the evaluations under review do not deal anywhere near adequately with programme effects: the impact of the project on the quality of teaching and learning. And yet, more often than not, whether implicitly or explicitly, the findings are taken as a stamp of assurance of programme quality.

2.4   Gathering information

Four categories of data were utilised in the studies under discussion.

Self report data. This is far and away the most common type of information used in 'qualitative' studies. It is gathered by means of questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires and structured interviews are amenable to a collation and quantification of answers, and hence of

deriving a weighted picture of stakeholder views. Unstructured situations, on the other hand, give more scope for views not considered by the project or evaluator and may be very useful in questioning

Self report data is particularly useful in ascertaining the disposition of participants towards the programme. This information is important, but *Schollar's* study indicates that feeling good about a project, even being convinced that it is making a qualitative difference is not sufficient evidence of such change.

In the assessment of outcomes, self report data must be subject to rigorous testing, not so much because of possible bad faith on the part of respondents, although this must remain a possibility, given the fact that evaluations often influence life and death decisions around the allocation of resources. Rather, self report data must be tested for the influence of excessive good faith programme staff are idealistic and dedicated; participants have worked hard and are excited about the possibilities of the new methods solving what seem to be insurmountable problems; everyone wants the programme to succeed. Under such circumstances it is easy to confuse best intentions, and changes in the forms of teaching and learning, with qualitative improvements.

Project documents. These are important, together with interviews with project staff, for understanding the goals, activities, intended outcomes and scope of the programme.

Classroom observations. Classroom observations provide an enormously rich source of data about general conditions in schools, qualitative assessment of teaching methods, the quality of learning, the use of equipment and materials, and on discrepancies between the forms of reaching and learning behaviours and their outcomes.
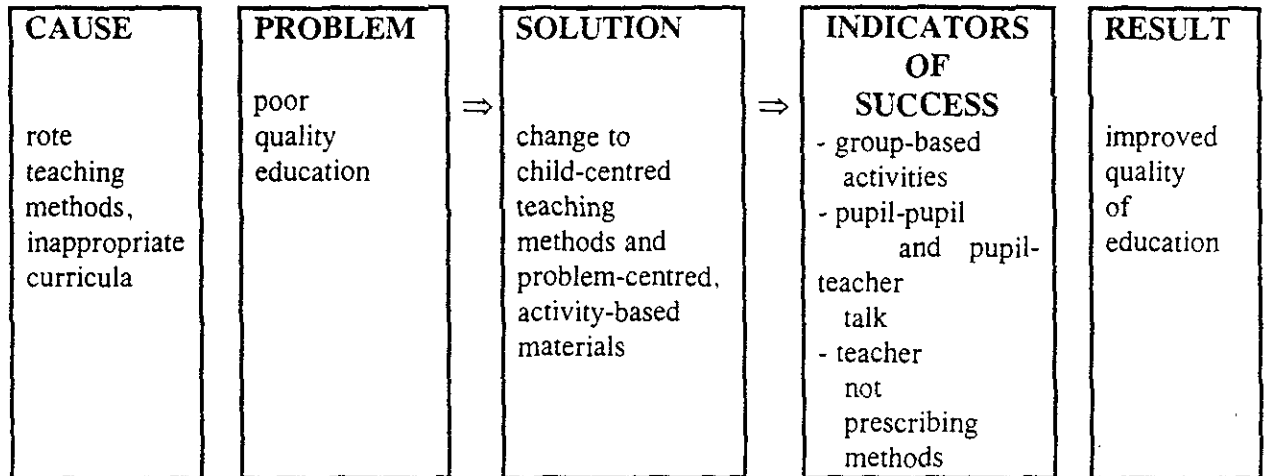
Expert judgement is indispensable in the assessment of these aspects of programme quality. But, as discussed in 2.1 above, the case needs to be systematically built before judgement is delivered. Obtaining commensurability of dassroom assessments across different situations and observers. and making the criteria for such assessments transparent is a notoriously slippery problem. Schedules for guiding lesson observations were used in a number of the evaluations reviewed as a way of addressing this issue. *Khulisa,* for example, devised a schedule for quantifying and comparing certain classroom behaviours, such as the level and quality of pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher interactions.

