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Open learning, educational development and empowerment : the case of the Open learning Systems Education Trust (OLSET).

Silva, Adilia Suzette Feio

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Focuses of this study

This study is an evaluation of an open learning and distance education programme, English in Action (EIA), which is currently (2007) run across all nine provinces of South Africa. EIA is broadcast daily by the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) as well as by community radio stations. The organisation responsible for the development and implementation of the EIA programme is a non-governmental organisation (NGO), called the Open Learning Systems Education Trust (OLSET).

The programme aids teachers of foundation phase classes (Grades 1 to 3) in teaching their second language learners to speak English using interactive radio instruction. OLSET has developed two curricula, one for teachers and the other for learners. Hence, one can say that the programme is targeting two groups, namely teachers and learners, and consequently these are the communities it is reaching.

This study focuses on investigating whether the programme has met its objectives according to the educational development theory underlying its formulation and the open learning principles on which it has been based. In addition, the study investigates whether the programme has provided a vehicle for empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels as per Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment. The rationale for this aspect of the investigation is that empowerment essentially involves providing opportunities for people to take control of aspects of their lives, and thus, while not necessarily a direct objective of the EIA programme itself, this seems both a likely and desirable outcome, particularly given the teacher-focused element of the programme (Rappaport, 1990), as well as the principles which underpin open learning (Robinson & Latchem, 2003).

1.2. Focuses of the programme

The focuses of the programme are incorporated in a set of objectives (described on page 26) and in a curriculum development and implementation plan (OLSET, 1995). These documents were formulated during the programme's initial phase of implementation. They are used in this study

as a yardstick against which to examine its subsequent growth from an initial 14 500 learners in 1993, to its current scale in 2007 (1.8 million learners, or roughly 20% of South Africa's primary school children). In essence, the programme aims to provide ongoing professional in-service support for teachers and continual support for teachers and learners, using distance education via radio that supports the implementation of Curriculum 2005. A range of skills are targeted for improvement.

While empowerment is not identified within these as a direct objective of the programme, Hartshorne (1978) has postulated that educational development requires a component of community development and empowerment in order to be effective in addressing people's needs. Furthermore, a premise of open learning is that, due to its very nature, open learning itself should be able to empower (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). Thus, empowerment has been the psychological theory used in this study to examine the perceptions of the teachers and principals involved in the implementation of the programme.

1.3. Focuses of the evaluation

The evaluation focuses on the teachers' and principals' perceptions of the programme derived from questionnaires, personal accounts and observations of how the EIA programme operated over a 2-year period between 2001 and 2003. This was a significant period for OLSET, which had only limited funding available in 2001 but by 2003 had managed to increase funding well beyond an adequate level. Thus, a comparison of how the programme worked in both funding scenarios is attempted based on themes raised by the teachers and principals in both these years.

In addition, based on the data, evaluative judgements are provided relative to the programme objectives and a theory-driven evaluation is undertaken. Both stakeholder theory drawn from sources within the programme (such as programme documents), as well as scientific theory drawn from the literature are used to establish whether there is evidence that the programme met its objectives at school and classroom level and whether there is evidence that teachers had been empowered through the type of classroom support and in-service training provided.

1.4. Rationale and research aims

Many interactive radio instruction projects such as "Under the Tree" in Guinea (USAID, 2006), "Jugando en il Pidi" in Bolivia (Bosch & Cespo, 1995), English as a second language instruction in Kenya (Searle, 1985), mathematics and Portuguese programmes in Cape Verde, Sao Tome and Principe, Guinea Bissau and Mozambique, as well as others, have been reported as working well with small audiences by the Development Research Group (2005) of the World Bank. However, all have had difficulty in moving to large scale instruction or establishing the necessary links with government that such an endeavour would require (Harvey & Peacook, 2001; Perraton & Creed, 2000). This is in stark contrast to the OLSET EIA programme, which has expanded very rapidly over a 15-year period to serve a large number of people across Southern Africa (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

This study focuses on teachers' and principals' perceptions of the operation of OLSET at a point in time when the EIA programme was operating on a large scale. It also adds to the small number of evaluative studies of large-scale educational projects, which have previously been conducted in South Africa (Holderness, 1990; MacDonald, 1983; Ntshoe, 2000; Potter & Moodie, 1991). As in these previous studies, it utilises educational development as a basis for evaluation of whether OLSET is meeting its objectives in providing support to teachers and learners at school-level. In addition, analysis constitutes an explicit theory-driven evaluation of the EIA programme, in which its outcomes are examined against the open learning principles in which it is based.

Programme evaluations can be useful if they help researchers gain insight into conditions of success and sustainability (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). Programme evaluations moreover serve to strengthen and preserve the integrity of the human service[1] (Attkisson & Broskowski, 1978).

While there is abundant experience of using technologies in distance education to serve the needs of various audiences for basic education (cf. Eastmond, 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000), assessments, documentations and especially strong empirical evaluations are scarce (Perraton & Creed, 2000). Although distance education projects using interactive radio are typically the best-

[1] Human service refers to organisations or programmes designed to alleviate individual or family problems, or to fulfil needs in the areas of growth and development, for example, education.

documented (cf. Agency for international development [A. I. D.], 1990; Célicourt, 2006; Oxford, 1985; Potter & Naidoo, 2006; Wagner, Day & Sun, 2004), most of these evaluations have been in-house and there has been little outside critical analyses of interactive radio instruction (Klees, 1995). This study, in contrast, proposes to provide a highly detailed and structured external evaluation of the EIA programme, by examining the self-reports of the teachers and principals who have been the beneficiaries of the programme's services.

Community development and empowerment are important aspects (and likely and desirable consequences) of open learning and distance education programmes (de Wet, Marais & Pienaar, 1996; Harmon, 1974; Hartshorne, 1978; Faccini & Jain, 2000; UNESCO, 2003). This research thus also investigates if there is evidence that teachers and learners are empowered through their use of the EIA programme's services. Zimmerman's (2000) model has been chosen to analyse possible empowerment as it includes multiple levels of analysis of this phenomenon, thus usefully extending empowerment theory and emphasising that there are particular processes and outcomes that must be considered not just at one level, but across three levels of analysis i.e. individual, organisational and community (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004).

The preponderance of research in community psychology has been centred around psychological or individual empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000). Studies have also focused on participatory mechanisms and measurement of psychological empowerment rather than processes, structures and outcomes relevant to communities and organisations (Cox, 2002; Frymier, Shulman & Houser, 1996; Gutiérrez, 1995; Le Bosse et al., 1999; Peterson & Reid, 2003; Segal, Silverman & Temkin, 1995; Speer, 2000; Speer & Peterson, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991). This particular evaluation has the potential to provide lessons on the role educational development and empowerment, in the form of open learning and distance education, has to play in the classroom for both learners and teachers (Creed & Joynes, 2004; Perraton, 2000; Potashnik & Capper, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000).

Ultimately, this study aims to contribute to knowledge related to open learning, educational development and empowerment by examining the implementation of the EIA programme as

reflected in self-reports of participating teachers and principals concerning the contribution of the programme at school level.

1.5. Research questions

Within qualitative research, it is accepted that the research question/s posed may be exploratory and/or open-ended (Creswell, 2005). Whilst all psychological research is theory driven, qualitative research may seek to elucidate and generate new theoretical perspectives and in this sense it is flexible. Furthermore, qualitative research focuses on describing a phenomenon in depth rather than providing proof on it (Creswell, 2005). For this reason, it is unusual to frame qualitative research questions in the form of formal hypothesis, in particular directional ones.

In this study, two guiding research questions have thus been formulated, as follows:

1. Is the English in Action (EIA) programme achieving its objectives?
2. Are the teachers and learners of the English in Action (EIA) programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

1.6. Organisation of the remainder of the thesis

Chapter Two will provide a detailed discussion of the context in which OLSET is operating. Included in this chapter is an extended description of OLSET and its programme English in Action (EIA). Thereafter the project's underlying theory will be considered.

In Chapter Three, literature will be reviewed on educational development, school effectiveness and improvement, teacher in-service training, open learning, distance education and interactive radio instruction. Literature on community psychology and community development will then be reviewed in Chapter Four in order to provide the background for the commentary on empowerment. Included in this chapter will be a discussion of programme evaluation's ties to community psychology. The applicability of these concepts is also related to the South African context. The limitations of the various important theories discussed in this thesis are also presented.

Following the review of the pertinent theory for this research, discussion of the methods used in this study will then be discussed relative to the data and research questions. A multimethod/mixed methods design has been used, involving thematic content analysis as well as descriptive statistic procedures. Chapter Five also provides a conceptual rationale for the use of this approach.The results of the analyses are then presented in Chapter Six. Discussion of each of the research questions is then undertaken in Chapters Seven and Eight. The discussion focuses on the main themes found in analyses of the open-ended questionnaires and personal accounts obtained in 2001 and 2003, and how these relate to teachers practices as observed in the classroom. The thesis concludes with a synopsis of the central findings, recommendations and implications of the study as well as limitations.

1.7. Glossary of terms

1.7.1. General terms

OLSET	Open Learning Systems Education Trust
EIA	English in Action
The programme	The EIA programme
Learners	The learners using the EIA programme
Coordinators	The OLSET regional teacher development coordinators
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
Personal accounts	Personal accounts are authentic stories of people's actions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2001). In this study, they represent the personal meanings, experiences and perspectives of individual informants regarding the implementation of the EIA programme.

1.7.2. Programme evaluation terms

Evaluation	Finding out or stating the value of i.e. to assess (Scriven, 2003).
Evaluations	Reports on the results of assessments, if complex (Scriven, 2003).
Evaluation theory	Can be either normative (theories about what evaluations should do or be) and/or descriptive (theories about what evaluations are) (Chen, 1990).
Programme theory	"description of the mechanism by which a programme achieves (or is expected to achieve) its effects" (Davidson, 2004, p. 38).

Theory-driven evaluation	"any evaluation that uses programme theory or programme logic as its guiding framework" (Davidson, 2004, p. 248).
Logic model	A systematic visual way of presenting a planned programme with its underlying assumptions and theoretical framework (Gasper, 2000).This is done through a logical series of statements linking a condition, the activities that will be employed to address a specific condition, short term outcomes resulting from activities and the long term impacts expected to occur as multiple outcomes are achieved (Kumpfer, Shur, Ross, Bunnell, Librett & Millward, 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991).
Logical-framework	A statement or visual display of the aims, objectives, outcomes, inputs and outputs of a programme relative to indicators of the programme's success (Potter, 2004). Involves problem analysis, stakeholder analysis, developing a hierarchy of objectives and selecting a preferred implementation strategy (AusGuide, 2003; Gasper, 2000).
Outcomes	Outcomes are the changes or benefits to individuals, groups, organisations and/or communities that result from programme outputs. Outcomes are time specific i.e. short, intermediate, and long-term (Gasper, 2000).

1.7.3. Educational development terms

Educational development	Educational development uses education as the main instrument for multi-dimensional development processes and social change (Nkomo, 2000). For education systems to address these issues there is a need for educational system reform (Hartshorne, 1978).
Open learning	Open learning is a philosophy, as well as a method, which provides learners and teachers with access to learning resources, advice, support, and, in most cases, assessment of learning (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).
Distance learning	Learning occurring despite the separation of the teacher and learner in space and/or time thereby providing the opportunity for any individual, in any situation, at any time, to receive an education (Perraton, 1998).

INSET	In-service education and training of teachers, which can be seen as processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of teachers so that they may improve the learning of students (Guskey, 2000; Ruskey, 1999).
Multi-channel learning	"…strategic orchestration of various means for mediated interaction that connect the learner with information, knowledge, and stimulation for the purpose of enabling learning" (Anzalone, 2000, p. 1).
Interactive radio instruction (IRI)	A distance education method which uses interactive lessons in which audio components delivered by an audio educator and classroom activities carried out by the learners are carefully integrated (Bosch, 1997; Perraton, 2000).
Outcomes Based Education (OBE)	An education system where everything taught has a specific purpose. The curricula and all assessments are developed around these desired outcomes (Department of Education, 2003).

1.7.4. Community terms

Community	"A group of people sharing a common bond or tradition, who support and challenge each other to act powerfully, both individually and collectively, to affirm, defend and advance their values and self-interest" (Miller, 2002, p. 32). At OLSET, these are the teachers and learners using EIA.
Community development	The process/method/programme/movement of establishing, or re-establishing, structures of human community within which new ways of relating, organising social life and meeting human needs are necessary (Ife, 1995).
Powerlessness	An experience a person has that his/her own behaviour cannot establish the occurrence of the results that he/she seeks, which is buried in and reinforced by social institutions (Kieffer, 1984).
Empowerment	Empowerment refers to an intended ongoing process of identifying, facilitating or creating contexts in which previously silent and

	isolated people gain understanding, voice and influence over decisions that affect their lives (Rappaport, 1990).
Psychological or individual empowerment level	Includes beliefs about one's competence, a proactive approach to life, perceived efforts to exert personal control and an understanding of the socio-political environment (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). It manifests itself in different perceptions, skills and behaviours for different people (Zimmerman, 1995).
Organisational empowerment level	Represents those aspects of the process of empowerment that allow individuals and groups to organise and mobilise themselves toward social and political change (Laverack, 2001).
Community empowerment level	An empowered community consists of individuals that initiate efforts to improve their collective lives, respond to threats to quality of life and provide for citizen participation (Zimmerman, 2000).

1.7.5. Multimethod research terms

Multimethod research	Involves collecting, analysing and combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or a series of studies (Creswell, 2005).
Multiple data sources	Collecting data using different methods (Creswell, 2005).
Triangulation	Collecting and integrating different types of data investigating the same phenomenon (Creswell, 2005).
Data triangulation	Triangulation either using the same data source on different occasions or different data sources on the same object of study (Denzin, 1978).
Time triangulation	Triangulation attempting to take into consideration the factors of change and process by utilising cross-sectional and longitudinal research designs (Denzin, 1978).

Thematic content analysis	The term used to describe an interpretative application of the method of content analysis, in which themes are identified, categorised and elaborated based on systematic scrutiny (Stemler, 2001).
In vivo coding	Involves dividing or reducing the behaviour or processing data directly so that they represent analytic categories or themes (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).
Linking data	Involves the "interrelation of data from different sources" (Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 30).

Chapter 2: The context of education in South Africa

2.1. The educational and language context in South African schooling

2.1.1. The South African context

South Africa is found at the southern most part of the African continent and has a total land area of more than 1.2 million square kilometres. Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Swaziland and Mozambique border South Africa. Approximately 46.9 million people live in South Africa and it has eleven official languages, namely; Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu. While each language is technically equal to every other, some languages are spoken more than others. According to the 2001 National Census (Statistics South Africa, 2001), the three most spoken first home languages are Zulu (23.8%), Xhosa (17.6%) and Afrikaans (13.3%). South Africa is divided into nine provinces; Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, North West, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and Kwa-Zulu Natal. Gauteng is the most densely populated province and the Northern Cape is the most sparsely populated province – refer to Figure 1. Slightly more than 50% of South Africa's population live in urban areas (Statistics South Africa, 2001). The most rural province in South Africa is Limpopo. Gauteng, with Johannesburg and Pretoria within its boundaries, is almost entirely urban. Other areas of high urban concentration are Cape Town in the Western Cape, Durban in KwaZulu-Natal, Port Elizabeth and East London in the Eastern Cape and Bloemfontein in the Free State.

Since 1994, when a democratic government was elected, there have been considerable efforts to reform many areas after the deprivations and inequalities of the Apartheid system, which discriminated against certain population groups on the basis of their race in terms of access to resources such as housing, education and employment (Hartshorne, 1992; Howie, 2001). In education, one of the focus points was to make education more accessible to and equitable for all population groups.



Figure 1: Distribution of the South African population per province.

2.1.2. The South African education system

In South Africa, the structure of the school education system consists of three bands (South Africa Yearbook, 2006). The first band is named the General Education and Training band (GET) and covers compulsory education. Compulsory education is made up of Grade R (the reception year) as well as Grades 1 to 9. The GET band is divided into three phases; the Foundation phase (Grades 1 to 3), the Intermediate phase (Grades 4 to 6) and the Senior phase (Grades 7 to 9). The second band is called the Further Education and Training band (FET) and is comprised of Grades 10 to 12. The third band is the Higher Education and Training band (HET) which is made up of all tertiary education (South Africa Yearbook, 2006).

Conditions in many South African schools are particularly poor and there are disparities between schools as a result of Apartheid practices (Howie, 2002). Due to backlogs created by the educational policies of the Apartheid government, as well as modest economic growth, restricted educational transformation has occurred, particularly in historically disadvantaged schools. Inequalities and conditions of deprivation are thus rampant in South African schools (South Africa Yearbook, 2006). Approximately 16.6% of learners do not have toilet facilities, and even water and electricity are not accessible at all schools. In addition, learning materials are scarce in many schools. These issues of limited resources are exacerbated by the poor teacher-student ratio (on average, in urban schools the learner-to-educator ratio is 33:1 while in rural schools this ratio can be as high as 90:1), as well as the high number of students generally and the distribution of schools nationally (South Africa Yearbook, 2006). In 2003 there were 12 038 922 learners, 362 598 teachers and 26 845 schools nationally (Department of Education, 2005). As presented in Table 1, most of the schools (23%) were found in the Kwa-Zulu Natal, while the Northern Cape had the least number of schools i.e. 1.7%.

Table 1:

Number of learners, educators and schools and learner-to-educator and learner-to-school ratios in the public and independent sector by province and school type in 2003 (Department of Education, 2005, p.4).