Instruments for assessing cognitive skills. The most reliable instruments for this purpose are those which have been validated and used by other evaluators. This is the route taken by *Dyrenfurth.* However, where a project is challenging the conventional curriculum, a situation which applies to most programmes covered by this review, by definition, no validated instruments exist. *Khulisa* obviated this problem by constructing a test in consultation with the evaluatees, while *Bateson (1995)* adapted an existing validated instrument with the help of the programme implementers.

Khulisa added a further component : individual pupil interviews in which the pupils were asked to solve given problems and to talk about their strategies. This provided a very fruitful source of insight.

2.5   Assessing effects

Which effects; what measures? Many NGO-based INSET projects in South Africa work within a paradigm which may be summarised as follows:

CAUSE	PROBLEM		SOLUTION		INDICATORS OF SUCCESS	RESULT
rote teaching methods, inappropriate curricula	poor quality education	⇒	change to child-centred teaching methods and problem-centred, activity-based materials	⇒	- group-based activities - pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher talk - teacher not prescribing methods	improved quality of education

Schollar's evaluation of the Palabora INSET programme undermines confidence in this paradigm in two ways:

?   Success in changing what happens in the classroom depends to a considerable degree on factors beyond the control of the classroom teacher.

?   The indicators of success listed above do not themselves reflect an improved quality of teaching or learning, but an intermediate state which may or may not lead to improved outputs. This confusion between an outcome and an intermediate state has been referred to as face validity (Cohen and Manion, 1980).

Both findings are corroborated by a number of other studies and we will return to these issues in section 3 below. The methodological point to make at this stage is that intermediate states should not be confused with outcomes indicative of success. But, identifying what is meant by quality and finding ways of measuring it are both vexed questions.

Weingart (Muller and Vinjevold. 1995) notes a move amongst evaluators internationally towards focusing on outcome indicators as the most reliable measure of programme impact. This trend is beginning to emerge in South Africa. Thus, for *Schollar,* the ultimate objective of an INSET programme is to impact on learning. "as measured by sustained enhancement of pupil performance." *(op cit, 27). Dyrenfurth* supports this view to the exclusion of `process' considerations, while *Khulisa* and *Bateson (1995)* both combine an examination of classroom practices with qualitative measure of learning outcomes.

Comparison. Once a suitable measure of success has been identified. assessing whether change has occurred requires a comparison. A surprising number of evaluators not only managed to discern change on the strength of one-off observations of lessons with a limited number of teachers, but also considered their method rigorous enough to attribute this change to the programme under evaluation (e.g. *Adler, Dlamini).* Such findings cannot be accepted as valid. Discerning change and attributing it to a specific intervention are the most problematic aspects of

evaluation, requiring particular care in design, instrumentation and data testing. Comparison is a sine qua non.

Comparison may be achieved through:

? A pre/post test method. None of the evaluations under review employed this technique, largely because of a shortage of time, and the fact that the programme was in progress by the time the evaluation was commissioned. Indeed, having the programme subjects available in a pre-intervention state is a very rare situation.

? An experimental/control group design. This is the most common form of comparison and was used by *Dyrenfurth, Bateson (1995)* and *Khulisa.*

? Experimental/baseline data design. No suitable baseline data exists in South Africa at present, and a number of evaluators have called for the construction of such measures.

? Expert judgement. While Weingart (Muller and Vinjevold, *1995)* insists that quantification is essential for reliable comparison. we would not dismiss the use of unstructured expert judgement to identify at least tentative indications of change. *Schollar,* for example, noted that teachers who had been on the Palabora programme longer were more confident and adroit with interactive classroom methods than newcomers. This is a very important observation that casts a more optimistic light on what might otherwise be a rather pessimistic conclusion concerning the future of such practices. In general, however, comparisons are facilitated and conclusions concerning change more convincingly argued if methods involving expert judgement are structured and quantified.