Province	Type of school	Learners (L)			Educators (E)			Schools (S)			L:E ratio	L:S ratio
		Number	As % of provincial total	As % of national total	Number	As % of provincial total	As % of national total	Number	As % of provincial total	As % of national total		
Eastern Cape	Public	2 100 024	99.2	17.9	63 899	98.5	18.8	6 100	98.9	23.6	32.9	344
	Independent	16 402	0.8	5.6	966	1.5	4.1	65	1.1	6.5	17.0	252
	Total	2 116 426		17.6	64 865		17.9	6 165		23.0	32.6	343
Free State	Public	684 134	98.3	5.8	21 955	97.2	6.5	2 123	97.1	8.2	31.2	322
	Independent	12 021	1.7	4.1	641	2.8	2.7	63	2.9	6.3	18.8	191
	Total	696 155		5.8	22 596		6.2	2 186		8.1	30.8	318
Gauteng	Public	1 524 595	91.7	13.0	45 437	84.5	13.4	1 873	84.2	7.2	33.6	814
	Independent	137 222	8.3	46.5	8 312	15.5	35.5	352	15.8	35.0	16.5	390
	Total	1 661 817		13.8	53 749		14.8	2 225		8.3	30.9	747
KwaZulu Natal	Public	2 726 271	98.0	23.2	68 760	88.3	20.3	5 614	97.0	21.7	39.6	486
	Independent	56 780	2.0	19.3	9 069	11.7	38.7	174	3.0	17.3	6.3	326
	Total	2 783 051		23.1	77 829		21.5	5 788		21.6	35.8	481
Limpopo	Public	1 797 820	99.0	15.3	53 383	98.3	15.7	4 181	98.4	16.2	33.7	430
	Independent	19 032	1.0	6.5	916	1.7	3.9	70	1.6	7.0	20.8	272
	Total	1 816 852		15.1	54 298		15.0	4 251		15.8	33.5	427
Mpumalanga	Public	901 732	98.6	7.7	24 793	97.2	7.3	1 841	95.6	7.1	36.4	490
	Independent	13 007	1.4	4.4	722	2.8	3.1	85	4.4	8.5	18.0	153
	Total	914 739		7.6	25 515		7.0	1 926		7.2	35.9	475
North West	Public	880 946	98.9	7.5	29 693	97.9	8.8	2 211	98.1	8.6	29.7	398
	Independent	10 090	1.1	3.4	626	2.1	2.7	42	1.9	4.2	15.1	240
	Total	891 036		7.4	30 319		8.4	2 253		8.4	29.4	395
Northern Cape	Public	199 299	98.6	1.7	6 068	98.2	1.8	441	97.1	1.7	32.8	452
	Independent	2 781	1.4	0.9	111	1.8	0.5	13	2.9	1.3	25.1	214
	Total	201 010		1.7	6 179		1.7	454		1.7	32.7	445
Western Cape	Public	929 262	97.1	7.9	25 191	92.5	7.4	1 456	91.2	5.6	36.9	638
	Independent	27 574	2.9	9.4	2 056	7.5	8.8	141	8.8	14.0	13.4	196

	Total	956 836		7.9	27 248		7.5	1 597		5.9	35.1	599
National	Public	11 744 013	97.6		339 179	93.5		25 840	96.3		34.6	454
	Independent	294 909	2.4		23 419	6.5		1 005	3.7		12.6	293
	Total	12 038 922			362 598			26 845			33.2	448

2.1.3. The South African education and language context

In 1935 there was considerable pressure in South Africa to introduce a vernacular language in African schools whose medium of teaching was English (Hartshorne, 1995). Hence, thereafter the learner's mother tongue was the medium of instruction for the first four to six years, after which one of the two official languages (English or Afrikaans), usually English, was used. During this time, there was a move in some parts of the country to introduce dual-medium education with English and Afrikaans as the official languages. There was also an increase in the use of Afrikaans instead of English in African schools.

In 1953, the Bantu Education Act led to the introduction of mother-tongue teaching throughout the primary phase of education. In the secondary schools, the medium of instruction was one of the two official languages, and both English and Afrikaans were made compulsory in all African schools. This policy, that aimed to maintain Caucasian individuals' (and particularly Afrikaner Nationalist) domination in politics and education, continued until the introduction of the 1979 Education Act (Hartshorne, 1995; Kamwangamalu, 1997).

There was strong opposition to the language policies of the Bantu Education Act (Graham-Brown, 1993). Opposition to this policy climaxed in the 1976 Soweto uprisings against educational repression and forced-language policies. Thereafter, the number of years of mother-tongue instruction was reduced and only one official language was compulsory in secondary school, thus English was introduced in Grade 7 to African learners (Graham-Brown, 1993).

The 1979 Act replaced the Bantu Education policy and introduced the rule of mother-tongue teaching up to Grade 4, followed by education in one of the official languages, usually English. Despite the language policy permitting English medium instruction in the Department of Education and Training schools, the resources to implement this policy were often not available and the teachers frequently lacked the necessary language command to implement the policy (Graham-Brown, 1993). Thus, the transition from Bantu education to English medium instruction was difficult for African pupils. In addition, the lack of credibility of the education department, and the Apartheid language policies led to the diminished status of mother-tongue languages and

an unrealistic expectation of English as the key to empowerment and economic advancement (Alexander, 1995; Kamwangamalu, 1997).

During this period, English and Afrikaans speakers enjoyed a form of additive bilingualism with their education reinforcing the high status of their languages in the community (Heugh, 1995a). Their first language was maintained throughout their education with the second language introduced alongside the first, particularly in dual-medium schools. This kind of additive bilingualism was one of the earliest examples of the system currently being advocated for multilingual societies (Alexander, 1995; Heugh, 1995b; Luckett, 1995).

Policy and curriculum changes were started after the 1994 democratic elections, including syllabus revisions, which aimed at a national curriculum. The national curriculum was first published in 1997 and was introduced into schools in 1998 (Department of Education, 1997). It was named 'Curriculum 2005' to indicate the year in which the curriculum would be implemented. Outcomes-based education (OBE) was used as the basis for this curriculum in an attempt to reform educational practices in order to better prepare learners to cope with life's demands and circumstances (Kotzé, 2002). OBE is an education system where everything taught has a specific purpose. The curricula and all assessments are developed around these desired outcomes (Department of Education, 2003).OBE can also be viewed as a learner-centred approach, given its focus on the learner (Department of Education, 1997). It is worth noting though that although there has been high acclaim of the implementation of OBE in several first-world countries (cf. Killen, 2000; Malan, 2000; Spady, 1994; 1996), there have also been several documented problems regarding experiences of OBE in these countries (cf. Jansen, 1997). These include the uncertainty that outcomes deliver what they claim to deliver, the questionable role of outcomes in a resource-poor context and outcomes in different contexts mean different things for example outcomes specified for education are not equivalent to those identified for training (Jansen, 1997).

Revision of the national curriculum was carried out in three mains stages: the first involved the 'cleansing' of the curriculum of its racist and sexist elements immediately after the 1994 elections; the second concerned the implementation of OBE through 'Curriculum 2005'; and the

third involved the review and revision of ‘Curriculum 2005’ in the light of recommendations made by a Ministerial Review Committee appointed in 2000 (Chisholm, 2003; Cross, Mngadi & Rouhani, 2002; Jansen, 1999). This committee recommended a major revision of the curriculum in order to make it more understandable in the classroom. The review found that implementation of ‘Curriculum 2005’ had been hampered by the structure and design of the curriculum, the quantity and quality of the training provided and the quality and availability of learning materials (Review Committee on Curriculum, 2005). Other barriers mentioned were a shortage of human and financial resources. The language and terminologies used in the curriculum statements and policies were also regarded as difficult for the teachers to absorb. The Revised National Curriculum Statement was produced and became policy early in 2002.

In the new South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996, “everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public institutions” (Bill of Rights, 1996, p. 29.2). The language policy allows for schooling in the mother tongue of the learners’ choice during Grades 1 and 4. From Grade 4 the school may choose to introduce any one of the eleven official languages, although in practice the choice is often English or Afrikaans (Department of Education, 1997). One major reason for this is that, from Grade 4, all assessments are conducted in either English or Afrikaans, thus, very little actual change has occurred and the language policy has remained essentially unchanged from 1997 (Department of Education, 2003).

The language policy has, however, also introduced a new set of challenges for Foundation Phase teachers in both the historically ‘advantaged’ and ‘disadvantaged’ schools. Teachers in the historically ‘disadvantaged’ schools, many of whom themselves lack confidence with spoken and written English, must provide for children who also have little exposure to English, and may thus be being educated in their second or third language (Sayed, 2004). Teachers in the previously ‘advantaged’ schools, on the other hand, are usually monolingual English or Afrikaans speakers, or bilingual English-Afrikaans speakers, who now have to accommodate a huge variety of languages and language-competencies (Sayed, 2004).

2.1.4. Bilingual education models

It is clear that, as a result of language policy, there are a vast number of learners in South Africa whose home language is not the language in which, from Grade 3 onwards, they begin to receive at least part of their education. In other words, many South African learners are exposed to bilingual education (Hartshorne, 1995). There is, however, considerable debate around its implementation.

Proponents of bilingual education emphasise that mother tongue should be used as a vehicle toward academic and linguistic development (August & Hakuta, 1997; Greene, 1998; Parrish, Linquanti, Merickel, Quick, Laird & Esra, 2002; Willig, 1985). Opponents, however, claim that second languages are best learned through immersion with little or no support for the mother tongue (Reese, Goldenberg & Saunders, 2006; Rossell, 1988). Researchers also argue that gradual introduction into the second language is more valuable if done as early as possible and should be a foundational component of every grade thereafter rather than a replacement of the first language by the second language (Langhan, 1992; MacDonald, 1990; Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey & Pasta, 1991). The South African Department of Education (2002) recognised this, by including in its legislation that

> …where learners have to make a transition from their home language to an additional language as the language of learning and teaching i) The additional language should be introduced as a subject in Grade 1; ii) The home language should continue to be used alongside the additional language for as long as possible… (p. 5)

Studies have shown that learners taught in dual-medium (i.e. both mother tongue and second language) show better progress than those taught exclusively through one medium (Baker, 1988, Balfour, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Malherbe, 1977). Hence, research seems to support that the first language needs to be developed in tandem with the second language.

In South Africa, the second language of choice tends to be English, both as a result of assessment practices and based on the global acceptance and necessity of English as a common tool for communication (Department of Education, 1997). There are, however, no rigorous data determining the effects of different amounts or types of mother tongue instruction on English

language learners' developing literacy skills (Reese et al., 2006). "The relative effects of different types of instructional programming for English language learners have been a contentious issue for at least 30 years" (Reese et al., 2006, p. 363).

The five most commonly implemented bilingual programme designs are pull-out, structured immersion, transitional, maintenance and dual language (Lara-Alecio, Galloway, Irby, Rodriguez & Gómez, 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). Research suggests that these have been shown to have varying levels of effectiveness in relation to teaching English as a second language (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999).

2.1.4.1. The pull-out model

In pull-out programmes, English second language students are pulled out of their classrooms to receive English tutoring. Aside from English, no other language is used in these classrooms. This model does not meet diverse needs and hence does not adequately promote cognitive development. It is the least effective of the bilingual programmes (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999).

2.1.4.2. The structured immersion model

In a structured immersion classroom, the teacher instructs in English but accepts responses and contributions from students in their mother tongue. An overall positive learning environment is thus fostered as students' cognitive learning is nurtured. Depending on the teacher's second-language ability, he/she may also use this language, which enhances the teacher-student relationship. However, the student's mother tongue is not incorporated enough to develop that language and consequently it is devalued (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999).

2.1.4.3. The transitional bilingual model

In transitional bilingual education, the educator teaches in English and the learners are encouraged to use a language other than English. The mother tongue is used as a bridge to English instruction, hence, learners develop both English and their mother tongue. Teaching methods used aid in cognitive development and thus biculturalism is accepted and promoted.

Most programmes use this model of instruction. However, in programmes that aim to exit learners from the programme as soon as possible, usually within two years, biliteracy is rarely reached (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999).

2.1.4.4. The maintenance model

Maintenance or developmental programmes are designed to preserve and enhance a learner's mother tongue while the learner acquires English (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). Evidence has shown that children need to develop advanced skills in their mother tongue before they can function well academically in a second language (Cummins, 1979; de Klerk, 1995; Hawes, 1979). Despite mother tongue being emphasised, fluency in both mother tongue and English is encouraged (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). These programmes are additive and based on the full participation of the student in the instruction. Substantial mother tongue support is provided. Students are kept in these types of programmes for at least six years.

2.1.4.5. The dual language model

Dual language programmes instruct using both mother tongue and English (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). Sustained periods of time are used to instruct in either one or the other language. Experience in both languages and a fostering of both languages is the objective. It is also supportive of full bilingualism for English first and second-language speakers (Christian, 1999). This provides a positive attitude towards both cultures. As in the previous design, this is also an additive model, and students are kept in these programmes for four to six years. This type of instructional design is gaining more advocates in the United States of America (USA) (Howard, Christian & Genesee, 2004; López & Tashakkori, 2004).

Thus, each of the different models provides a differing success rate in English second-language instruction, with dual language and maintenance programmes appearing to provide the highest likelihood of a successful outcome. This is important as the dual language model forms part of the theoretical underpinning for the EIA programme discussed in this evaluation (Leigh, 1995).

2.2. The role of non-governmental organisations (NGO's)

The term NGO officially came into being after the formation of the United Nations (UN) and became popular from the early 1970s onwards (Willetts, 2002). Many diverse types of associations are now described as being NGOs.

Although there is no generally accepted definition of an NGO and the term carries different connotations in different circumstances, there are nevertheless some fundamental features that all NGOs share. NGOs must be independent from the direct control of government, may not be constituted as a political party; must be non-profit-making in nature and cannot be criminal groups, in particular, they must be non-violent (Willetts, 2002). These characteristics apply in general usage of the term internationally.

The boundaries however, can sometimes be blurred; in practice, some NGOs may be closely identified with political parties, many NGOs do generate income from commercial activities and a small number of NGOs may be associated with violent political protests. Nonetheless, an NGO is never constituted as a government bureaucracy, a party, a company, a criminal organisation or a guerrilla group (Willetts, 2002).

The South African government defines an NGO as a trust or association of people conceived for a public purpose (Nonprofit Organisations Act, 1997). Furthermore, the income and profits of the NGO are not shared among its members or office-bearers except as compensation for services provided.

In South Africa during the Apartheid era, the NGO sector was a significant vehicle for development and for education and training in the context of an imbalanced educational system (Chisholm, Motala & Vally, 2000; Hartshorne, 1992; Levy, 1994). These organisations were an imperative part of responding to the needs of the marginalised, poor and powerless (Barnard, 1997). They helped give power together with social movement to millions of ordinary citizens. Furthermore, many of these types of organisations provided services, which helped improve people's quality of life. NGOs frequently operated at a community level and were able to

facilitate links between the community, private sector and the state during the Apartheid era (Chisholm et al., 2000).

With the advent of the democratisation process in 1994, the NGO sector was forced to redefine its structure and priorities. For educational NGOs the reasons for this were at least four-fold (Harvey & Peacock, 2001). Donor funding declined, as donors decided they would rather fund legitimate government education programmes as opposed to NGOs, and simultaneously the government also stated that it would not support NGOs directly, but would consider them as public service contractors. Funding that was obtained was usually for certain projects within a programme and no longer for the entire programme. Educational programmes also had to be accountable to the government. Lastly, there was rapid introduction of new educational policies and legislation that programmes had to adhere to (Harvey & Peacock, 2001; Morrow, 2003).

Bearing these factors in mind, in 1997, the South African Government passed a Nonprofit Organisations Act with a number of objectives. These were:

> to encourage and support nonprofit organisations in their contribution to meeting the diverse needs of the population of the Republic by —
> (a) creating an environment in which nonprofit organisations can flourish;
> (b) establishing an administrative and regulatory framework within which nonprofit organisations can conduct their affairs;
> (c) encouraging nonprofit organisations to maintain adequate standards of governance. transparency and accountability and to improve those standards;
> (d) creating an environment within which the public may have access to information concerning registered nonprofit organisations; and
> (e) promoting a spirit of co-operation and shared responsibility within government and amongst other interested persons in their dealings with nonprofit organisations
>
> (Nonprofit Organisations Act, 1997, p.4).

Education-oriented NGOs in South Africa are therefore currently very heterogeneous (Chisholm et al., 2000). Some are large, well established and well funded while others are parochial and insufficiently funded. The face of the NGO sector is continuously changing as different

organisations exit and enter the arena. According to Morrow (2003), a new pattern of NGOs is emerging, ranging from organisations similar to commercial operations to organisations that are completely donor-funding dependent. An example of an organisation that has commercial aspects is 'Project Literacy', as it provides services to other institutions that are willing to pay for their services, while, OLSET, the organisation that was focused on in this study, falls into the completely donor-funding dependent category (Morrow, 2003).

2.3. The Open Learning Systems Education Trust (OLSET)

The English in Action (EIA) programme discussed in this evaluation was developed and produced by OLSET. OLSET is a non-profit educational NGO that commenced operation in 1992.

In implementing EIA, OLSET works with different stakeholders (Leigh, 1995; Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The stakeholders include communities, teachers and, by implication, teacher organisations, learners, central governmental and provincial education departments, the national broadcaster (the SABC) and donor agencies. A board of trustees and a chief executive director or officer (CEO) head OLSET - see Figure 2 for a structural design of OLSET. Currently OLSET has 15 employees. However, at the time this study was conducted, there were 22 employees.

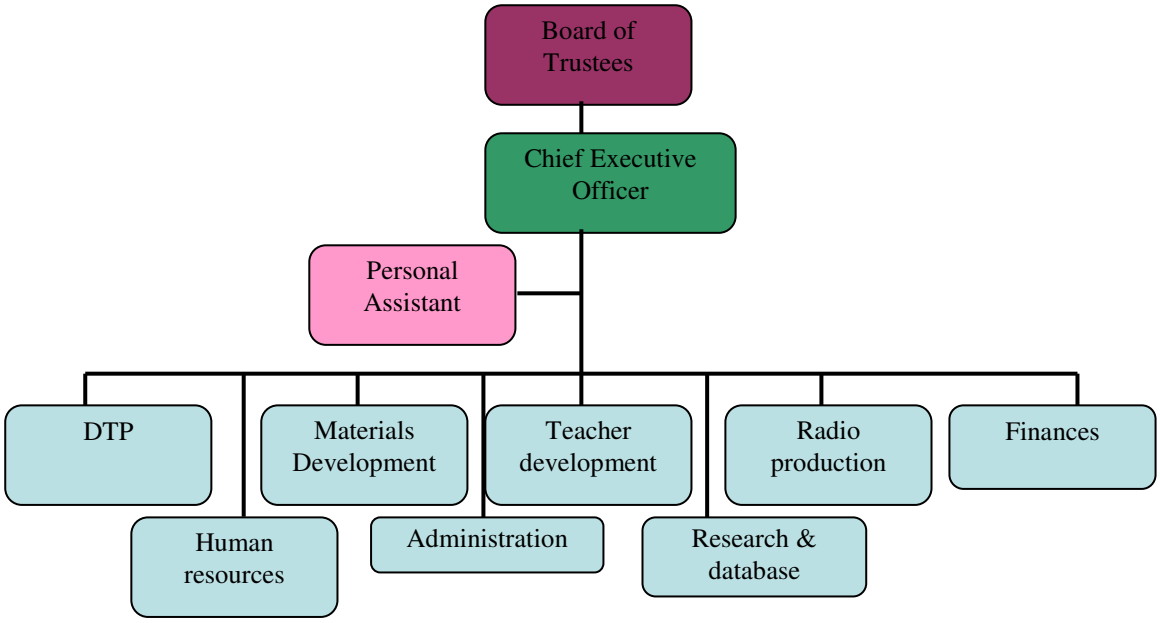
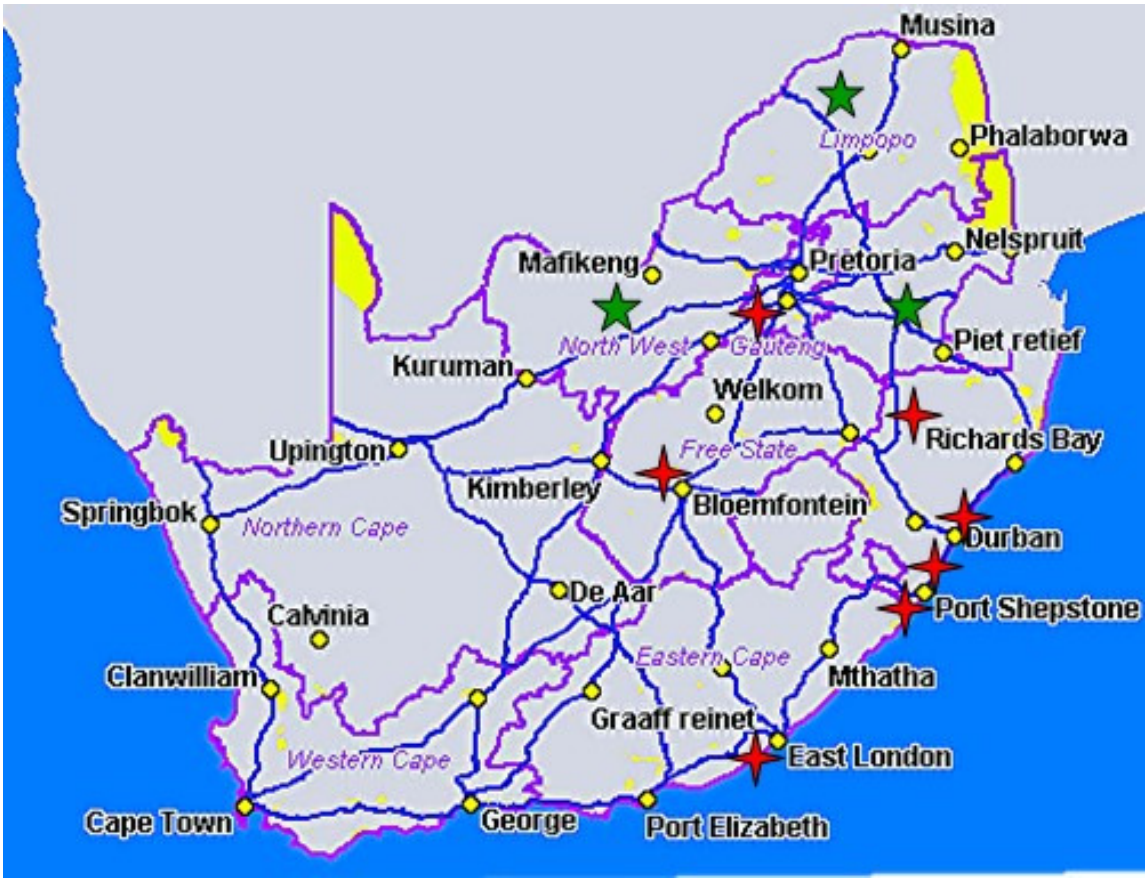


Figure 2: Organisational structure of OLSET

Between 1992 and now (2007), the head office of OLSET was/has been located in Braamfontein, Johannesburg. During the time period when the research was conducted (2001-2003), eight employees including the CEO worked at head office (including the researcher who was employed in a junior position in the research and database department from 2002 to 2004), while the remaining employees (coordinators) worked at regional offices. There was one coordinator working at the Free State office, one in the Eastern Cape office, two working from head office servicing the Gauteng, Limpopo, North West and Mpumalanga provinces and five coordinators working at various regional offices scattered throughout Kwa-Zulu Natal i.e. Durban, Hlabisa, Braemar, Nongoma and Port Shepstone (Potter & Naidoo, forthcoming). Refer to Figure 3 of South Africa to view the areas covered by the OLSET coordinators.



Key:
Places where OLSET has offices and operates
Places where OLSET has no offices but operates

Figure 3: Map of South Africa showing its nine provinces together with where OLSET was operating and had offices in 2003.

The originators and funders of OLSET, such as UNESCO, state that the key to sustainable, self-reliant development is education, particularly quality basic education, that reaches out to all through new modalities and technologies in order to provide lifelong learning opportunities for all (Christensen et al., 1997; UNESCO, 1997; 2002). Inherent in their concept of sustainability is the vision of a more equitable world, which can only be achieved by providing the disadvantaged with the means to advance themselves and their families. This premise appears to have been the base of OLSET's mission statement and objectives. The initial funders of the EIA project, United States Agency for International Development (USAID), were interested in achieving these goals in an affordable and effective manner - facets that open learning and distance education in the form of interactive radio instruction can offer (Christensen et al., 1997). (For a more detailed discussion on educational development, its relationship to OLSET's objectives and the benefits of interactive radio instruction, refer to Chapter Three).

OLSET's mission statement is to improve the quality of education at the primary level and provide all children with equal access to quality education, as well as to develop communication and literacy skills, support teachers and encourage community participation in decisions that affect the education of their children (OLSET, 1995). Its objectives are:

- to provide ongoing professional in-service support for teachers and continual support for teachers and learners
- to provide distance education by radio that supports the implementation of the new curriculum (Curriculum 2005)
- to provide relevant teacher and learner support materials
- to develop a range of activities that improve language and literacy skills
- to improve communication skills and extend vocabulary
- to ensure equitable access to learning in both rural and urban areas
- to create additional opportunities for rural schools to ensure equitable access
- to reduce urban bias in the provisioning and distribution of educational resources
- to establish teacher support groups
- to work in partnership with the education departments, the Public Broadcasting service (SABC) and other relevant stakeholders.

(OLSET, 1995; 2007)

Any community development initiative normally has education as one of the functions of that programme (Harmon, 1974). The educational component is perceived to play a role in the change of attitudes and practices that are seen as obstacles to community development and empowerment. An essential aspect of the teacher-related OLSET objectives is the attention given to teacher empowerment through continuous in-service training, development and support (UNESCO, 2003). OLSET implicitly aims to empower teachers and help them solve and overcome everyday obstacles in their work (Faccini & Jain, 2000). Furthermore, according to open learning principles, learner involvement and empowerment is also seen to play a vital role in ensuring school effectiveness and learner improvement (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). This notion appears to be acknowledged above in OLSET's objectives of skill development in the form of language, literacy, communication and vocabulary.

Further requirements for school effectiveness and improvement are evident in OLSET's objectives, for instance, in-service teacher training and stakeholder involvement. The latter is also seen as a key principle in empowerment. Furthermore, as postulated by Foucault (1972), the gaining of knowledge for both teachers and learners as objectified by OLSET's goals is a form of providing power, since power and knowledge are viewed to be inseparable. (For further discussion of these issues, please refer to Chapters Three and Four).

2.3.1. The development of the English in Action (EIA) programme

The English in Action programme, a South African radio-learning programme, was set up in 1992 with USAID funding. Initially the project was influenced by behavioural views in line with previous interactive radio instruction (IRI) work done, in particular the model previously used in Kenya, Lesotho and Swaziland (Imhoof & Christensen, 1986; Leigh, 1995). In 1994, however, the vision shifted to a multi-channel or open learning view (Leigh, 1995; Leigh, Naidoo & Ramofoko, 1995).

The original behavioural conception of the programme has been characterised as following a technicist mode (Potter & Naidoo, 2007). Technicism in education tends to act as a lens, which focuses on scientific and technological modes of reasoning (Stanley, 1978), and ignores the social, cultural and experiential bases of knowledge and schooling (Bowers, 1979; Buckland,

1984; Giroux, 1979). A key assumption is that the relationship between theory and practice is primarily a technical one, which can be used to predict how a course of action can be accomplished.

Initially EIA focused solely on the skills of learners (Leigh, 1995). The assumption was that the English skills of the learners would be improved by using technology. However, after the first evaluation in 1994 it recognised that such a programme should acknowledge both the individual and social dimensions involved in successful education (Moulton, 1994). It was also recommended that it should recognise the essential role of the teacher as supporter and facilitator of the learning process (Potter, 1994a; 1994b). The coordinator's role was decisive in this shift from a pedagogy involving distance education via radio to a pedagogy based on open learning, where the teacher is viewed as a partner in the radio lesson (Potter, 1994a; Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

The new design promoted learner-centred methods (Leigh et al., 1995). A communicative language teaching practice was adopted, utilising the learner's own knowledge, natural and meaningful communication, and a variety of activities and language situated in the culture of the community (OLSET, 1995). These are elements of open learning, and, according to Leigh et al. (1995), the theoretical underpinnings derive from natural language acquisition. The innovations made in the original IRI programme designs were extensive (Leigh et al. 1995). Abundant drama was used to present language in real life contexts. Themes, characters, stories and situations were based on South African scenarios that were relevant to South African learners. Teacher-led activities within the audio lessons were also extended.

Radio was conceptualised as the dominant channel used in a process of multi-channel or open learning (Anzalone, 1995). The radio/audio lessons were supported by print materials, as well as by in-service workshops, classroom visits and teacher support groups (TSGs) (OLSET, 1995; Potter & Naidoo, 2006). These were aimed at facilitating teacher development through person-to-person contact, involving the social, community and contextual levels in the educational process. In the reviews of interactive radio instruction, the South African Radio Learning Programme has featured prominently as an example of a programme, which expanded the definition, and foci of

interactive radio instruction (IRI) (Dock & Helwig, 1999; Leigh, 1995; Moulton, 1994; Perraton, 2000).

The use of radio supported by print materials, and the increased interactivity in the lessons and regular support opportunities also implied a shift to multi-channel learning involving both material and personal support. As the audiotapes and materials were developed in stages over 1993, the coordinators were able to establish ongoing personal contact with the teaching community of the participating schools as materials were delivered (Potter, 1994a). This opened possibilities for the arrangement of in-service training workshops, focus groups and the development of TSGs (Potter, 1994a; 1994b; Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

2.3.2. Formative and summative evaluation in the programme's development

From the point of its inception, a feature of the EIA programme (and OLSET more generally) has been its commitment to both formative and summative evaluation (OLSET, 1995; Potter, 1993a; 1993b). The initial evaluation conducted on the programme was multimethod in design. In contrast to previous evaluations of IRI (cf. Imhoof & Christensen, 1986), which had stressed quantitative measurement of learning gains as well as instructional design issues, in South Africa the socio-political context at the time required that a contextual, developmental and process-related dimension have priority (Leigh, 1995; Potter, 1993a; 1993b; 1995). However, a summative dimension, which focused on the product, impact and sustainability of the programme, was also required as the programme was moving rapidly to large-scale implementation and adoption (OLSET, 1995). In reviewing the programme at the end of 1993, the evaluators reported that after an unsteady start in 1992 with respect to both conception and credibility, the programme had been successful in establishing an infrastructure and a body of materials, which could form the basis for future work (Potter, 1994). It was also regarded positively by both teachers and parents (Potter et al. 1995).

Nonetheless, it still lacked a coherent conceptual and curricular framework in terms of both classroom and teacher support (Potter, 1994b; Potter et al., 1995). Many of the staff lacked qualifications and experience in second language teaching, which reflected in the approach to and type of materials being developed (Potter et al., 1995). Despite quantitative evidence of

advantage among learners in the project schools in 1993 (F = 118, 31 (70); p < .0001; R = .39), there were major gaps in the way in which the project's curriculum was being conceptualised.

In 1994, the evaluators reported that the programme had taken steps to address the conceptual issues raised in the 1993 interim report (Potter, 1994b). This was evident in the setting up of mechanisms in the programme for staff to meet and discuss the form of the materials and their usage. Furthermore, there was appointment of a number of people with qualifications and experience in second language teaching. The programme also developed a coherent curricular framework and implementation theory and demonstrated evidence of learning gains at school and classroom levels, with respect to both Grade 1 and Grade 2 (Potter et al., 1995).

By 1995, the programme's instructional system was both multimedia (involving linked audio, visual and print materials), and multi-channel (involving both support from a radio teacher as well as personal contact with coordinators and other teachers). There had also been a fundamental shift, from a pedagogy based on a learner curriculum to a pedagogy based on two curricula i.e. teacher and learner curricula. The following figure presents the instructional system used by EIA.

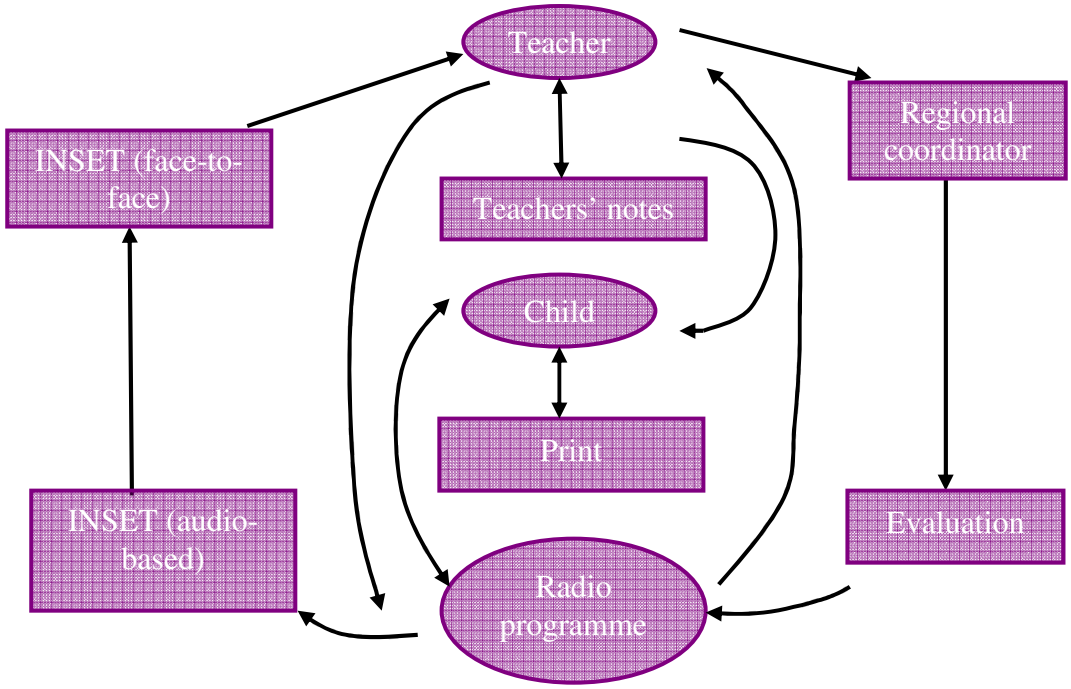


Figure 4: South African radio learning project instructional system (adapted from Leigh, 1995, p. 25).

With the introduction of a second curriculum, for teachers, the EIA programme took new steps in relation to previous literature and approaches used in IRI at the time (Bosch, 1997; Helwig, Bosch & Dock, 1999; Leigh, 1995; Moulton 1994). The teacher development side of the programme involved providing teacher support and in-service training. It thus targeted teachers and their practices, using the multilingual classroom as a means to achieve a gradual transition from initial literacy in the home languages towards use of English as a medium of instruction (Leigh, 1995; OLSET, 1995; Potter, 1994b; 2002).

2.3.3. The programme's current form

Following the initial pilot, 118 radio lessons were scripted in 1993 to support the teaching of English at the Grade 1 level. The Grade 1 programme was implemented with 14 500 learners in 5 regions of South Africa in 1993 and 1994 (Potter & Leigh, 1995). This was followed in 1994 by the development of 130 radio lessons for the Grade 2 level. The lessons were of half hour duration, and were recorded on audiotapes. The programme eventually developed to its current form of 118 lessons at Level 1, 130 lessons at Level 2 and 180 lessons at Level 3 directed at the needs of children in Grades 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

In its current form, the programme has daily half-hour radio lessons, which introduce learners in foundation phase to English through engaging and interactive activities such as stories, music and songs. The lessons involve teachers as partners in the teaching and learning process by asking them to lead language development activities, such as games or pair work, and to mediate content, both in English and, as necessary, in mother tongue (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

The radio lessons are produced and recorded by OLSET. Each lesson is delivered by daily radio broadcast, or if this is not possible, on audiocassettes. Prior to an agreement with the SABC to broadcast the programme nationally, the programme was delivered only in certain areas by SABC radio broadcasts and in other areas by community radio stations. Currently the following radio stations broadcast the programme between 9 and 11 in the morning every weekday: Motsweding FM, Ukhozi FM, Umhlobo We Nene, Munghana Lo Nene and Ligwalagwala. Materials provided by the project to the schools include radios, a teacher's manual, pupil workbooks/activity books, posters and comic reading books. The radio lesson sequence provides a common thread and

structure, which in turn provides a platform for broader networking and teacher support. This takes place both through workshops and TSGs (Potter & Naidoo, 2007).

The teaching support framework is divided into three years. In the first year of implementation, at all levels, teachers require a one-day introductory workshop (Leigh, 1995; OLSET, 1995). At this workshop, materials are demonstrated and the methods and design principles underpinning the IRI system are explored. This workshop also serves to show teachers how the materials can be used to support the delivery of OBE. The contents of these workshops are organised around the needs of the schools and teachers involved in the programme. The support strategies include classroom visits – lesson observations, discussion with teachers and identifying problem areas; establishing teacher support group-meetings; and holding planning meetings at the end of the year to prepare for the next level.

In the second year, a refresher workshop and introduction to level two is undertaken. This workshop focuses on identifying problems and sharing experiences. The outcomes of this workshop enable coordinators to determine the support strategies for the year. In the third year, the focus of the workshop is on the management and effective use of the radio-learning programme in the foundation phase. Experienced teachers are used to help run the workshops and provide support to new teachers. Thus, the programme applies open learning principles in its work. It provides both teachers and learners with access to learning resources, advice, support as well as informally applied assessment, designed to improve their classroom management, lesson planning and teaching skills (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003). EIA is a distance education programme providing for teacher development, which in turn leads to more education opportunities, an important aspect of community development and empowerment (Hartshorne, 1978).

2.3.4. Funding and sustainability

The initial grant from USAID provided for enlisting and developing core staff in the areas of teacher and curriculum development, materials production, radio scriptwriting and audio production. This was followed by a one-year additional grant in 1995. Long-term programme sustainability was therefore a major issue. This was due to donor practices of periodic

reassessment and prioritisation of country strategy and programme support. The 1996 termination of USAID support for radio learning in South Africa affected OLSET's organisational capacity negatively due to staff turnover (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

In 1996, the radio-learning programme was, however, able to attract Norwegian Embassy assistance, with funding provided to the programme through the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) basic education support programme. This afforded a degree of re-staffing, as well as expansion of the radio learning programme's services to schools (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The project attracted financial support during the socio-political transition in South Africa when other educational projects and NGOs, such as the Primary Science Project (PSP), the Science Education Project (SEP), the Teachers Opportunities Project (TOPS), the Primary Education Upgrading Project (PEUP) and the English Language Teachers Information Centre (ELTIC), were unable to secure funds to continue.

During this period, there was continuous pressure and rising demands from teachers in non-OLSET schools to be included in the programme. To meet increased demand from these schools, the programme expanded into seven provinces, despite its fixed and inelastic budget. Thus, a number of tensions arose, relating to scale of development versus quality of implementation - these have been recurrent issues in the programme in its attempts to meet increasing demands on a national level for its services (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The available resources were placed into material development and production, as well as in-service training of teachers, however, there was a limit to the number of teachers and learners who could be supported (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

Despite positive external evaluation (cf. Dock & Helwig, 1999; Perraton, 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000) which highlighted the potential of using interactive radio as a medium for teacher development in developing countries and evidence of continuing support for the programme from teachers and principals the programme's operation was uneven and of variable quality (Basson, 2000; Brand, 1998; Chippendall, 1998; de Reuck, 1999; Graham, 1998; Hoosen, 1999; Hunter, Nonyongo & Smith, 1998; Kerr, 1999; Parbhoo, 1999; Potter, 2002; Rabson, 1999). There were also restrictions on the programme's ability to undertake the necessary content and materials

revision consistent with the demands of South Africa's national OBE curriculum. In areas where schools were familiar with the programme, it was well implemented with minimal resources. In other areas, the programme was constrained. The situation became increasingly complicated during 1999, especially as the programme's materials, posters, readers and workbooks could not be replaced due to a lack of available funding.