2.6   Sifting and testing data

Triangulation. *Schollar* used 'triangulation' to test his self report data; his classroom observations caused him to reject the views of teachers, principals and other stakeholders that the programme is improving the quality of teaching and learning.

Statistics. Quantitative data is best tested by statistical means : *Dyrenfurth* was able to ascertain that the differences in mean scores across his experimental and control groups were unlikely to be due to chance variations within each group.

Parts and the whole. Only once suitable indicators of success have been identified, a change in these indicators established, and the variables controlled in such a way that the change is attributable beyond reasonable doubt to a specific intervention, can it be said that the intervention is successful in the sample under evaluation. However, it still cannot be said that the programme as a whole is successful : in order to be able to reach this conclusion, the evaluator must demonstrate that the sample tested is representative of the programme population as a whole.

Only *Dyrenfurth* was able to meet this criterion, and then only because he was evaluating a pilot project and used the entire pilot as his sample. It remains to be seen whether the project can deliver the same results on a larger scale; the evaluator has doubts and includes recommendations necessary for impact on a larger scale.

Bateson (1995) involved the project under evaluation in a self-sampling technique in which six of SEP's ten regions were asked to pick ten 'typical' project schools, and ten control schools which matched the project schools on a number of criteria. While the sample is certainly large enough to satisfy the demands of statistical significance, the method of obtaining the sample must suffer from the same weaknesses as other forms of self report data. He also does not outline the criteria for choosing the six sampled regions. As a consequence, the relationship between the 60 schools included in the sample and the approximately 1200 schools which the project claims to service must be open to question.

In any event, as *Khulisa* notes, no defensible sampling process can be conducted given the incomplete state of the data bases of all the projects under evaluation. The existence of an accurate data base is a prerequisite for any systematic sampling procedure.

2.7 Reliability and validity

The reliability of a set of data or conclusions refers to the degree to which the findings are likely to be repeated, at a different time, with a different sample of the programme population or with a different evaluator (Cohen and Manion, *1980).* Naturally different evaluators bring specific strengths and experiences to bear, and hence produce different insights. However, in respect of the evaluation per se - deciding whether the evaluatee has been successful in meeting its goals - the criterion of reliability demands that the overall conclusion will coincide with that of another independent study.

Validity refers to the degree to which the evaluation succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure.For *Bateson (1995)* validity means:

"an integrated evaluative judgement of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical . rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores and other modes of assessment"
(Messick, quoted in Bateson, 1995, 1)

Our methodological discussion suggests three criteria for assessing the reliability and validity of any evaluation which attempts to examine the quality of any INSET programme:

? Because of the problem of intervening states, a comparative quantitative analysis of pupil learning gains is the most effective method of establishing whether an INSET programme has resulted in an improvement in the quality of schooling. It goes without saying that this component should follow the established rules for experimental design and statistical significances.

? A qualitative analysis, which relies heavily on expert classroom observation, is necessary to investigate the reasons for any pupil learning gains which may or may not occur. In order to allow for alternative interpretations, all relevant evidence should be presented in support of the argument.

? The study as a whole should provide a systematic argument linking its conclusions to a description of the project and its intentions, the identification of outcomes appropriate to testing the successful realisation of these intentions, and the effects

of the project as ascertained through the relevant quantitative and qualitative data sources.

There is no such thing as a perfect evaluation; nor is any evaluation without illuminating insights. In our discussion below of the findings of the 50 studies under review, all significant conclusions are drawn from those studies (or parts of those studies) which were considered to be more reliable.

11.3. Findings of the evaluations

3.1 Boundary conditions

One of the most striking and widespread findings is the low work rate in many South African schools. A number of evaluators mentioned this as a factor which severely inhibited both their own work, and the successful implementation of the programme under evaluation. *Khulisa* for example, demonstrates a strong correlation between overall management and the environmental quality of the school, and good test results amongst pupils.

Poor school management is a major factor in the majority of schools serviced by the projects covered by this review. However, it is clear that these practices have become part of institutional and community cultures. As such, their eradication which is only likely to occur at a relatively slow ameliorative rate - requires far more than INSET with individual teachers, with or without management training for principals and other leaders. Change will need to involve the entire school community : pupils, teachers, management, parents and provincial and district officials.

The magnitude of the problem is indicated by *Bateson's (1994)* estimate that 50 days of the school year are lost to effective education; this is corroborated by *Peacock's* estimate that the average school week is reduced by around 40%. Specific practices giving rise to this situation include:

- ？ an inordinate amount of time given to timetabling *(Schollar)* and testing *(Peacock);*
- ？ early closing of the school day *(Schollar),* and the week *(Peacock, Bateson, 1994);* no school on pay-day *(Bateson, 1994);*
- ？ lengthy preparations for athletics *(Peacock, 1995; Schollar, Khulisa);*
- ？ violence and strikes ‾*(Jansen and Perold; Bateson, 1994)*
- ？ doubling of classes *(Schollar, Peacock).*

It seems probable that increasing the work rate of schools will have an immeasurably greater effect on the productivity and competitiveness of the country than any amount of INSET or management training on their own. *Schollar's* suggestion that making the school responsible for the establishment and maintenance of certain boundary conditions as a prerequisite for the implementation of INSET programmes in the school is only one of a number of institutional approaches discussed more fully in Chapter 6 of our report.

3.2 INSET model and project management

The overall conceptualisation of any INSET programme, and its strategic planning and management are closely related. Collectively the evaluators identified five priority issues.

Tension between teachers' perceived needs and project priorities. In their attempts to develop innovative solutions to curricular and pedagogical problems, projects can run ahead of teachers' abilities to relate these innovations to the everyday demands of their classrooms, such as getting through the syllabus, coping with large classes and preparing their students for exams *(Adler, Mareka, Schollar)*. This problem is greatly exacerbated by the fact that many NGOs are antagonistic to the current curriculum, and their programmes are directed towards fundamentally restructuring it.

Co-ordination with government. Innovation and change always place those responsible for their implementation in a state of tension. But the tension noted above would be relieved if INSET initiatives directed towards classroom innovation were conceived within a broader programme of curriculum reform, which is at least approved by government if not initiated and drawn by provincial and district authorities.

In-school support of teachers is widely regarded as important in improving the chances of innovative practices being taken up by teachers *(Adler, Khulisa, Mareka, Jansen and Perold, and Wederkind)*. However, this is a labour intensive activity and may require long periods of sustaining before effects are noticed *(Adler)*. It is thus extremely costly. Some programmes, notably SEP *(Bateson, 1995)* and PMP *(Khulisa)*, are addressing this issue through models in which government subject advisors, inspectors or seconded teachers take responsibility for some project activities. Indeed, the third and final stage of the PMP model envisages government taking responsibility for the programme and implementing it in all schools.

Management Information systems (MIS). Three evaluators *(Adler, Schollar and Khulisa)* noted that their work was greatly hampered by the absence of a proper MIS on the part of the organisations being evaluated. Chapter 7 of this report indicates that this problem is widespread amongst INSET NGOs. *Khulisa* makes the point that without a MIS the project is unable to assess its own qualitative impact and scale of activity, and hence unable to calculate unit costs.

Research. A number of NGOs are ardent advocates of their own work. Their arguments are driven by the construction of normative models based largely on untested assumptions, rather than by on-going assessment of their achievements. They have leapt to Korten's (see section 1) third stage without consolidating the first two. There is a high degree of consensus amongst evaluators *(Bateson, 1995; Dyrenfurth; Adler; Khulisa, Schollar)* that projects need to continuously research and evaluate the efficiency and impact of their models.