During 2000, there was financial insecurity as well as compromise in the programme. At this time, the Norwegian funding came to an end, as international donor funding is normally provided for a fixed period. Furthermore, there was uncertainty as to whether the programme's management would be able to secure the financial support from additional donors necessary to continue its work (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). This climate of financial insecurity and the loss of critical programme staff members diminished the momentum of the EIA programme. The loss of key staff members, in particular, limited the programme's curriculum and materials revision as well as its internal evaluative capacities. Other areas of the programme's support, including materials provided to teachers, had to be limited (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). This situation extended over an 18-month period from January 2000 to June 2001.

2.3.5. Funding support for implementation at large-scale

In July 2001, Britain's Department for International Development (DfID) made the decision to provide four year funding to the programme on a large scale. Thus, the EIA project moved closer to institutionalisation than most similar projects as it was able to attract continuous international donor funding (Perraton, 2000). The aim of DfID's funding was to implement the programme across South Africa. This implied growing EIA countrywide to accommodate and provide material support to remote rural learners and teachers. Encouragement was also given to make the programme's experience in South Africa available via the BBC to other developing countries (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). To this end, the EIA model was introduced by OLSET to Sudan and Malawi in June and July 2003 and to Nigeria in October 2003.

Furthermore, additional skilled developers could be appointed focusing on increasing field implementation, teacher in-service training and classroom support. Strengthening of the partnerships with the SABC and the provincial Departments of Education were also made

possible. The funding was directed in particular at facilitating access of teachers and learners to increased OLSET support in the seven provinces. Large-scale production of learner, classroom and teacher support materials was also made possible. These resources were printed, made available for distribution and then dispersed to schools, working in association with provincial educational officials and coordinators (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

Objectively verifiable data on the programme's results were lacking, as these were based on estimates made from coordinators' reports. This was thus made a priority, linked to the programme's internal evaluation function. Thus, the issues raised during the financially strained period were addressed within an ethnographic multimethod design. Observations of the programme in selected schools in the Gauteng region were conducted (cf. Basson, 2000). Interviews, observations and field visits were carried out in other regions (cf. Ntshoe, 2000). Interviews with project staff (cf. Potter, 2002), questionnaires and case studies (cf. Masuku, 2000; Potter & Silva, 2002; Silva, 2002) as well as quantitative comparisons between learners at the three levels in project and non-project schools in the Gauteng region (cf. Jacobson, 2001) were also undertaken.

To reach greater numbers of learners, the numbers of coordinators were also increased to 9, and subsequently to 13, with each coordinator being responsible for liaison with teachers, principals, and those provincial educational officials responsible for in-service training of teachers. The programme thus grew from 290 teachers and 14 500 learners in 1993 when the evaluation processes began, to 30 167 teachers and 1 302 728 learners in 2003. According to the Department of Education (2005), in 2003 there were 12 176 391 learners, 362 042 teachers and 26 879 schools nationally. These figures imply that the programme was working with roughly 8.5% of all South African teachers and 10.5% of all learners across the country at the time this study was conducted.

In mid 2004, changes in funding resulted due to British resources being redirected to support reconstruction in Iraq. Thus, DfID conducted its review of the programme's development using a team of three DfID project officers (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The review focused on progress made in the programme over the entire funding period from July 2001 to June 2004, in relation to

the objectively verifiable indicators and outputs in the Logframe – the logical framework for the implementation and evaluation of the EIA programme – see Table 2.

Table 2:

Logical framework for the implementation and evaluation of the EIA programme(Potter & Naidoo, 2007)

Aim	**Purpose Statement**	**Anticipated Outcomes**	**Objectively Verifiable Indicators**	**Inputs (planned action)**	**Outputs (evidence reflecting actual achievements or results)**
To increase significantly the learning achievement of children, especially from rural and disadvantaged communities	To improve the quality of teaching in primary schools through open and distance education programmes especially in KwaZulu/ Natal, Eastern Cape and Northern Province	Expansion of broadcast coverage of radio learning for teachers	Daily broadcasts by SABC and community radio stations Area of radio broadcast footprint	Maintain and increase radio broadcasts by the SABC and community radio stations using the radio learning programme, throughout the grant period and thereafter.	Decisions by SABC and community radio stations to broadcast the radio learning programme Actual implementation of decisions to broadcast the programme Expansion in areas of the country able to access the radio learning programme broadcasts
		Improvement in classroom practice in line with outcomes-based education methodology	Integration of radio learning programmes into school timetables Teachers trained in outcomes-based education in line with Curriculum 2005 Complementary teaching and learning print materials to support the radio broadcasts Content of radio learning scripts and supporting materials broadened and deepened	Ensuring that SABC and community radio stations broadcast the programme during the school day and preferably as close as possible to 9am. Continuing provision of teacher development workshops in conjunction with DOE subjects advisors/curriculum implementers. Upgrading of materials for teachers and learners in keeping with Curriculum 2005 changes. Additional materials to be included as part of the learner support and	Records of daily broadcasts in each area. Comments from teachers and principals relating to timing, accessibility and clarity of broadcasts. Records of regional coordinators' visits to schools. Records of numbers of teacher support workshops, content covered and attendance at workshops. Evidence of changes to radio scripts and learner support and teacher support materials. Evidence of adequate distribution of materials to schools. Evidence of usage by learners and teachers of

				teacher support group packages.	radio broadcasts and support materials at school and classroom levels.
		Improved rates of learner retention	Participation of learners in radio lessons. Enjoyment of radio lessons. Engagement and learning through use of support materials and follow-up lessons. Continued school attendance as opposed to dropout	Ensuring that teachers tune into SABC and community radio stations broadcasts of the programme during the school day Ensuring that teachers prepare adequately for the broadcast lessons at 9am. Ensuring that teachers are able to access and use the supporting learner and teacher support materials. Encouraging teachers to follow up the broadcast lessons at 9am with other appropriately prepared and preferably linked lessons. Encouraging teachers to provide quality teaching and learning environments in the classroom.	Interviews with programme staff. Classroom observation. School-based case studies Self-reports from teachers Self-reports and comment from principals Focus groups with parents Performance tests Analysis of classroom work Teacher comments/responses in questionnaires Principal comments/responses in questionnaires Analysis of planning documents Analysis of materials Analysis of classroom environments Analysis of timetables Analysis of classroom work

The DfID reviewers noted that progress was made on each output in the Logframe (Potter & Naidoo, 2006) (refer to section 5.1.3. for an explanation of Logframe evaluation). Based on their reading of internal and external programme documents and evaluation reports and the observations made by their project officers on programme site visits, the evidence suggested that all outputs either had been achieved or had largely been achieved. Certain problems were noted, however, in implementation with respect to distribution of radios and supporting print materials due to problems in the DfID procurement process as well as with shipping. This had knock-on effects into other areas of implementation and affected teacher support workshops. It was further noted that in terms of its scale of operation, strategies for institutionalisation of the programme were essential. At this level, the programme had achieved the support of the education departments, as well as the support of the national broadcaster. Both provided funding support for

the programme's work. The programme also continued to have widespread support at school level (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

From the perspective of long-term sustainability, the DfID review highlighted the fact that the first and second levels of sustainability (i.e. widespread support from teachers and positive institutional response) had partially been achieved (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The third level of sustainability (partnership with the educational authorities and the national broadcaster) had been to some extent achieved. The fourth level (acceptance and advocacy by the bureaucracy, backed with protracted and sustained financial support) was not yet a reality. Overall, at the end of 2004, the reviewers rated the outputs of the programme relative to financial support as successful.

A number of recommendations were made at the end of the DfID review (Potter & Naidoo, 2006: 2007). OLSET needed to develop a strategic plan to ensure the achievement of its objectives and to continue diversifying funding sources. It also needed to continue establishing and strengthening relationships with stakeholders such as the provincial educational departments and the SABC and to strengthen the initiatives of monitoring and evaluating the programme's impact. It was with these recommendations in mind that the researcher developed her evaluation model.

2.4. Summary and implications

The context of this investigation has now been demarcated. The discussion undertaken in this chapter has focused on the development of the South African radio-learning programme in the context of South African education. The experience of the South African EIA radio-learning programme has potential implications for a resurgence of interest in radio learning and the potential of interactive radio as an Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in developing countries (Perraton, 2000). EIA has also been able to demonstrate the potential of radio as a low-cost ICT when used on a large scale (Cobbe, 1995). In a context of under provision in a developing country, the experience of EIA would thus suggest a role for radio as an ICT, as well as the value of linking radio to other media.

Evaluation results, from the EIA programme have been positive. On the one hand, there are indications that learners involved in project schools have consistently out-performed those in

non-project schools. Involvement of learners in a daily routine of English language teaching activities focused around a radio lesson had also apparently had value to learners in project schools, as indicated by school-based case studies (Potter, 1994b; Potter & Silva, 2002). However, given the scale of needs in South African schooling it cannot be claimed that the EIA model of multi-channel support provides definitive answers to raising quality of teaching and learning in primary education (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

This evaluation focuses on the issue of what the EIA programme has achieved at school and classroom levels, and whether its particular model of open learning has been perceived by its beneficiaries (teachers and principals) to have contributed to the development of educational skills in their schools, and their own development as professionals. This study focuses on OLSET's EIA programme that caters for both teachers and learners using open learning, distance education and IRI principles, which have links to community development and empowerment. The focus of this study is on the programme's operation from 2001 to 2003.

Chapter 3: Educational development, open learning and distance education

3.1. Education and learning

For the purposes of this study, education is defined as encompassing planned and continuous communication, which is intended to bring about learning (Thompson, 1981). This communication requires that a relationship exist between two or more people where information is transferred via an organised medium. The planned communication is derived from established curricula. Learning is interpreted as a means to change "behaviour, knowledge, understanding, skills or capabilities" (Thompson, 1981, p. 23). These behavioural patterns must be retained by the learner. Thus, education according to Fordham (1980) and Watson (1984) should create awareness that change is possible. Alternatives should be made clear and aid should be provided to communities for them to identify the changes they need.

Education (formal and non-formal) is viewed by Harmon (1974), the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (1981) and Lockheed et al. (1991) as the keystone in economic and social development. Primary education is seen as the foundation of this development. Education can improve productive capacity as well as political, scientific and economic structures. Furthermore, it helps reduce poverty by justifying its effects on population and health. At the same time, the labour offered by the poor can be increased in terms of value and efficiency (Lockheed et al., 1991). Underdevelopment usually exists with high levels of illiteracy (Harmon, 1974). Illiteracy is commonly associated with other societal ills. Thus, a growth in literacy is often associated with economic development.

3.2. Educational development

According to Hartshorne (1978), Murphree (1976) and Thompson (1981), the school is viewed as an agent for change as well as a direct factor in economic development. However, educational development is also concerned with community development[2] i.e. the people's needs, attitudes and motivation (Hartshorne, 1978; Murphree, 1976). Education also serves as a means of

[2] An elaboration on community development is provided in section 4.4.

incorporating the learner into a changing national society (Thompson, 1981). This prepares him/her for highly fluid situations where he/she would have to make his/her own way, select appropriate roles and adapt to ongoing change.

Educational development uses education as the main instrument for multi-dimensional development processes and social change (Nkomo, 2000). In order for education systems to address all these issues, there is a need for educational system reform (Hartshorne, 1978). However, educational reform efforts to improve student learning often place extra burden on teachers (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995.)

Primary education has the purpose of 1) producing literate and numerate populations that can deal with problems and 2) serving as a foundation upon which further education is built (Hartshorne, 1978; Lockheed et al., 1991). According to Jugessur (1991) and Nkomo (2000), the foundations of critical and analytical thinking are often established in primary education. Thus, curricula should include a component of environmental science to provide learners with an opportunity to understand scientific concepts as well as their environment. This in turn affords learners the opportunity to comment on beliefs.

In many developing counties, these goals are not being achieved (Lockheed et al., 1991). Children in schools are not being taught the core skills contained in national curricula. In addition, school-aged children are not being provided with opportunities to attend school. Furthermore, knowledge and skills that are necessary for students to function efficiently in rural areas are not being passed on (Fordham, 1980). Thus, these primary education systems are ineffective and hinder national efforts to develop human capital (Lockheed et al., 1991).

As Hartshorne (1978) argues, primary education therefore needs qualitative improvement in order to contribute to development effectively. Fordham (1980) and Hartshorne (1978) further argue that relevant curricula and syllabi that meet the needs of the people are required. Moreover, active student participation[3] is also called for and the quality of the teachers also needs to be addressed[4]

[3] Further discussion on learner participation is provided in section 3.4.
[4] The importance of teacher development is presented in section 3.5.

(Hartshorne, 1978).

Adults in developing countries who have higher levels of education are able to receive higher paying employment, greater agricultural productivity, lower fertility and better health (Lockheed et al., 1991). They are also more likely to send their children to school. These factors are dimensions of development. Primary education also aids in forging national unity and social cohesion. Education systems that allow for awareness that change is possible permit individuals to be actively involved in development, thus facilitating interest, participation, critical awareness and self-confidence (Fordham, 1980). These are also some characteristics of an empowered individual (Zimmerman, 2000).

According to Chisholm (2004), Illich (1984) and Thompson (1981), education and development are both social construction enterprises. Each creates a new space that can be furnished. Education creates an inner psychic void while development redefines the outer world. Together these constructs synthesise into the reality in which society moves (Illich, 1984).

As with empowerment, the paradigm of educational development is expressed differently by different writers (Pradervand, 1984). Development is an evolution toward growing autonomy of individuals and communities in all areas (Pradervand, 1984; Thompson, 1981). It may also be referred to as the development of a series of skills such as an ability to approach different issues and problems, critical thinking and creativity. In this research, development is defined as growth together with change in the social, economic and institutional structures of a country so that the standard of living for all can be raised (Chisholm, 2004; Watson, 1984). Education is seen as critical in bringing about such change, as without the public being sufficiently educated, they will not be concerned with these shifts (Fordham, 1980; Watson, 1984).

School reform initiatives adopted in many African countries after independence have focused on physical changes (Nkomo, 2000). Factors such enrolment expansion and specific goals to be achieved have been focused on. However, cultural and language contexts must also be acknowledged and incorporated. Social reality must also be incorporated into these reforms along with the role of tertiary institutions (Nkomo, 2000). Therefore, at this point deeper qualitative and

multifaceted reforms, which embrace governance, curriculum and instructional practice, are being called for (Nkomo, 2000).

In South Africa, a further consideration in educational development needs to be made - that of urban versus rural areas, although it should be noted that the urban-rural divide is also a world-wide concern (Fiske, 2000; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990). Rural schools in South Africa are often impoverished, yet they are fully examined according to the same criteria as all other schools in the country, regardless of their levels of resources (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Sharpley, 2003). Furthermore, the teachers and communities around rural schools are often confronted with a lack of skills, money and experience to handle the changes in educational policies (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990). Thus, more attention needs to be paid to the needs of these schools.

This difference between rural and urban schools in South Africa could possibly be the reasoning behind OLSET adopting three of its objectives: ensuring equitable access to learning in urban and rural areas; creating additional opportunities to rural schools to ensure this equitable access to learning; and reducing urban bias in the provisioning and distribution of educational resources to all areas. One such method to address the educational needs of these poverty-stricken schools is to provide a relatively cheap form of providing good quality education in the form of distance education though radio.

Skill development by learners and teachers is thus important for South Africa. In President Mbeki's (2004 a; 2004b) statements on a national development vision, skills were seen both as a constraint on socio-economic delivery and as a mechanism for simultaneously addressing the need for international competitiveness and the upliftment of the poverty-stricken and the unemployed. In his vision, skill development becomes a bridge for crossing the divide between the 'two nations' that characterise South Africa's uneven historical development; one that is part of the global knowledge and consumerist First World and the other part of the poor and marginalised Third World. This vision of skill development also seems to be shared by OLSET as demonstrated in its objectives that focus on skill development in the form of language, literacy and communication skills.

In order to ensure sustainable development one needs to certify that the objectives of a programme are aligned with the national commitments and policies (Matlock, 2005). Alignment with the overall political dynamics will also aid sustainable development. Within the programme, there must be a passion for development to ensure endurance during difficult times. Lastly, there must be participation by those people involved in the programme (UNESCO, 2005).

Furthermore, according to Geen (2005), a number of stakeholders' roles must be in place in order for development in the education sector to be sustainable. Firstly, there must be a supporting environment. Community organisations, local communities and local government are responsible for ensuring such an environment. An enabling environment is the next level that is required in education development. Departments of education, NGOs, tertiary institutions and schools have roles to play in this environment, as do the parents, educators, support staff and learners constituting individual schools (Geen, 2005; Torimiro, Malik & Kolawole, 2004). The third environmental level is the influencing one. Here student organisations, businesses, teacher organisations and professional bodies have roles to play.

Hence, there are a number of pathways that can influence school effectiveness and improvement (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Williams, 2005). These include: location, integration and relationship; team-building; management, leadership and governance; learners; resourcing; policy; material development; teaching; family and community and lastly, but by no means least, evaluation (Williams, 2005).

3.3. Challenges to educational development

*"*Educational change is a complex, dynamic, lengthy and distinctive process that proceeds in incremental steps*"* (Lockheed et al., 1991, p. 219). Large-scale educational development is a lengthy endeavour. Furthermore, in a large-scale programme not all stakeholder issues are or can be addressed, therefore, commitment by all stakeholders is not uniform and can be a limiting factor. Large-scale implementation of educational development also varies from school to school and a lack of resources can hinder educational development. Poorly trained teachers and underdeveloped skills are other hindrances to educational development (Lockheed et al., 1991).

Traditional responses to change have also been shown to no longer be effective (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994). Strategies developed to handle one specific problem as well as approaches used to deal with multiple issues are rapidly reaching their 'sell-by date'. This is due to unpredictable shifts in the socio-political nature of different societies. There are further complications in relation to centralisation-decentralisation and top-down versus bottom-up change. These discussions are beyond the scope of this thesis hence the reader is referred to Hopkins et al. (1994) for detailed discussions on these issues.

Educational development in Africa specifically is also riddled with a number of challenges (Nkomo, 2000). Relevant education system developments need to be tailored to African needs and competitive requirements. The harnessing and improvement of the appropriate knowledge and capacity to undertake such endeavours is also required. Lastly, a sense of ownership and commitment to such endeavours needs to be taken up by Africans (Nkomo, 2000).

Having provided the thrust behind education and development and the significance of such an endeavour the author will now turn attention to the intricacies of educational development. In-service teacher development, multichannel learning, open learning, distance education and interactive radio instruction will also be expanded upon.

3.4. Educational effectiveness and improvement

In common usage, school effectiveness and improvement are used interchangeably. However, the former refers to an attempt to distinguish objectively between schools in terms of success while improvement is a qualitative research orientation that looks at 'outside-in' change rather than 'inside-out' change (Wrigley, 2003). School improvement thus emphasises learning, intervention and empowerment.

School improvement is viewed by Hopkins et al. (1994) as an educational change approach that enhances learner outcomes and strengthens the capacity of the school to manage change. However, it must be noted that this proposed change, even when well received, may not be adequately implemented. There are also different types of change. Incremental change is a gradual transition from one state to another, whereas planned change often interrupts natural

development to formulate almost instantaneous change. Change can also result from internal (within the system or natural change) or external (what others do to us to change) sources. Thus, planned internal change is purposive and planned external change is innovative. Incremental internal change results in personal growth and development, while incremental external change results in environmental changes (Hopkins et al., 1994). The type of change experienced within the process of school improvement may therefore fundamentally affect the outcomes of the developmental process**.**

In most countries, primary school spans six years, during which time the curriculum objectives students are required to meet incorporate basic literacy and numeracy skills and the ability to apply basic skills to new problems (Lockheed et al., 1991). Few schools achieve these objectives, due mostly to the difficulties inherent in mass education such as imbalanced teacher-pupil ratios, inadequate teacher training and insufficient resources (Lockheed et al., 1991). Improving the quality and efficiency of education is a necessity to develop the core knowledge and skills of the curriculum (Hopkins et al., 1994). This is also seen in the objectives of OLSET, specifically to develop skills in the form of language, literacy and communication skills.

The first step toward improving learning is choosing and managing effective inputs (Lockheed et al, 1991). The objective of each primary school should be to increase the quality and number of graduates. This is done by increasing the probability that students will stay in school and be promoted to the next grade (Fiske, 2000; UNESCO, 2005). Increasing student learning is central to this process. Learning is determined by four factors; curriculum and policies, instructional materials, learning time and teaching; and the child's teachability (Hopkins et al., 1994; Lockheed et al., 1991).

Learners' involvement is also viewed as contributing to educational effectiveness and improvement (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hopkins et al., 1994). Involving students in the transformation of a school greatly improves the culture of the school (Lodge, 2005). This involvement should include incorporating the learner's voices i.e. they should be involved in decision-making (Furtwengler, 1996; Lodge, 2005). According to Furtwengler (1996), by empowering students via involving them in school leadership a more positive culture results in

the school. This positive culture relates to better attendance, higher grades and fewer discipline problems. Thus, by providing students with the power to influence their own learning environment school transformation can result (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Lodge, 2005).

The school environment itself will also greatly influence a student's learning ability, for instance, if students and teachers attend classes regularly according to an established timetable, if facilities are in working order and clean and if teaching materials are frequently provided effective classroom management and learning can occur (Lockheed et al., 1991; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). OLSET has taken note of this, as seen in its objective to provide relevant teacher and learner support materials, which are continuously developed and improved. Parental involvement and support as well as external support to the school are also important in this process (Hopkins et al., 1994; Torimiro et al., 2004). This may account for OLSET's objective of working in partnership with different stakeholders.

Arguably, the most important aspect of improving schools relates to improving pedagogy though. Teachers are central to the delivery, as well as the quality, of education (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lockheed et al., 1991). The academic and professional training of teachers has a direct bearing on the achievement of their students. Effective teaching is determined by the individual teacher's knowledge of the subject matter as well as a mastery of pedagogical skills (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). In view of the educational and language context of South Africa, 're-training' of teachers via continuous and professional teacher development or in-service education and training (INSET) may be an effective tool for implementing meaningful educational development. OLSET thus strives to develop teachers by providing ongoing teacher support in the form of workshops and teacher support groups (TSGs). These endeavours are part of the teacher curriculum OLSET developed in 1994.

When school effectiveness research merges with knowledge about school improvement (e.g. planned change and staff development) schools and teachers can be empowered[5] and effectiveness can be supported (Stoll, 1992). According to Fullan and Hargreaves (1992), there is

[5] See section 4.6.3 for further discussion on teacher and learner empowerment.

a link between teacher development and successful implementations of innovations such as the EIA programme. Effective implementation consists of modifications in instructional practices and behaviour as well as teacher beliefs and understandings. Thus, the process of implementation takes on a learning role.

3.5. INSET

It is essential that teachers be given assistance in the delivery of the national curriculum in order to develop their learners and, in turn, themselves. Teachers in practice cannot, however, be removed from the classroom, but should be given assistance in the effective implementation of learning in the form of continuous and on-the-job training and 're-education'. Indeed, some research has shown that the most cost-effective way to improve the quality of education of a developing country is to provide a relatively short period of pre-service training followed by systematic in-service education and training (INSET) provision (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995).

Guskey (2000) and Ruskey (1999) define INSET as those processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills and attitudes of teachers so that they may improve the learning of students. It is an ongoing and systematic process that views change in relation to intended outcomes or goals over a period of time and assesses these goals across multiple levels. INSET is thus seen as a deliberately designed effort to bring about positive change and improvement, which focuses on the development of knowledge and skills and their integration into existing curricula (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hofmeyr, 1991). This results in changes in both teachers' and managers' roles, as well as the development of an evaluation or assessment component.

According to Lotz (1996), teachers are interested in developing curricula and are able to do so if they are provided with the opportunity, as well as an appropriate INSET process. Formal and non-formal INSET hence caters for teachers' professional growth, as the initial training educators receive rarely equips them to manage the complex, demanding and changing needs of education and curriculum revision. By providing mechanisms for personal knowledge growth and skills development, authentic teacher participation and development of reflective practices can be ensured. This process can also be supported by ongoing interaction and appropriate materials

provision over a period of time (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). Grimmett and Crehan (1992) argue that teachers that work with colleagues in this endeavour derive instructional range, depth, flexibility and innovations.

According to Robinson (1997) distance education's role in INSET is particularly advantageous. It can place curricula information and teaching approaches directly in the hands of the teachers. Thus, the primary school teachers can be upgraded and the quality of teaching and learning can be raised. Distance education can also be used to relieve shortages in primary school teachers (Perraton, 2000). It has the capacity to train unqualified teachers without removing them from schools (Young, Perraton, Jenkins & Dodds, 1980). Teacher training using open learning and distance education therefore provides a cost-effective means of providing teacher training which also reaches remote and rural teachers (Robinson & Latchem, 2003). Large-scale training in a relatively short amount of time is also possible. For INSET purposes, more often than not access to information, learning resources and peer interaction is ongoing. Many organisational models exist for teacher training at a distance, ranging in size, format and effectiveness (Perraton, 2000; Robinson & Latchem, 2003).

3.5.1. INSET models

A number of INSET models have been used internationally, including, in order of their development, course-based, school-based and school-focused. Course-based INSET, which highlighted the needs of teachers as professionals, focused on the individual teacher through short courses held away from the teachers' schools (Bolam, 1982). However, the courses offered in the course-based INSET programmes were seldom used by the teachers and were rarely supported. Although in practice the course-based model is still relatively dominant, its problems indicated the need to shift to a model that focused on the needs of the teacher in relation to the school or as employees (Bolam, 1982; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). As a result, school-based INSET provision emerged as a reaction to the course-based model.

In the school-based INSET model, responsibility for staff development was placed at the door of teachers themselves based on their own needs and problems (Hofmeyr, 1991). School-based INSET then led to the emergence of the school-focused INSET model, which attempted to merge

the positive aspects of both previous models and minimise their disadvantages. The term ‘school-focused’ arose following a discussion paper in the United Kingdom (UK), which referred to INSET taking place either on or off the job with the INSET activities provided either by outside agencies or by the school itself (Bolam, 1982). Thus, the needs of the school, as well as the standards of teaching and learning, were addressed. School-focused INSET therefore emerged as an attempt to overlap the divide between the concerns of practitioner and administrator (Hofmeyr, 1991).

Although the international literature favours the school-focused approach to INSET, there are a number of potential criticisms related to this approach. Firstly, school-focused INSET is a relatively untried strategy (Bolam, 1982). Secondly, the term is used to describe a very wide range of interventions and approaches to INSET (Joint Education Trust [JET],1995). This diversity leads different authors to refer to slightly different concepts using the same term. Furthermore, some writers use school-focused and school-based INSET to describe the same approach, while others use the terms interchangeably as though one is a component of the other. What seems to remain common in these various descriptions is the principle that the school-focused approach to 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. Although the literature (cf. Bolam, 1982; JET, 1995) favours INSET that focuses on teachers' needs, it is worth noting that there appears to be no sustained debate on the merits or limitations of school-based as opposed to school-focused or course-based INSET.

3.5.2. Limitations of research related to INSET

Since the mid-1970's research on INSET has proliferated and attempting to keep abreast of the research available in the field is a nearly impossible task (Wade, 1985). Hofmeyr (1991) emphasises that the empirical base of the literature is limited and that most studies rely on ‘craft knowledge’. Griffin (1983), however, argues that much of this knowledge has been subjected to rigorous scrutiny and systematic enquiry therefore, there is objective evidence to support the positions embedded in ‘craft knowledge’.

There are two further limitations in the literature available. Firstly, the policy documents almost exclusively use stakeholder views as their references. Thus, they are 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 are also largely advocacy of particular models or forms of INSET and are rarely based on rigorous sustained fieldwork. Secondly, the absence of the work of subject advisers and inspectors, who in Britain and other countries inform and produce much of the INSET literature, is another weakness. In South Africa too, published writings on classroom-based research and experience by state INSET workers are rare (JET, 1995; Mannah, 2000).

3.5.3. INSET in South Africa

The training and development of teachers has been identified as one of the most important factors in the transformation of the South African education system (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). Prior to 1976, there were vacation courses and winter schools as well as inspectors that regulated or provided for INSET in South African education (Hartshorne, 1992; INSET sub-committee, 1985). After 1976, when the Soweto uprising occurred, INSET provision grew rapidly as NGOs responded to the need to improve the quality of education (Hartshorne, 1992; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995, INSET sub-committee, 1985). The state also responded to this need via inspectors, although implementation was uneven (Hartshorne, 1992, INSET sub-committee, 1985). By the 1990s, INSET provision by both of these parties was considerable (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995).

In 1997, this was condensed into a formal in-service programme for teachers in South Africa consisting of:

- An advocacy phase to prepare for implementing OBE directed at the approximately 300 000 teachers in the education system
- A national mechanism for training Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase teachers.
- Distribution of policy documents, illustrative learning programmes and learner support materials to teachers as a part of the training.
- An evaluation and monitoring mechanism

(Review Committee on Curriculum, 2005).

Private for-profit colleges also began to offer such services, as did pre-service institutions (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). This resulted in the growth of a huge industry around INSET in support of upgrading and further qualifications.

Formal INSET courses are currently offered by 41 different education departments through various colleges, universities, INSET centres teacher centres and subject advisory services (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). According to Du Toit and Squazzin (2000) and Hofmeyr and Hall (1995) any professional South African model of INSET should focus on the following:

- Building skills, competences and attitudes, not just information or knowledge.
- Providing opportunities and space for teachers to grow according to their needs and at their own pace.
- Building on prior knowledge and learning experiences.
- Enabling teachers to build up increasingly sophisticated understandings of their work and context.

During this process, they should also:

- Take into account the principles of the new policy for education and training into account.
- Be guided by policy and teachers' self-determined INSET goals.
- Take into account the contextual realities within which teachers and learners live and work.

The change to an OBE system in South Africa in 1997 was accompanied by many changes within the formal education setting. One of the most significant of these was the change in the role of the teacher. Seven roles were identified for teachers: learning mediator, interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials; leader, administrator and manager, community citizen and pastor, scholar, researcher and lifelong learner, learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist and assessor (Department of Education, 2000; Sayed, 2004). These roles are not new but are now officially acknowledged as roles that may have been filled by teachers in the past without recognition. The new and revised roles provide a greater level of specificity and guidance for pre-service and in-service programmes.

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 (JET, 1995). Hartshorne (1992) further argues that INSET should work closer to where the teacher is and with the realities of the school and its community. Other support in South African literature for INSET that focuses on teachers, their needs and empowerment comes from Mehl (1987), Ngcongo (1987), Nicholson and van den Berg (1989), Thembela (1987) and Walker (1990). These authors suggest that the best results for in-service training of teachers arises from school-focused INSET (cf. Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992).

It is worth noting that concerns in relation to school-focused INSET in South Africa have also been raised, though. Van Den Berg (1987) states that school-focused INSET is largely a western Anglo-Saxon concept and may not be applicable to South African conditions, while Millar (1984) suggests that the low levels of training and experience of many South African teachers may pose a problem for school-focused INSET. Furthermore, it is argued that the majority of teachers are not ready for school-focused INSET, which demands a relatively high level of education and experience. Hofmeyr (1991) and Hofmeyr and Hall (1995) claim that INSET should be multi-dimensional, involving centre-based, school-based, school-focused, group-focused and individually focused strategies to overcome contextual limitations and provide effective change within a supportive community environment.

Based on this, the importance of the potential role of NGOs in INSET provision is incontrovertible (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). 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 (JET, 1995). 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, enabling teachers to become more confident and self-reliant, introducing learner-centred, contemporary approaches to teaching over traditional ways and encouraging materials development skills. Numerous methods to promote this may be employed, including multi-channel and open learning, and distance education tools such as interactive radio instruction (IRI).

3.6. Multi-channel learning

Multi-channel learning is a notion that promotes the use of all available communication channels to promote multiple areas of learning (Anzalone, 1995; 2000; Anzalone, Sutaria, Desroches & Visser, 1995). It comes in a variety of forms covering formal, non-formal and informal education and takes place within different educational delivery systems. It is concerned with the support, extension and quality-improvement of what is occurring in the classroom by introducing alternative ways of promoting learning. It also supports the development of the individual who is out of school, as well as group-based learning. Multi-channel learning aims to stimulate and create positive learning environments under any circumstances in order to motivate and mobilise people toward education. Thus, it represents an attempt to bring innovative learning technologies that both fall and do not fall under the heading of distance education (Anzalone, 1995; 2000; Anzalone et al., 1995).

The terms multi-channel learning and open learning appear to be very similar. Multi-channel learning stresses the role of technology in creating learning environments. Open learning, in contrast, stresses the process aspects of providing access to learning and learning support (Potter & Naidoo, 2007).The concept multi-channel learning appears to be primarily utilised by scholars from the USA (cf. Anzalone, 1995; 2000), while the phrase open learning appears to be predominately used by scholars from the United Kingdom (cf. Bosworth, 1991; Marland, 1997; Rowntree, 1992).

3.7. Open learning

Open learning arose under the advent of the open education movement in 1960s and 1970s, and in the 1990s established itself as a very clear educational trend. Open education methods involved flexible use of space, learner choice of activity, good learning materials and more individual and small-group learner activities. In essence, the optimisation or extension of student choice was sought. Open learning seeks this same latter principle (Marland, 1997).

A precise definition of the term ‘open learning’ is difficult to pin down due to diverse interpretations (Bosworth, 1991). Nonetheless, there is agreement that opportunities for learner

choice and control over course content, learning strategies and learning resources should be offered. Flexible access to learning programmes, assessment practices, modes of delivery and time and place of study are also provided. Open learning is thus a philosophy as well as a method (Rowntree, 1992).

Open learning can therefore be seen as referring to a wide range of learning opportunities that aim to assist learners in gaining improved access to knowledge and skills and to provide learners with the optimum degree of control over their own learning. Removal of barriers and formal entry requirements are two major elements of a successful approach to open learning. The importance of focusing on the needs of individual learners is also emphasised. In addition, a variety of teaching and learning styles are included, as is tutorial support and a system of assessment.

Open learning thus provides learners with access to learning resources, advice, support and, in most cases, assessment of learning (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992). Via these means, students play a more active role in their own learning, which in turn empowers them, particularly if their needs are catered for (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). These needs are met by the creation of a positive learning experience (Furtwengler, 1996; Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Lodge, 2005).

Open learning has some recognised constraints (Bosworth, 1991). The first is that most people involved in education and training are reluctant to try something new and in practice new flexible methods of teaching and assessing have to be developed. Staffing, funding and lack of suitable resources are further constraints, particularly in relation to successful practical implementation of the approach in a classroom environment (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997).

3.8. Distance education

It is often suggested that open learning and distance education are the same thing and distance education and open learning have been used synonymously in theoretical discussions (Kaye, 1988; Pantzar, 1995). In fact, distance education is most sensibly considered as one aspect of the broader educational approach of open learning, and distance education programmes may or may not incorporate aspects of open learning (Kember & Murphy, 1990; Robinson & Latchem, 2003).

In the 1990's, distance learning obtained recognition as a legitimate part of education to be used either separately or in combination with face-to-face education (Perraton & Creed, 2000).

Distance education's defining characteristic is the separation of teacher and learner in space and/or time, while the teacher still serves as a guide (Perraton, 1998; Peters, 1993; Rowntree, 1992). Distance education provides the opportunity for any individual, in any situation, at any time, to learn and is a mode of education that provides structured learning (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). Distance education is thus viewed as a method of improving education (and thus a tool for educational development) by dispersing education to rural areas, providing access to minority groups, increasing the quality of education, and reducing educational costs (Eastmond, 2000).

In the developing world, the use of distance education has resulted in improvements in the quality of both teaching materials and learner support structures (Guy, 1999). It also has the ability to enhance the quality of traditional primary schooling and to deliver instruction to remote rural areas that might not otherwise be served (Potashnik & Capper, 1998). Distance education has thus aided in expanding education (Perraton, 2000). Furthermore, teacher education may also be addressed through distance learning, which enables the expansion of education opportunities and contributes to development in any country (Perraton, 1999). Development can also be seen as a process of empowerment, thus, distance learning, by implication, may be viewed as an empowering experience for teachers as well (Guy, 1999). This may, however, be difficult to achieve due to the vested interests of different stakeholders in a distance education programme.

The effectiveness of distance education seems to be dependent on 1) good management and administration, 2) the development of good materials and 3) motivation on part of the users (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). Research has examined what accounts for failures in distance education in the developing world and why apparently successful programmes have ceased to operate, primarily at the level of practical issues (Guy, 1999; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). Key reasons identified include funding, which for innovations in the developing world appears to be adequate during trial stages but severely curtailed during the implementation phase, and a lack of adequate infrastructure and trained indigenous staff (Perraton & Creed, 2000).

Despite this, distance education is poised to play a major role in education and training in South Africa. This is emphasised by a number of policy documents, which have identified distance education as a mechanism for redress and wider access to education and training (Department of Education, 2005). The conventional education system cannot meet the needs of the huge numbers of people who were excluded from educational opportunities by the past policies of the apartheid government. Nor can it single-handedly cope with the demands for education by the new cohorts of learners coming through the system (Department of Education, 2005). Quality and well functioning distance education could therefore become central to the provision of life-long education and training, as well as increasing quality of life.

There are many technologies that have been in used in distance education in Africa, including print materials, television, telephone, Internet and satellite broadcasting (Fillip, 2000). Research has demonstrated, however, that there is no practical substitute for primary schools; hence, the role of these technologies is to support primary education and not to replace it (Perraton & Creed, 2000). One of the most widely used distance learning technologies is radio. Radio has been used in many different ways in education and training for over 60 years (Bates, 1995). Radio broadcast has been used extensively in Africa for a variety of educational purposes (Fillip, 2000). Radio offers three main strengths: access, quality and efficiency (Bates, 1995; Christensen, 1990; Perraton & Creed, 2000). It has also proven to be the most useful, reliable and cheapest form of technology to enhance distance education in developing countries as it is an easy and familiar technology for most people (Bates, 1995; Guy, 1999; Rowntree, 1992). In Africa as a whole, radio is accessible to 75% of the population, whereas television is accessible to only 40% and the Internet to 0.1% (Perraton & Creed, 2000).

Radio is a one-way communication technology can facilitate interaction with learners by using learning materials and providing student response feedback (Bates, 1995). There are three types of interactions possible (Moore, 1993). The first is learner-content interaction where the learner interacts directly with the content on the radio. The second interaction is learner-instructor interaction and the third learner-learner interaction, both enabled through working and learning together while engaging with the radio broadcast. Radio therefore has the potential to motivate learners and teachers to take action and to modify behaviour (Nwaerondu & Thompson, 1987).