Certification. The absence of suitable incentives for teachers to attend and implement INSET programmes is identified as a common problem, and many evaluators recommend certification of the programme as a solution. *(Schollar, Khulisa, Adler, Peacock)*.

For Schollar, certification should include an assessment of competence.

3.3 Effects on teachers

According to many of the evaluations under review it is easier to change the form of teaching practices than their substance *(Adler, Schollar, Khulisa, Peacock)*.

"The struggle to introduce an alternative and more enlightened methodology has been won. The next target is becoming clear : to re-introduce and reinforce awareness of the need for more cognitive effort to be routinely required of pupils. It is not nearly enough for teachers to merely `interact' with pupils, without reference to the quality of the work being demanded from the pupils."

(Peacock, op cit, 2)

Khulisa noted a correlation between an improvement in teaching quality and:

? smaller class sizes
? length of time of teachers on INSET programme
? increasing age of teachers

Schollar points out that improved teaching quality does not involve:

"the simple application of a supposedly `alternative' or `progressive' methodology, but the extension of the capacity of teachers to use appropriate methodologies: appropriate to the topic, the class and the school."

(op cit, 17)

These observations give support to the reservations we expressed in section 2.5 above about using the forms of teacher behaviour as measures of INSET success.

3.4 Effects on pupils

Evaluators are increasingly recognising the importance of focusing on pupil performance as the most valid indicator of INSET success *(Adler, Schollar, Jansen and Perold, Khulisa, Peacock).* In this respect, *Peacock* presents a sobering picture of many interactive classrooms:

"most of the children most of the time do nothing...and certainly nothing as cognitively demanding as individual reading and writing"

(op cit, 13)

Khulisa found that, while project children were able to communicate their solution strategies to arithmetic tasks better than their control group counterparts, they did not score a significantly higher number of correct answers. An examination of the solutions employed by the project children raises the disturbing possibility of constructivist methods actually being counterproductive : by trapping children in ad hoc, `baby' methods of calculating they are prevented from acquiring a systematic perspective of the discipline of mathematics and higher order algorithmic processes.

These arguments clearly illustrate the dangers of INSET projects being driven by evangelical zeal for a particular method rather than by a research-based. enquiring approach.

However, significant rays of light are provided by the *Dyrenfurth and Bateson (1995)* studies demonstrating positive pupil learning gains as a result of the PROTEC and SEP projects.

3.5   Costs

The establishment of accurate MIS processes, and separate cost centres for different project activities are prerequisites for establishing the costs of INSET work *(Schollar, Khulisa)*.

Adler notes that the high cost and relatively small returns on activities such as classroom based materials development, and in-school teacher support do not warrant their continuation.

Khulisa advocates that a minimum of 25% of costs should be from sources other than donors., These sources should include fees, preferably on a sliding scale to ensure that low income participants do not face barriers to participation). Other income would include returns from investments, sale of materials and services, contracts with government.

11.4   Conclusion

4.1   INSET innovation and evaluation

NGOs involved in INSET are concerned with finding innovative solutions to the problem of the poor quality of the schooling system. Evaluation is to innovation what a hand is to a glove. Without continuous assessment we have no way of valuing these INSET initiatives : whether to expand, close down, fine-tune or redirect. It is like shooting in the dark.

South African evaluation practice is in need of a great deal of fine-tuning. Our analysis concludes that, in order to assess programme quality, evaluations would contain three essential components:

- ?   A systematic and well substantiated argument linking project intentions, activities and outcomes.
- ?   A quantitative assessment of suitable project outcomes - preferably pupil learning gains - controlled by means of appropriate comparative techniques.
- ?   A qualitative assessment - which should probably include careful classroom observation - into the reasons for any quantitative changes detected.