Despite the obvious advantages, there are obstacles to using radio as a distance learning technology (Fillip, 2000; Rowntree, 1992). Although radio programmes are relatively inexpensive to broadcast, they are quite expensive to develop. On a practical level, students have to be listening to the programme at the time it is broadcast and, in many areas the transmission may not be good or audible. To deal with both obstacles the more costly option of providing audiotapes can be used. Radios also require electricity to operate, although for locations where there is no electricity, wind-up or battery powered radios are options (A. I. D, 1990; Perraton & Creed, 2000).

3.9. Interactive radio instruction (IRI)

With these facets in mind a distance education method termed interactive radio instruction (IRI) has been developed. This variant of broadcasting has been adopted widely in developing countries, often with the funding support of USAID (Bates, 1995; Perraton & Creed, 2000). IRI was developed in order to turn a typical one-way technology into a tool for active learning (Bosch, 1996, 1997; Dock & Helwig, 1999). The main objective of an IRI programme is to provide cost-effective quality instruction to disadvantaged learners (Bosch, 1996).

The original IRI model was developed to teach mathematics in Nicaragua in the early 1970s (Dock & Helwig, 1999). This model was then used and adapted for use in numerous projects across different countries and contexts (Bosch, 1996). Over the course of these years, these series' of interactive radio projects developed a standard methodology based on three principles (Perraton, 2000). Lessons are designed to teach an intensive core curriculum and to express educational principles via behavioural terms, with formative evaluation built in (Bosch, 1996).

IRI can therefore be seen as the use of interactive lessons in which audio components delivered by an audio educator and classroom activities carried out by the learners are carefully integrated (Bosch, 1997). The first model promoted active learning through a conversation between the students and the radio teacher (Bosch, 1996). The radio educator would ask a question or set out a task for listeners to perform and leave pauses for learners' responses and activities. With increased interest in these methods, the variety of IRI formats grew to include soap opera and adventure drama, drill and practice, teacher training through modelling and direct guidance, story

and open discussion and other educational formats (Bosch, 1996; 1997). These new styles still rely on the principles of IRI i.e. the student is learning through actual participation. Teachers and other facilitators are also asked to take on more direct roles in teaching and learning, and educators are encouraged to use these interactive processes in other lesson areas (Bosch, 1996; 1997).

IRI is distinct from most other forms of distance education in that its primary goal is to improve educational quality (Dock & Helwig, 1999). Unlike other radio distance-education methods that focus on access problems, IRI focuses on counteracting the low levels of teacher training, poor achievement among learners and limited resources. IRI thus expands access and equity as well as quality improvement through a development strategy and methodology that require active learning, attention to pedagogy and formative evaluation as an integral part of its design. Projects using this approach have been successful in increasing students learning (Perraton, 1993; Perraton & Creed, 2000). Perraton (1982) further argues that the more effective IRI programmes link broadcast and print with some face-to-face study, thereby obtaining the best of both worlds i.e. print and radio.

Successive evaluations of such projects have demonstrated the educational effectiveness of these programmes (cf. A. I. D., 1990; Célicourt, 2006; Oxford, 1985; Perraton & Creed, 2000; Potter & Naidoo, 2006; Wagner et al., 2004). Children consistently perform as well or better than children not in IRI programmes in tests. Research indicates that IRI can narrow the gaps in achievement between rural and urban children, and, especially where teaching quality is low, promote the standardisation of teaching in schools. The methods and models in the projects can also contribute to a teacher's professional development. Evaluations have also demonstrated that projects are likely to succeed if they use prevailing pedagogical practices and the community in the form of professional and national networks. Their success can be further enhanced via a process of continuous research and dialogue (A. I. D., 1990; Célicourt, 2006; Oxford, 1985; Perraton & Creed, 2000; Potter & Naidoo, 2006; Wagner et al., 2004).

IRI, however, demands substantial investment in curriculum developments (Perraton & Creed, 2000). Its prohibitive costs may mean that programmes using this approach may not be

sustainable once initial donor funding has been withdrawn. For example, in 1998 the cost of OLSET's EIA programme was U$1.8 per learner per year, thus requiring funds well in excess of U$ 900 000 in order to cater for the number of learners (Edirisingha, 1999). Due to expansion costs associated with such programmes, many of the projects are also unable to expand nationwide or last beyond the pilot phase (Perraton, 2000). In addition to financial limitations, there may be conflict between the demands of going to scale and the needs to be responsive to local needs and shifting needs in learning, and materials with long-production times cannot easily be responsive to these needs. These strengths and limitations of IRI's apply directly to the development and implementation of OLSET's EIA IRI-format programme.

3.9. Summary

In this study, education is viewed as the keystone in economic and social development, and the school is seen as an agent of change as well as a direct factor in economic development (Harmon, 1974; Hartshorne, 1978; HSRC, 1981; Lockheed et al., 1991; Murphree, 1976; Thompson, 1981). Educational development uses education as the main instrument for multi-dimensional developmental processes and social change (Nkomo, 2000). Hence, educational development is also concerned with community development (Hartshorne, 1978; Murphree, 1976).

Educational development involves consideration of school effectiveness and improvement (Wrigley, 2003). One facet that is considered here is the students' power to influence their own learning environment (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Lodge, 2005). Teachers are also viewed as central to the delivery and quality of education (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lockheed et al., 1991). Thus, formal and non-formal INSET, which caters for the teachers' professional growth, training and development, is identified as one of the important factors in the transformation of the South African education system (Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Lotz, 1996).

Open learning, which is a philosophy as well as a method, involves flexible access to learning programmes, assessment practices, modes of delivery and time and place of study (Rowntree, 1992). Via these means, students play a more active role in their own learning, which in turn has the potential to empower them, particularly if their needs are catered for (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). These needs are met by the creation of a positive learning experience

(Furtwengler, 1996; Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Lodge, 2005). It is often suggested that open learning and distance education are the same thing (Kaye, 1988). However, distance education programmes may or may not incorporate aspects of open learning (Robinson & Latchem, 2003). Distance education's characteristic is the separation of teacher and learner in space and/or time, while the teacher still serves as a guide (Perraton, 1998; Peters, 1993; Rowntree, 1992).

In the developing world, the use of distance education has resulted in improvements in the quality of teaching materials as well as learner support structures (Guy, 1999). Furthermore, teacher education may also be addressed which enables for the expansion of education opportunities (Robinson, 1997). Distance education has thus aided in expanding education (Perraton, 2000). These are improvements are that are desperately needed in South Africa, as explained previously in relation to the deprived conditions that are dominant in South African schools.

IRI was developed to turn a radio into a tool for active learning (Bosch, 1996, 1997; Dock & Helwig, 1999). IRI is distinct from most other forms of distance education as its primary goal is to improve educational quality (Dock & Helwig, 1999). It focuses on counteracting the low levels of teacher training (a prominent condition in South Africa), poor achievement among learners and limited resources. OLSET's EIA programme, the focus of this evaluation, is one such IRI-based programme currently operating in the South African context. It is based on open learning principles and aim to provide teachers and learners with access to learning resources, advice, support, as well as improvement of teaching and classroom management skills through workshops, classroom visits and TSGs.

Chapter 4: Community development and empowerment

The literature reviewed in the previous chapter would suggest that community development and empowerment are important aspects of educational development (Harmon, 1974; Hartshorne, 1978). This chapter focuses on empowerment, power and powerlessness (based on the assumption that empowerment can only occur where powerlessness exists) and contextualises the term within the field of community psychology.

4.1. Community psychology

4.1.1. The meaning of community

The word community denotes a merging of common habitat, common concerns and common culture that gives to societal life at the level of the locality a distinguishable form and character (Edwards & Jones, 1976). "A community is a group of people sharing a common bond or tradition, who support and challenge each other to act powerfully, both individually and collectively, to affirm, defend and advance their values and self-interests" (Miller, 2002, p. 32). Two groups at OLSET share such features, namely the teachers and the learners using the EIA programme. OLSET recognises these two distinct groups as it has two curricula - one for teachers and one for the learners.

4.1.2. Community psychology defined

The appearance and growth of community psychology in the USA can be traced back to the 1960s (Vogelman, Perkel & Strebel, 1992). It became a recognised field by the American Psychological Association in 1967. Its emergence stemmed from a growing awareness in psychology of environmental determinants in the individual's habitat and the unequal distribution of psychological services to certain communities. Mainstream psychodynamic therapy was criticised for excluding the poor (Seedat, Cloete & Shochet, 1988). In so doing the more serious socially relevant problems like substance abuse, crime, violence and women battering were being ignored.

Community psychology developed as a psychological discipline concerned with the community rather than the individual as the unit of analysis and intervention. It deals with social and

community problems and focuses on social issues, social institutions and other settings that influence individuals, groups and organisations (Dalton, Elias & Wandersman, 2001; Seedat, Duncan & Lazurus, 2001; Swartz & Gibson, 2001). Community psychology is therefore about understanding people within their social worlds and using this understanding to improve people's well being. Practitioners in the area systematically examine the ways individuals interact with other individuals (micro-context); social groups, churches, schools, families and neighbourhoods (meso-context); and the larger culture and environment (macro-context) (Dalton et al., 2001). Common issues investigated include poverty, school failure, community development[6], risk and protective factors, empowerment[7] diversity, prevention, intervention, high-risk behaviours and many other topics.

Community psychology is thus an applied discipline that focuses on the connection between the individual and the environment (Arendt, 1997; Dalton et al., 2001; Ife, 1995). Cultural beliefs affect the community or organisation, which in turn affect interpersonal relationships and people's lives. People working in unison also affect organisations, communities and society. Findings from research in this area are used to build on the theory and to guide future community programmes (Dalton et al., 2001).

Community psychology operates on the basis of a number of values. The primary value of physical and mental health was and remains a constitutive dimension of community psychology (Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997). The founders and theorists of community psychology therefore adhered and continue to adhere to notions of prevention and health promotion. The values of caring and compassion have also been active in the research and practice of community psychology since its inception. These two values have been seen in the generative and executive base of primary prevention, and they have recently been extended to include collaboration with self-help/mutual-aid groups.

On the basis of these two values, much of the work carried out by community psychologists tended to focus on primary prevention, adopting person-oriented intervention strategies at the

[6] Community development is elaborated on pages 70 to 73.
[7] The theory of empowerment is expanded on pages 74 to 86.

micro- and/or meso-level. This led critics, such as Orford (1992), to criticise the approach on the basis of reinforcement of an 'ideology of individualism', claiming that community psychologists tended to be more person-oriented than concerned with community phenomena. Others, such as Rappaport (1984), argued that empowerment rather than prevention should become the community psychologists' guiding mission. In this way, additional core values in the field of community psychology became entrenched. Taken from notions of empowerment, these included values such as participation and self-determination, recognition of human diversity and the importance of social justice (Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997). Figure 5, seen below, represents a powerful graphic illustration of the core values and scope of community psychology.

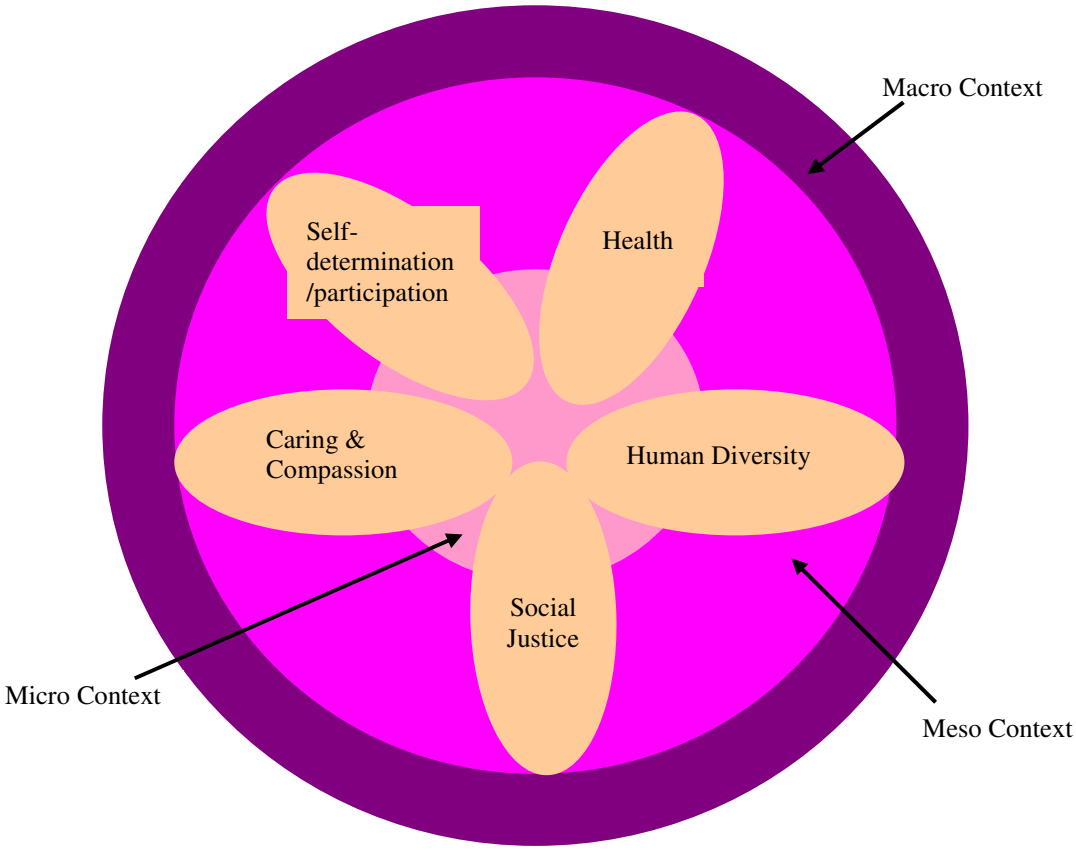


Figure 5: Scope of values of community psychology (adapted from Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997, p.172).

4.1.3. Community psychology in South Africa

The advent of community psychology in South Africa followed a similar pattern to that in the USA. The past government used the word community in South Africa, as a euphemism for race, to earmark the targets of the government's community development programmes, which were ill conceived and sometimes vicious and destructive (Sigogo & Modipa, 2004; Thornton & Ramphele, 1988). The term was also used to designate a following for political action. Community in South Africa was thus described as socially constructed and as existing within history and ideology (Butchart & Seedat, 1989). A growing reaction was consequently expressed about how existing psychological service delivery maintained the status quo (cf. Sigogo & Modipa, 2004; Thornton & Ramphele, 1988).

Community psychology hence emerged as an approach in response to criticism against mainstream psychology. Since community psychology interventions were and continue to be products of both historical and ideological mechanisms in the South African context, a theory and practice relevant to South Africa were called for (Berger & Lazarus, 1987; Butchart & Seedat, 1989). Lazarus and Seedat (1995) and Seedat et al. (1988) identified four main purposes that should define community psychology within South Africa. These are:

1) The extension of mental health to all, and in particular the historically disadvantaged
2) The transformation of the manner in which the aetiology and development of psychosocial problems are conceptualised and understood
3) The inclusion of a contextual analysis that takes into account social issues in such a manner that the praxis of psychological service delivery is modified to include prevention initiatives and that address environmental stressors; and
4) The redefinition of the role of psychologists towards encompassing a broader public health portfolio that embraces the functions of advocacy, lobbying, community mobilisation, community networking and policy formulation.

Questions about the legitimacy of community psychology have, however, revolved around its relevance and commitment to addressing the practical needs of marginalised communities (Sigogo & Modipa, 2004). According to Seedat et al. (2001), South African community psychology still has to achieve distributive equality and distributive sufficiency. Distributive

equality refers to issues of political representation and social justice, whereas distributive sufficiency refers to the examination of need. The practice of community psychology in South Africa has struggled to develop its identity and, in order to develop an accepted identity, it will have to succeed in distancing itself from the conservative practices of the broader psychological field in the country (Sigogo & Modipa, 2004).

4.1.4. Criticism of community psychology

Community psychology has not only been criticised in South Africa but at a global level as well on a range of issues. These include its failure to incorporate the agendas of several movements such as feminism and its failure, at times, to take notice of how individuals are limited by institutional structures (Seedat et al., 2001). Community psychology theory tends to be presented in vague and global terms without interventions and/or practical applications. In addition, it endorses admirable principles however they are rarely applied to real world situations (Seedat et al., 2001).. As a profession, it also sometimes does not develop alternative theories that include marginalised world-views. The development of the theory, method and practice of community psychology remains in South Africa and elsewhere an unfinished task (Seedat et al., 2001). Possibly its largest failure, however, is its lack of development of suitable frameworks for empirical investigation.

4.2. Research in community psychology

Community psychology has not successfully developed alternative scientific or methodological frameworks for investigating social phenomena (Ahmed & Pretorius-Heuchert, 2001). There has also been little critical examination of positivist frameworks and little engagement with meta-theoretical and epistemological issues. Although there are five levels at which community analysis can be done, namely the individual, microsystems, organisation, community and macrosystems levels, most of the research in the area still concentrates on the individual level of analysis[8] (Ahmed & Pretorius-Heuchert, 2001; Dalton et al., 2001).

[8] This thesis aimed to undertaken analysis at the individual, organisational and community levels.

Community psychology's commitment to valuing and promoting diversity should make adherents of this theory wary of generalisations and universality, and of the power of numeric representation of persons (Stewart, 2000). A commitment to diversity should also lead to using different methods of understanding and representing people. Thus, the fullest and most resonant expression is sought. Community psychology theories should also be put to the test of contextual, situated experiences. These commitments lead naturally to qualitative methods.

Some community scholars advocate qualitative approaches as a method to understand better individual diversity and the nuance of social context (Stein & Mankowski, 2004). By emphasising detailed, first-hand descriptions of individuals and contexts, qualitative methods are said to enhance the study of behaviour lodged in the larger social world. The potential of qualitative research to 'give voice' to the people is also linked to participatory research and empowerment. However, the future of qualitative community psychology research is unclear as there are few such published studies. Dalton et al. (2001) have identified five principals that can be used by researchers in the future to guide their research. These are

1. community research should be stimulated by community needs
2. community research should be an exchange of resources
3. community research should be a tool for social action
4. evaluation[9] of social action should be an ethical imperative
5. community research should yield products useful to the community.

In essence, in community research a holistic approach is sought. Although this would naturally lead to the use of qualitative methods, a full picture can only determined if quantitative methods are also used. Quantitative models help in the examination of multivariate relationships among phenomena (Langhout, 2003). For this reason, this research has adopted a multimethod approach incorporating both quantitative and qualitative investigation.

[9] The link between community psychology and evaluation is elaborated on in the following section.

4.3. Social programme evaluation

Programme evaluation has come to play an important role in the area of research in the social sciences more broadly, and community psychology in particular (Attkisson & Broskowski, 1978; Goodhart & Zautra, 1984; Lehmann, 1975; Potter & Kruger, 2001). One of the main reasons for this is the likely impact of evaluations on the socio-political contexts of programmes, as well as their ability to develop social psychology, which can be relevant to community needs (Cowen & Gesten, 1980).

The outcomes resulting from a programme should be evaluated (Rossi, Freeman & Lipsey, 1999; Julian, 2005). This process generates information that supports continuous improvement and a second phase of implementation designed to modify strategies in order to provide more efficient and effective services. This process takes on a circular nature, as it is repeated continually, always emphasising strategy improvement and enhancing quality of practice (Fitz-Gibbon & Morris, 1987). Programme evaluation offers a means by which the work of different stakeholders in social programmes can be influenced i.e. by imprinting the quality of human services, quality of life and community welfare (Stake, 1983; Worthen, Sanders & Fitzpatrick, 1997).