4.2   Evaluation review questions

Our conclusions are shaped by three questions:

Q1a: Are NGOs able to develop and implement new models of INSET which impact on schools and classrooms so as to make teaching and learning more meaningful and effective?

Answer   :   A qualified yes.

Qlb: What conditions would optimise such impact?

Answer   :

- ? Establishment of an accurate management information system.
- ? Explicit description of the INSET model and its assumptions.
- ? Continuous research and evaluation of project outcomes.

Q2a: Are NGOs able to provide INSET on the kind of scale required to improve the quality of substantial sectors of the schooling system to any significant degree?

Answer : Perhaps

Q2b: What conditions would facilitate NGO delivery to scale?

Answer :
- ? An unqualified positive answer to Qla.
- ? Working closely with government within a clearly articulated division of labour.
- ? Certification, which includes an assessment of classroom competence.

Q3: What conditions would promote NGO INSET delivery in an affordable manner?

Answer :
- ? A careful analysis of component costs, through the establishment of cost centres for different programme activities.
- ? Assessment of the affordability of the various components, by comparing costs with educational returns.
- ? Inventing ways of recovering costs through the sale of services to teachers and government departments; through IZDP grants; and from donors.

CHAPTER 12 CONCLUSION

12.1 Innovative teaching materials

Seventy per cent of organisations have developed and/or provide materials as part of their service to schools and teachers. Although the audit asked NGOs to submit examples of materials it was not possible to do an in-depth evaluation of these materials. A wide range of education and subject specialists would be needed for this task. However, the wealth of well designed, interactive and stimulating materials submitted suggests that this is a strength of the NGOs and a. resource that should be tapped by new education departments, schools and publishers.

12.2 Materials and curriculum development

Fifty-six organisations indicated that they are concerned with curriculum development and 65 with materials development. It is clear that this is an area in which NGOs have played an important part not only in assisting teachers with curriculum and materials development but with developing and advocating new curricula and materials to replace the often outmoded, irrelevant and racist offerings of the past.

12.3 School-based support and classroom support

The number of organisations which provide school-based courses (58) and classroom support (66) is high given that these forms of INSET are widely acclaimed to be effective but are also time-consuming and expensive forms of INSET. It can safely be said that no other provider is offering these forms of INSET in black schools in any sustained way.

12.4 Database of teachers and schools

Chapters 7 and 11 of this report indicate that in general NGOs do not keep comprehensive information on the numbers of teachers reached, the names and location of the schools at which these teachers teach or the race, gender, qualifications and teaching experience of the teachers. This lack of information on the profile of teachers reached, especially their location and qualifications constrains policy decisions. Without this information it is impossible to assess the qualitative impact of INSET NGOs, the scale, location and nature of activities or the unit costs of these various activities.

12.5   Uneven Distribution of NGOs

NGOs are distributed unevenly through South Africa. However the reach and location of NGO INSET work can only be accurately described once NGOs are able to provide names of schools where they work. This information is essential if duplication is to be avoided, partnerships are to be established and if individual schools and teachers are to make informed choices about INSET provision.

12.6   Costs of INSET delivery

The establishment of accurate MIS processes, and separate cost centres for different project activities are prerequisites for establishing the costs of INSET work. Again without this information teachers, schools and government departments cannot make informed decisions about contracting NGOs, government departments, universities, colleges etc. to do INSET work. More research into unit costs is required by all INSET providers in comparable units

12.7   Qualifications of teacher educators

There are no broadly agreed criteria in South Africa for determining the effectiveness of teacher educators. However South African policy documents and writers (KEPI, ANC, Hofmeyr) have suggested that teacher educators in colleges, and to a lesser extent, universities are inadequately and inappropriately qualified and often do not have sufficient or suitable teaching experience for the role of teacher educator. If we use these criteria to judge NGO programme staff we find that there are many highly qualified staff among them. However over 41 % of programme personnel, that is, those who develop and/or deliver the programmes have less than a first degree and 31 % have less than 5 years' teaching experience. At least half of those with less than 5 years' teaching experience have no teaching experience at all.