Programme evaluation involves a form of research that is closely linked to the realities of social and community development and the politics of resource allocation and power (Potter & Kruger, 2001; Posavac & Carey, 2003). The purpose of evaluation research is to establish and describe the ways in which those involved in a programme go about their work, the issues they deal with and how they confront these issues - all aspects that are particularly relevant to community psychology. The impact of social programmes is also investigated in programme evaluation by asking questions about programme implementation and outcomes, service quality and accountability (Potter & Kruger, 2001).

Community groups need to evaluate their efforts in order to collect information about how things are done, thereby offering understanding on how things are done which can be beneficial to other groups (Brooks, 1971; Fawcett et al., 2003). This also allows for ongoing feedback to be given, which encourages continuous adjustments and for the voiceless to also get a chance to participate and gain understanding. Evaluation also ensures that community groups become accountable for

their actions. Community initiatives, however, are complex and thus evaluating them is challenging and must be multi-method (Brooks, 1971; Fawcett et al., 2003).

Social programme evaluation produces knowledge about the value of social programmes and their components (Cook & Shadish, 1986). The programme can use the knowledge produced in the short term to make the programmes more responsive to the social problems they are targeting. Furthermore, is must be noted that the core context of social programme evaluation is intertwined with political power and decision-making about societal priorities and directions (Greene, 2000; Potter & Kruger, 2001). However, a number of problems are potentially associated with evaluation at the community level (Julian, 2005). One such problem is that it is difficult to establish what would have happened had the programme not existed.

Shadish (1990a; 1990b) has highlighted that there are many similarities in community research and programme evaluation. Both fields have their origins in the positivist tradition of the social sciences. Both fields are also currently advocating the use of more holistic research methods. Over the last 30 years, both fields have grown in breadth and status. They have the same aim, to address social problems by solving and relieving. Both fields, however, could benefit and grow from a mutual exchange of ideas and a critique of practice. For community psychologists, involvement in programme evaluation provides a number of ways for engaging in the development and improvement of social programmes, for the development of theory and for testing community development theory and research in practice.

This study has been informed by the theory-driven (Chen, 1990; 2005; Weiss, 1998); logic model (Kumpfer et al., 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991); and logical-frame approaches (AusGuide, 2003; Gasper, 2000) to evaluation. Theory-driven evaluation is “any evaluation that uses programme theory or programme logic as its guiding framework” (Davidson, 2004, p. 248). A logic model may be described as a logical series of statements linking a condition, the activities that will be employed to address a specific condition, short term outcomes resulting from activities and the long term impacts expected to occur as multiple outcomes are achieved (Kumpfer et al., 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991).

The logical-framework approach involves problem analysis, stakeholder analysis, developing a hierarchy of objectives and selecting a preferred implementation strategy (AusGuide, 2003; Gasper, 2000). In the ensuing chapter, a detailed discussion of these three approaches to evaluation is provided. The programme's theory, as obtained from programme documents and social science theory (educational development and empowerment theory), was used as the basis for analysis.

This research has been informed by empowerment theory as postulated by Zimmerman (2000) at three different levels[10]. In order to expand on empowerment theory it will first be contextualised within community development.

4.4. Community development

Community development is seen as the process of establishing or re-establishing structures of human community within which new ways of relating, organising social life and meeting human needs are developed (Ife, 1995). In addition, it is normally concerned with social problems and hence takes on an institutional reformist perspective[11] and a structural perspective[12]. Most community development programmes therefore focus on ways to develop better programmes, services and facilities or attempt to bring about structural change (Ife, 1995).

Community development is an applied behavioural science, which is value-centred and normative (Blakely, 1979). It has an optimistic and humanistic view of human behaviour as it investigates the total human environment. It also views the community as a holistic and integrated network or system. The use of intervention through group and/or collective situations is stressed. Community development is thus an ongoing complex process of dialogue, exchange; consciousness raising, education[13] and action aimed at helping the people concerned determine and develop their own version of community (Ife, 1995). It is a complex process riddled with dilemmas and problems

[10] Elaborations of the three levels of empowerment analysis are presented on pages 77 to 86.
[11] In this perspective, the rescuer is blamed; the rescuer being established institutions such as schools (Ife, 1995). The solution to this is to reorganise the institutions by acquiring more resources, more services, better training and so forth.
[12] In the structural perspective, the system is blamed; the system being the social system such as class and gender (Ife, 1995). The solution offered is that structural change is needed, for example, via liberation movements.
[13] The role education has to play in community development has been explored in the previous chapter.

which require unique and creative solutions. It uses techniques for arousing and stimulating community initiatives (Holdcroft, 1982).

Sanders (1970) discusses community development's ancestry as a union of community organisations and economic development. Community organisations stress local action and the use of local resources whereas economic development emphasises national planning, careful allocation of resources and systematic movement toward defined goals (Blakely, 1979). Community development subsumes the work of community development corporations, community building and comprehensive community initiatives. It also subsumes the education, health-care and community building aspects of local human service provision by non-profit and for-profit organisations and government. It produces assets that improve the quality of life, thereby also including capacity building (Sanders, 1970). Assets in community development take on five basic forms. These are physical capital; intellectual and human capital in the form of skills, knowledge and confidence; social capital, shared understanding, trust and other factors that make relationships feasible and productive; financial capital (in standard forms) and political capital, which provides the capacity to exert political influence (Sanders, 1970).

It should be noted that there has been a failure to synthesise the literature on community development, due partially to the diverse nature of the area, however it is widely accepted that community development relates to improving material and social conditions on many levels, and may take the form of a process, a method, a programme or a movement (Holdcroft, 1982; Swanepoel, 2002).

Most community development theorists and researchers adopt the view that community development moves by stages from one condition or state to the next. It involves a progression of changes in terms of specific criteria and is a scientific term subject to precise definition and measurement expressed chiefly in social relations. It is a process of social action in which people in a community organise themselves for planning and action in order to address their own needs and problems. They (the community) have to execute these plans with maximum reliance upon community resources and supplement these resources when necessary with services and materials from governmental and non-governmental agencies outside the community. The emphasis here is

upon what happens to people psychologically and in their social relationships (Blakely, 1979; Holdcroft, 1982; Sanders, 1970).

Community development can also be seen as a method – a means to an end or a way of working so that some goal is achieved. It seeks to carry on with the process of community development in order to carry out the will of those using this method. Other methods such as formal education may be additional to the community development method (Sanders, 1970).

When one adds content – such as a list of activities - to the community development method, one moves toward a community development programme. When the programme is highly formalised the focus shifts from the people to the programme. It is as a programme that community development deals with issues such as health and welfare. The emphasis becomes centred on accomplishing sets of activities that can be quantified and reported (Sanders, 1970).

For some, community development may become a cause to which they are committed (Sanders, 1970). There is now an emotional charge attached to the development. As a movement, community development tends to become institutionalised, building up its own organisational structure and accepted procedures. It stresses and promotes community development in accordance with its devotees and leaders (Sanders, 1970).

Development involves the acquisition of new capacities for action i.e. capacity building, which is a form of skill enhancement. Hence, the community begins to participate more actively in tasks and benefits associated with access to resources and increased power (Kelly & van der Riet, 2001). Empowerment within community development is the process by which socially disadvantaged people become socially included (Kelly & van der Riet, 2001).People can only become empowered by being participants – the principal technique used in community development (Swanepoel, 2002). Participation by the people is therefore basic to the community development process (Cary, 1970). Participation results from sufficient consensus concerning the desirability and the direction of change. The consensus must be strong enough to initiate a programme of action that meets with the approval of the majority of those combined in the action. Most action is taken on behalf of groups by organisations. Thus, organisations are looked

at as the vehicle through which desired change can be accomplished. The change accomplished, as opposed to the simple concept of participation, lies at the heart of most evaluations, including the present study.

4.5. Power and powerlessness

Power may be conceptualised as a complex, multidimensional phenomenon with multiple theories regarding its origins and how it functions (Speer & Hughey, 1995). Of particular, interest to community psychology is the social power dimension. Social power refers to the power exercised by individuals or groups within society (Tanabe, 1998). Power may thus be defined as: A has power over B to the extent that he/she can get B to do something he/she would not otherwise do (Kirkbride, 1992; Ng, 1980).

The power of an individual is established as a latent dispositional construct which predisposes a person to feel, perceive and act in a certain way (Ng, 1980). There are three varieties of power constructs: power as a motivational construct; power as a cognitive construct, including personal causation, locus of control and self-efficacy; and power as a behavioural construct. Along the same lines, power relations typically have three attributes (Orford, 1992). The first, extensity, refers to the number of people over whom person A has control. Comprehensiveness, the second attribute, refers to the variety of other people's actions over which a person has power. Thirdly, intensity refers to degree of dominance one person has over another in a particular sphere. Usually the degree of power in each of the three attributes is limited. Nonetheless, power relationships inevitably occur as a result of inequalities (Orford, 1992).

In order to understand power at the community level, one must also add a third dimension to the definition of power (Orford, 1992). One must take into account the social forces and group and institutional practices prevalent in the community. These forces act in such a way that people must advocate in order to obtain power. The topic of powerlessness is of particular relevance to community psychology since it is the relative absence of power amongst individuals and groups with high rates of psychological disturbance that most concerns those working in the area.

Powerlessness refers to the expectancy held by a person that his/her own behaviour cannot establish the occurrence of the results that he/she seeks (Kieffer, 1984). Powerlessness exists as a sense of being, including past experience, ongoing behaviour and continuing cognition, buried in and reinforced by social institutions. The individual hence becomes powerless by assuming the role of the object which is acted upon by the environment and alienating him/herself from participating in constructing social reality. Powerlessness can also be viewed as a passive acceptance of or surrender to oppressive cultural 'norms' (Kieffer, 1984). Major public institutions such as schools and government can play a role in suppressing individual initiatives (Kieffer, 1984). This was particularly the case in South Africa during the Apartheid era.

Logically, people can only move away from these situations of powerlessness and oppression by developing their own participatory skills and understanding of politics (Kieffer, 1984). Only by so doing does the empowerment process start to take shape.

4.6. Empowerment

Empowerment is central to community development yet making this concept operational in a programme context remains elusive. Empowerment is a value-laden term, which has passed into common language with a number of meanings and connotations (Dalton et al., 2001). In the community setting, empowerment refers to identifying, facilitating or creating contexts in which heretofore silent and isolated people, those who in various setting are considered as the organisational and communities' 'outsiders', gain understanding, voice and influence over decisions that affect their lives (Rappaport, 1990). Empowerment is concerned with the many who are excluded by the majority of society based on their demographic characteristics or their physical or emotional difficulties, experienced either in the past or in the present. Such people are often allotted a low ascribed status and are afforded little opportunity to attain a higher one (Rappaport, 1990).

The term empowerment remains manifold, allowing for its meaning to be interpreted according to the context in which one is working (Dalton et al., 2001). Most definitions of empowerment however are consistent with it being an intended ongoing process that is based in the community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring and group participation. Powerless people in

this context gain greater access to and control over heretofore-unshared resources (Dalton et al., 2001). There is also some consensus around empowerment's key qualities (Dalton et al., 2001). These incorporate the ideas that empowerment is multileveled, involving bottom-up change, which differs in various contexts, occurs in a collective context and is a process rather than a steady state.

Empowerment hints at being a distinct approach for developing interventions and creating social change - "It directs attention toward health, adaptation, competence and natural helping systems" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 44). It also holds the assumption that unequal distribution and access to resources results in many social problems (Zimmerman, 2000). An empowerment approach goes beyond the negative aspects of a situation to search for the positive aspects. Thus empowerment requires a distinct language to understand lay efforts to cope with stress, adapt to change and influence on communities. By so doing, the role of the professional helper is redefined (Zimmerman, 2000). Terms such as 'client' and 'expert' are replaced with 'participant' and 'collaborator'. The professional's role thus becomes one of collaborator and facilitator. Within education, Freire (1973) advocates that in order for empowerment to take place the learner needs to be active in his/her own education. For this to occur, educators must move from being directors to facilitators that believe in the learner's capacity. Through empowerment the professional role also becomes context-specific. A by-line of this changing role of professionals is that community participants have an active role in the change process at both the implementation and agenda-setting levels. Participants are thus sought to help identify measurement issues and to help collect assessment and evaluation data (Timpson, 1988).

Interest in the concept of empowerment over the last decade has grown, which has resulted in it evolving from the new-paradigm concept as postulated by Kuhn in 1970 to becoming a highly popular and mainstream approach in psychology in its own right (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). However, it is not the only approach to community psychology and development and thus should not be seen as a panacea.

4.6.1. Limitations of empowerment

Despite empowerment promoting justice, equality, respect for diversity and/or sense of community, it may also conflict with some of these principles (Dalton et al., 2001). For instance in individualistic societies – such as Western societies – empowerment may be understood in individualistic terms. Thus, in such cases empowerment may be used to promote personal self-advancement without regard for others or the community. It may also be viewed as a means of strengthening ones position and resources in the group (Dalton et al., 2001).

The term is used very loosely and it is not always clear if the same things are being compared (Wilkinson, 1998). The many interpretations of empowerment are based on understandings of it either as a process or as an outcome, and whether it exists as an inter-personal phenomenon, a broad socio-political context or an interaction of change at multiple levels i.e. empowerment takes on different forms for different people (Laverack & Wallerstein, 2001). It is also rarely located in a historical context as it is seen as a relatively new phenomenon. According to Wilkinson (1998), there is little discussion of conditions that are necessary for empowerment to be successful and the issues that may arise. The empowerment literature focuses mainly on feelings of efficacy and real power gains are often neglected (Riger, 1993). Furthermore, autonomy may be stressed and a sense of community neglected. Thus this construct in need of further empirical support and research (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995).

Research strategies previously and commonly used in the area include the methodologies of anthropological, behavioural and community organisation research (Rappaport, 1984). Data from previous research has ranged from purely descriptive data to complex multivariate data, but remains limited (Rappaport, 1984).

4.6.2. Empowerment in South Africa

Empowerment in South Africa needs to be understood within the broader historical struggle for liberation from political oppression and material deprivation (Taylor, 1995). Thus, in South Africa it is not only basic needs which need to be developed but past racial, class and gender imbalances leading to fundamental and qualitative differences between communities that remain entrenched today that need to be addressed**.** This will inevitably result in a shift in power

relations. In order to achieve this directly, action at the grassroots level must be undertaken. Thus capacity building, such as learning new skills, should be the primary focus (Taylor, 1995). This focus can be seen in the work carried out by the OLSET EIA programme.

4.6.3. Zimmerman's model of empowerment

This research is specifically based on a model of empowerment proposed by Zimmerman (2000), as it is the most holistic of all the empowerment models (Dalton et al. 2001). He writes that empowerment theory provides principles and a framework for organising one's knowledge thereby suggesting ways to measure constructs in different contexts. Zimmerman (2000) also views empowerment as a process, a mechanism by which individuals, organisations and communities gain mastery over their own lives by having an active role.

In an empowerment orientation, participants help identify measurement issues and help collect assessment and evaluation data (Zimmerman, 2000). The results are also shared, which is seen as a primary goal. Empowerment is context and population specific and it takes on different forms for different people in different contexts hence both qualitative and quantitative methods are needed to analyse the data obtained[14].

A thorough development of empowerment theory requires exploration and description at multiple levels of analysis. Zimmerman (2000) postulates three levels of analysis for this construct i.e. the individual, organisational and community. This research will adhere to this, while maintaining that each level of analysis, despite being described and investigated separately, is inherently connected to the others (Zimmerman, 2000). Each of the levels are mutually interdependent and both a cause and a consequence of each other. The extent to which elements at one level of analysis are empowered is directly related to the empowering potential of other levels of analysis. However the fact that empowerment occurs at one level does not mean that empowerment is occurring at the other levels (Dalton et al., 2001). In order to summarise the main points of Zimmerman's empowerment model a diagrammatic representation has been provided in Figure 6.

[14] More information on the data sources and analysis are provided in the methods chapter.

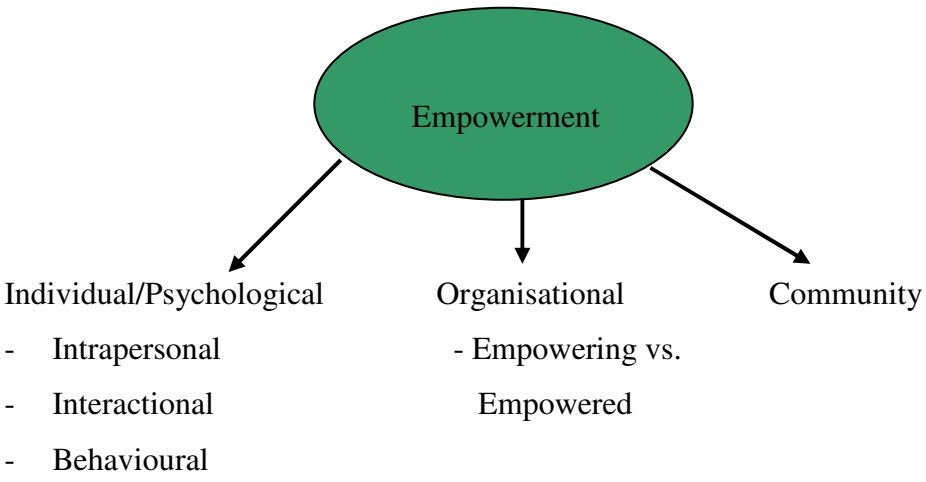


Figure 6: Diagrammatic representation of Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment.

In this model, it is important to differentiate between empowering processes and outcomes. Empowering processes refer to how people, organisations and communities become empowered whereas empowering outcomes refer to the consequences of those processes (Zimmerman, 1995). However, these vary in their outward form as no single standard can fully capture meaning across all contexts (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995).

Empowering processes occur when people create or are given opportunities to control their own destiny and influence decisions that affect their lives (Zimmerman, 1995). These processes are a series of experiences during which the individual gains greater mastery on how to achieve goals and control resources and where people, organisations and communities gain mastery over their lives (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995). Empowering processes for individuals might include participation in community organisations (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Another example of such a process would be participatory action research.

An empowering process means involving community members in the development, implementation and evaluation of interventions (Zimmerman, 2000). As a consequence, researchers to some extent become members of the community with equal levels of power to those in the community. By so doing the opportunity is created for community members to develop skills e.g. increase and practice skills, to work with others on a common goal and to

expand their social support network. Empowerment processes may occur at all three levels of analysis of Zimmerman's empowerment model.

Empowerment outcomes may be either quantitative or qualitative measures (Zimmerman, 1995). These measures are used to study the effects of interventions designed to empower. They are also used to investigate empowering processes and mechanisms, and to generate and develop empowerment theory (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995). This investigation was primarily focused on this latter aspect, as the researcher sought to develop empowerment theory and to investigate the empowering process and mechanisms at OLSET. Before an examination of each level of analysis is undertaken, a comparative table of how empowering processes and outcomes occur at the three levels is presented.

Table 3:
A comparison of empowering processes and outcomes across levels of analysis (adapted from Zimmerman, 2000, p. 47).