This phenomenon can to a large extent be explained by the fact that NGOs, because of the uncertain nature of funding, cannot offer employees security or career paths. Government departments, universities and colleges are clearly competitors in this market.

NGOs themselves declare that this is a difficulty and that the situation is growing worse as the funding circle tightens.

NGOs appeal to their experience, progressive philosophies and methodologies, their enthusiasm, energy, dedication and innovative ideas as the basis of their expertise. All the above need to be weighed up when considering the various strengths and weaknesses of teacher educators. However, there appear to be no minimum qualifications or teaching experience required for involvement in delivering NGO programmes.

12.8 Governance structures

The submissions from NGOs on the composition and functions of the governance structures give some cause for concern. First there are a number of high profile people including members of parliament and business people on these governance structures. This may explain why some NGOs were unable to meet with a quorum of Trustees throughout 1994. Secondly, in many cases representatives from the teacher education community, that is teacher educators from universities or colleges, teachers, principals and government officials are absent from the governance structures of NGOs involved in teacher development. Similarly in many cases there are no financial experts on the Boards. All of these factors may serve to constrain the ability of the Boards to make measured and informed decisions about the work of the organisations.

12.9 INSET Priorities

There is much debate about the priorities of teacher education at both *PRESET* and INSET levels. All the recent policy documents on INSET in South Africa stress that INSET priorities should be articulated as a matter of urgency. The various lists of priorities that have been established by policy analysts remain disembodied lists of priorities unless they are placed within the framework of where South Africa wants to be and what kind of citizens we want to have. Bobby Godsell at the Teacher Education conference in August 1995 provided an example of this when he suggested that we need teachers who will develop creative, responsible citizens with language, computational and thinking skills. If such a framework for development is not established government and other teacher education stakeholders will be subject to sectoral and political pressures. Those in favour of equity will advocate INSET at the primary levels; those who see the growth of the economy and global competitiveness as of supreme importance will support maths and science INSET at the junior secondary levels etc.

This report has argued that because NGOs are said to be flexible and innovative and work closely with their client communities they are able to ascertain needs in the areas that they work in and that policy makers should take seriously the shifts in emphasis of NGOs as they pilot new programmes and adapt them to changing needs and circumstances. At the same time if a co-ordinated effort to address South Africa's INSET priorities is to be undertaken NGOs must take note of national and provincial governments' priorities.

A priority which emerges from the evaluations of NGOs is the need to address the low work rate in many South African schools. A number of evaluators mentioned this as a factor which severely inhibited both their own work, and the successful implementation of the programme under evaluation.

It is clear that the poor work rate practices have become part of institutional cultures. As such, their eradication which is only likely to occur at a relatively slow ameliorative rate requires far more than INSET with individual teachers, with or without management training for principals and other leaders. Change will need to involve the entire school community: pupils, teachers, management, parents and provincial and district officials.

12.10   Tension between teachers' perceived needs and NGO priorities

In their attempts to develop innovative solutions to curricular and pedagogical problems, NGOs~ can run ahead of teachers' abilities to relate these innovations to the everyday demands of their classrooms, such as getting through the syllabus, coping with large classes and preparing their students for exams. This problem is greatly exacerbated by the fact that many NGOs are' antagonistic to the current curriculum, and their programmes are directed towards fundamentally restructuring it.

12.11   Co-ordination with government

Innovation and change always place those responsible for their implementation in a state of tension. But the tension noted above would be relieved if INSET initiatives directed towards classroom innovation were conceived within a broader programme of curriculum reform, which is at least approved by government if not initiated and actively supported by provincial and district authorities.

In-school support of teachers is widely regarded as important in improving the chances of innovative practices being taken up by teachers. However, this is a labour intensive activity and I may require long periods of sustaining before effects are noticed. It is thus extremely costly. Some programmes, notably PEUP, SEP, PSP, CPE and PMP are addressing this issue through models in which government subject advisors, inspectors or seconded teachers take responsibility for some project activities. Indeed, the third and final stage of the CPE model envisages government taking responsibility for the programme and implementing it in all schools.

12.12   Accreditation

The absence of suitable incentives for teachers to attend and implement NGO INSET programmes is identified as a common problem by NGOs. Many NGOs and evaluators recommend accreditation of the programmes as a solution.

12.13   Effects on teachers

According to many of the evaluations under review it is easier to change the form of teaching practices than their substance (Adler, Schollar, Khulisa. Peacock).

> "The struggle to introduce an alternative and more enlightened methodology has been won. The next target is becoming clear : to re-introduce and reinforce awareness of the need for more cognitive effort to be routinely required of pupils. It is not nearly enough for teachers to merely 'interact' with pupils, without reference to the quality of the work being demanded from the pupils."
>
> (Peacock, ibid, 2)

INSET providers need to consider the effects of introducing new methodologies in single short interventions and how these methodologies are translated into the classroom. In the view of one classroom-based researcher the way in which many teachers interpret group work sets up situations which conspire *against* any improvement in the quality of children's learning experiences.

Much of the international and local literature asserts that INSET should be underpinned by adequate theories of learning and change. The NGO Audit shows that these organisations adopt a huge variety of approaches and philosophies ranging from sophisticated understandings of how children (and adults) learn, the role of language/maths in learning and theories of organisational change to an absence of any conceptual understanding of what was being done and why.

The question arises what does this mean for the many teachers that are being exposed to a number of different INSET programmes. It is unlike y that this constitutes a case of healthy exposure to variety but rather that it leads to learning confusion. It is therefore important that schools and individual teachers need to plan for a programme of INSET rather than ad hoc attendance at a variety of interventions

12. 14   Effects on pupils

Evaluators are increasingly recognising the importance of focusing on pupil performance as the ultimate and most valid indicator of INSET success (Adler. Schollar, Jansen and Perold, Khulisa. Peacock). In this respect, Peacock presents a sobering picture of many interactive classrooms:

> "most of the children most of the time do nothing...and certainly nothing as cognitively demanding as individual reading and writing"
>
> (op cit. 13)

One evaluation found that, while project children were able to communicate their solution strategies to arithmetic tasks better than their control group counterparts, they did not score a significantly higher number of correct answers. An examination of the solutions employed by the project children raises the disturbing possibility of constructivist methods actually being counterproductive : by trapping children in ad hoc. 'baby' methods of calculating they are prevented from acquiring a systematic perspective of the discipline of mathematics and higher order algorithmic processes.

These arguments clearly illustrate the dangers of INSET projects being driven by evangelical zeal for a particular method rather than by a research-based, enquiring approach. However, significant rays of light are provided by the Dyrenfurth(1995) and Bateson (1995) studies demonstrating positive pupil learning gains as a result of the PROTEC and SEP projects.

12.15   Research

A number of NGOs are ardent advocates of their own work.   Their arguments are driven by the construction of normative models based on untested assumptions, rather than by on-going assessment of their achievements. There is a high degree of consensus amongst evaluators

(Bateson, 1995; Dyrenfurth; Adler; Khulisa, Schollar) that projects need to continuously research and evaluate the efficiency and impact of their models.

South African evaluation practice is in need of a great deal of fine-tuning. Our analysis concludes that evaluations that seek to address the question of the effects and impact of INSET work on teachers and pupils should contain three essential components:

- ? A systematic and well substantiated argument linking project intentions, activities and outcomes.
- ? A quantitative assessment of suitable project outcomes - preferably pupil learning gains - controlled by means of appropriate comparative techniques.
- ? A qualitative assessment - which should probably include careful classroom observation - into the reasons for any quantitative changes detected.