Level of analysis	Process	Outcome
Individual	- Learning decision-making skills - Managing resources - Working with others	- Sense of control - Critical awareness - Participatory behaviour
Organisational	- Opportunities to participate in decision-making - Shared responsibilities - Shared leadership	- Effectively compete for resources - Networking with other organisations - Policy influence
Community	- Access to resources - Open government structure - Tolerance for diversity	- Organisational coalitions - Pluralistic leadership - Residents' participatory skills

4.6.3.1. Individual/psychological empowerment

Zimmerman (2000) refers to empowerment at the individual level as psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment may take on different forms for distinct people, in different contexts and over time (Zimmerman, 1995). This includes beliefs about one's competence, a proactive approach to life, perceived efforts to exert personal control and an understanding of the socio-political environment (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

The conceptualisation of psychological empowerment developed by Zimmerman (1995) is rooted in a social action framework that includes community change, capacity building and collectivity.

Social change may take various forms and hence a power struggle may or may not result. As a social process, empowerment is linked to external forces that act on the individual and affect one's sense of control and feelings of power (Shearer & Reed, 2004). Thus, socio-political and contextual factors are still considered at this individual level of empowerment (Shearer & Reed, 2004; Zimmerman, 1995).

Psychological empowerment also includes learning about controlling agents and acting to influence those agents (Zimmerman, 1995). Psychological empowerment is not an individualistic or an intrapsychic phenomenon. Rather it includes beliefs that goals can be achieved and awareness about resources and factors that hinder or enhance one's efforts to achieve those goals and efforts to fulfil them. Psychological empowerment also manifests itself in different perceptions, skills and behaviours for different people. Different beliefs, competencies and actions are needed to master different settings. Thus, individual empowerment may fluctuate over time. Hence, it is difficult to reduce individual empowerment to a universal definition (Zimmerman, 1995).

The different dimensions of psychological empowerment can be classified into intrapersonal, interactional and/or behavioural components (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). The intrapersonal component includes personality, cognitive and motivational aspects of perceived control. It thus refers to how individuals think about themselves. It includes domain-specific perceived control (beliefs about one's ability to exert influence in different spheres of life) and self-efficacy (motivation to control, and perceived competence and mastery). In essence, this component includes perceived control, competence and efficacy. People who are psychologically empowered at the interpersonal level are not expected to be socially isolated or experience powerlessness, normlessness and helplessness (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

Turnbull and Turnbull's empowerment framework (Kolb & Stuart, 2005) provides a similar view of this level of empowerment. However, it only concentrates on how motivation, knowledge and skills are necessary for empowerment to take place. Similarly to Zimmerman (2000), it postulates that motivation consists of self-efficacy, perceived control, expectations, energy and persistence.

Self-efficacy refers to one's belief in one's own capabilities. Perceived control in education refers to the belief that a learner can apply his/her capabilities to what occurs (Kolb & Stuart, 2005).

The interactional component refers to the understanding people have about their community and socio-political issues (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). In order to be psychologically empowered at the interactional level, people must be aware of the behaviour choices they have. By learning their own options, they are able to exert control over their environment. Thus, the norms and values of a particular context need to be understood by them, e.g. cooperative decision-making or mutual assistance. A critical awareness of their environment i.e. understanding required resources, how to acquire them and the skills to use them, includes an understanding of causal agents. Causal agents refer to an appreciation of the factors that may be of influence for e.g. people, objects or events and the ability to mobilise resources is an essential part of this component of psychological empowerment as it suggests environmental mastery. The interactional component also includes decision-making, problem-solving and leadership skills. These skills help individuals become independent thereby enabling them to control their lives. This component hence provides a link between perceived control and taking action to exert control (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

The behavioural component refers to actions taken directly to influence outcomes (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). This component may include behaviour to manage stress or adapt to change. Theorists who concentrate only on the behavioural perspective, such as Balcazar (1993), state that empowerment comes about as result of environmental variables, for example, access to resources or decision-making bodies, information and skills. The resources may be material or may involve social resources, for example, knowledge, peer helping or less tangible resources (Dalton et al., 2001). Empowerment thus involves identifying, gaining access to and using these resources.

These three components of psychological empowerment in conjunction form "a picture of a person who believes that he/she has the capability to influence a given context (interpersonal component); understand how the system works in that context (interactional component); and engages in behaviour to exert control in the context (behavioural component)" (Zimmerman,

1995, p. 6). A summary of psychological empowerment has been presented in Figure 7 to aid understanding.

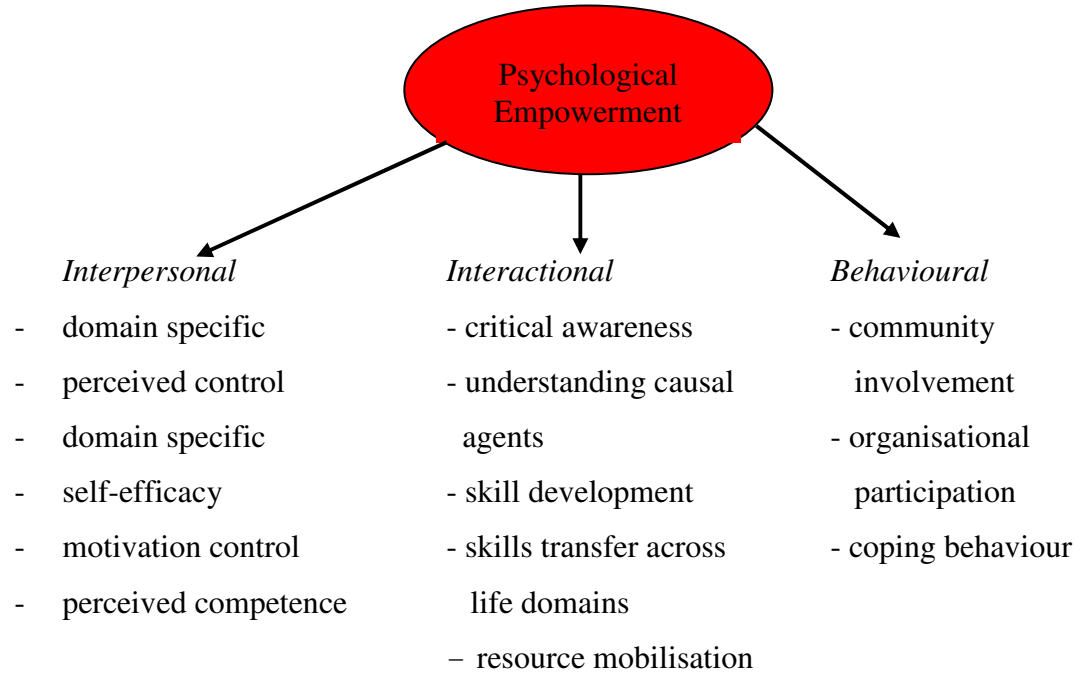


Figure 7: Diagrammatic representation of the three components of psychological empowerment (adapted from Zimmerman, 1995).

Kieffer (1984) has offered some clarification and synthesis for the study of empowerment. He identifies three elements of empowerment. These elements are the development of a more positive self-concept, the development of a more critical/analytical understanding of a political or social environment and the development of collective resources for social and political action. He suggests that empowerment is a combination of psychological and political factors. Zimmerman (1990) and Rappaport (1987) praised this research as it took into account the context in which participants' work and live. However, Rappaport (1987) does state that it needs development.

There are few writers in the area of empowerment besides Rappaport (1984; 1987; 1990), Zimmerman (1995; 2000) and Perkins and Zimmerman (1995) and the empirical data available in the area, particularly in relation to South Africa, is extremely limited. This research will thus

contribute to an increased understanding of this 'restricted' area of community psychology in the South African context, and further develop previous research available in the field.

4.6.3.2. Organisational empowerment

Organisations that provide opportunities for people to gain control over their lives are *empowering* organisations (Zimmerman, 2000). These organisations have processes and structures that enhance members' skills and provide them with the mutual support required to effect community-level change. Organisations that offer effective alternatives for service provision are *empowered* organisations. These organisations improve their effectiveness by successfully competing for resources, networking with other organisations or expanding their influence. The notion of an empowering organisation refers to a process while the empowered organisation may be seen as an outcome (Minkler, Thompson, Bell & Rose, 2001).

Although a distinction exists between empowering and empowered organisations, a single organisation may have both characteristics (Zimmerman, 2000). An empowering organisation may have little impact on policy, but provide members with opportunities to develop skills and a sense of control. Organisations with shared responsibilities, a supportive atmosphere and social activities are expected to be more empowering than hierarchical organisations.

Several investigators (cf. Conger & Kanungo, 1988) suggest that formal organisation practices may play a central role in empowering members. Spreitzer (1995) states that psychological empowerment in the workplace includes a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact of control. He sees the empowered employee as a proactive person with enhanced intrinsic motivation evident in the four cognitive factors mentioned. The sense of meaning is a fit between the needs of one's work role and one's beliefs, values and behaviours. To demonstrate competence one needs to believe in one's own capability to perform work activities with skill. A sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's activities is seen in self-determination. The degree to which one can influence strategic, administrative or operating outcomes in one's department or work–unit is the ability to impact one's control. Menon and Hartman (2001) criticise this view, as it does not account for the impact and role of leaders.

Maton and Salem (1995) found the key organisational feature of an empowering community setting to be a belief system that inspires growth, is strength-based and is focused beyond the self. A pervasive, highly accessible and multifunctional role structure should also be available. Furthermore, they also identified an encompassing, peer-based support system that provided a sense of community and inspiring, talented, shared leadership with a commitment to both the setting and members as other important features. These findings were supported by other studies (cf. Prestby, Wandersman, Florin, Rich & Chavis, 1990; Speer, Hughey, Gensheimer & Adams-Leavitt, 1995). Empowering organisational structures may, however, work to undermine the act of empowerment if members do not share real decision-making power. Fawcett et al. (1995) elucidated four important strategies for facilitating empowerment process and related outcomes: i) enhancing experience and competence, ii) enhancing group structure and capacity, iii) removing social and environment barriers and iv) enhancing environmental support and resources.

Empowerment of employees refers to the involvement and commitment of workers (del Val & Lloyd, 2003). Thus, ideally the members of the organisation should be involved in decision-making processes thereby inviting them to think strategically and to be personally responsible for the quality of their tasks and the improvement of the organisation's functioning. This does not imply that empowerment excludes initial supervision to train, organise and guide workers, but that leadership of this process must eventually be transferred to the workers themselves (del Val & Lloyd, 2003). The hierarchical structure of the organisation should also be taken into account as various groups have different collaboration limits in terms of formal or informal structures and how much they can and are able to collaborate.

The organisational aspect of empowerment provides a link between the interpersonal elements such as individual control, social capital and community cohesiveness and the contextual elements such as the political, socio-cultural and economic circumstances of a programme (Laverack, 2001). It represents those aspects of the process of empowerment that allow individuals and groups to organise and mobilise themselves toward social and political change. Psychological approaches to empowerment focus on the psychological experience of being empowered. Individuals have been considered as having a need for power, which refers to an

internal urge to influence and control others or external events (McClelland, 1990; White, 1959). Thus to be empowered in terms of this perspective is to experience a sense of control over one's work and work environment.

According to advocates, empowerment improves organisational performance and contributes to the 'bottom line', while at the same time leads to improvements in the experience of work for employees (Harley, 1999). However, it is difficult to differentiate empowerment with respect to observable concrete features from other preceding forms of employee involvement. Furthermore, the impact of empowering forms of work on employees has been questioned (Harley, 1999; Menon & Hartman, 2001).

Organisational empowerment thus includes processes and structures that enhance employees' skills and provides them with the required support for community level change to occur (Zimmerman, 2000). The importance of employees' empowerment has been widely acknowledged (Menon & Hartman, 2001). Despite this general awareness and emergence of this buzzword in the business press, though, the systematic rigorous study of employee empowerment is still in its infancy.

4.6.3.3. Community empowerment

An empowered community consists of individuals that initiate efforts to improve their collective lives, respond to threats to quality of life and provide for citizen participation (Zimmerman, 2000). An empowered community is expected to comprise of well-connected organisations and agencies that are both empowered and empowering. It also has settings for citizen involvement in activities. An empowering community includes resources for all community residents. Empowerment at this level refers to individuals working in unison in an organised manner in order to improve their collective levels and linkages among community organisation and agencies that help maintain their quality of life (Zimmerman, 2000).

At the community level, the empowering processes might include collective action to access government and other community resources (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Community level outcomes may comprise of evidence of pluralism, the existence of organisational coalitions and

accessible community resources. Usually there is a greater sense of interdependence, cohesion and cooperation among members of the community in an empowered community (Barnes, Rodger & Whyte, 1997).

Specific illustrations from the literature related to teacher empowerment can be used to contextualise Zimmerman's (2000) theory in the educational context, as was the focus in this research. In this context, a teacher can be said to be empowered if she/he has opportunities for autonomy, choice, responsibility and participation in decision-making in organisations (Edwards, Green & Lyons, 2002). The literature further postulates that an empowered teacher is viewed as a professional (Maeroff, 1989; Stone, 1995). Professional recognition, involvement and influence are rewards that could result from INSET that keep teachers career-oriented and may help in the establishment of a higher sense of efficacy (Grimmett & Crehan, 1992). Thus, teachers require improved status, increased knowledge and access to decision-making (Edwards et al., 2002; Maeroff, 1989; Stone, 1995). Empowering children reflects the same i.e. children need to be respected in order to obtain self-esteem and they need to be active participants in the learning process (Stone, 1995; Timpson, 1988).

4.7. Summary and conclusion

The first chapter of this thesis introduced the reader to the focus, rationale, aims and research questions of this study. Thereafter, the context of the study, the programme under scrutiny and the circumstances in which this organisation arose and operates were explored. The major educational and psychological theories underpinning this study were then introduced.

In outlining the theories on which this particular evaluation is based, open learning, educational development, school effectiveness and improvement have been considered. In addition, teacher development in the form of INSET has been described and distance education and interactive radio instruction have been considered in relation to the type of work undertaken by the OLSET radio-learning programme. As educational development is not effective without considering the needs of the people, the concepts of community development and empowerment have also been discussed (Hartshorne, 1978).

This evaluation focused on whether the OLSET radio learning programme's implementation theory, which is based on principles of open learning, has led to achievement of the programme's objectives. Reponses from the self-reports of teachers and principals, as beneficiaries of the programme, are then considered in order to establish whether the type of open learning implemented at large-scale in the programme has led to empowerment.

It is now necessary to focus on the methodology of the study. A description of how the data were collected in 2001 and 2003 will be provided. The OLSET database, teacher and principal questionnaires and personal accounts and classroom observations as data collection methods will be explored in the next chapter, which focuses on the methodological foundations of this research.

Chapter 5: Methods

5.1. Programme evaluation

Programme evaluation is defined as an application of scientific principles, methods and theory to identify, describe, conceptualise, measure, predict, change and control variables that are important to the development of effective human service delivery systems (Struening, 1975). Evaluation studies are generally preoccupied with providing answers to questions and not with testing hypotheses. The role of evaluation research differs from that of conventional research in its explicit attempt to make value judgements (Struening, 1975).

The primary aim of this study was to determine whether the EIA programme had been effective in achieving its key aims based on stakeholder accounts drawn from the objectives of the programme as well as programme documentation, and to make recommendations for future practice on this basis. To achieve this, a theory-driven evaluation model based on theory drawn from relevant literature was utilised. According to Potter (2006), Shadish and Reichardt (1987) and Weiss (1998), there is no one correct way to define or conduct programme evaluation. In this study, the researcher therefore developed a set of assumptions and methods based on the programme's implementation theory, as well as theory drawn from the literature, to carry out the intended evaluation objectives successfully. Furthermore, drawing on Scriven's goal-free evaluation the author was interested in determining what was actually achieved (Scriven,1977).

5.1.1. Chen and Rossi's theory-driven approach

Chen and Rossi developed what they termed 'the theory-driven evaluation approach' in 1980 in response to the atheoretical nature of programme evaluation. The 'black-box' evaluations conducted up to that point focused primarily on input and output of a programme. Chen and Rossi (1980) postulated that every programme had some effects, even if they were possibly only trivial ones, and that prior knowledge and social science theory could thus adequately anticipate the effects of a programme, and possibly do so better than limited predefined outcomes.

A theory represents a body of knowledge that organises, categorises, describes, predicts, explains and aids understanding and controlling a topic (Chen, 1990; Donaldson & Gooler, 2003). There

are different definitions of programme theory but all suggest programme theory is concerned with understanding the effects expected of a programme and consists of a set of statements that describe a particular programme and explain why, how and under what conditions the programme effects occur, predict the outcomes of the programme and specify what needs to be done to bring about the desired programme effects (Chen & Rossi, 1992; Donaldson & Gooler, 2003).

According to Chen and Rossi (1992), a programme theory is a combination of description and prescription. In its prescriptive aspect, programme theory specifies what actions are needed to bring about change. This is termed normative theory. Normative theory prescribes the essential components, the kind of environment where the essential components should be implemented and the desirable goals that should be pursued. Programme theory also explains the causal processes underlying the programme on the descriptive side. This part is termed causative theory. Causative theory stipulates what the plausible intended and unintended impacts are, how these would be generated and how the evaluation results would be generalised.

Chen and Rossi's theory-driven approach entails defining a set of outcomes as potential effects of a programme, some given by the programme implementers and others derived from social science knowledge and theory in the area (Chen, 2005; Chen & Rossi, 1980). The reason for this is that social science theory and knowledge can inform the evaluator about possible desirable and attainable outcomes, ones that may be more useful in advancing the underlying social problem than the overtly stated objectives alone (Birckmayer & Weiss, 2000; Weiss, 1996). By carefully analysing the programme, one can infer or construct implicit or explicit plausible and defensible models of how programmes are expected to work before evaluating them (Chen & Rossi, 1980; Rossi, 1991). In this study, such models have the potential to offer insight into conditions of success and sustainability of the EIA programme.

The theories in theory-based evaluation can come from various sources (Weiss, 1998). Some writers suggest that they should be social science theories, while others suggest that any model setting forth the logic that must be involved if a programme is going to work is acceptable, and may therefore even refer to the programme theory itself as a 'logic model' (Chen & Rossi, 1987; Coffman, 1999; McLaughlin & Jordan 1999).

5.1.2. Logic models of evaluation

A logic model provides a tool for conceptualizing the relationships between short-term outcomes produced by programmes, intermediate system impacts and long-term community goals (Bickman, 1987; Julian, 1997). Kumpfer et al. (1993) and Wandersman and Linney (1991) describe a logic model as a logical series of statements linking a condition, the activities that will be employed to address a specific condition, short term outcomes resulting from activities and the long term impacts expected to occur as multiple outcomes are achieved. Thus, the logic model provides a simple means of presenting a programme and establishing process and outcome goals and is the basis for the programme's expected performance (Julian, Jones & Deyo, 1995; Kumpfer et al., 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991).

Evaluators have found the logic model concept useful for at least 20 years (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999). Variations of the logic model are called by different names, including Chains of Reasoning (Torvatn, 1999), Theory of Action (Patton, 1997) and Performance Framework (McDonald & Teather, 1997; Montague, 1997). The logic model and these variations are all related to what evaluators call programme theory, in that a logic model is essentially a systematic, visual way to present the underlying assumptions and theoretical framework of the programme (Gasper, 2000).

The diagram overleaf (Figure 8) illustrates the basic structure of a programme logic model. The model is read as follows:

- The first column represents the inputs or resources needed.
- The second column lists the activities or services provided by the programme.
- The third column lists the quantifiable products or outputs.
- The fourth, fifth and sixth columns illustrate the outcomes of the programme for participants in the short- , medium- and long-term, respectively.

This matrix format has changed little over the last 20 years (Gasper, 2000).

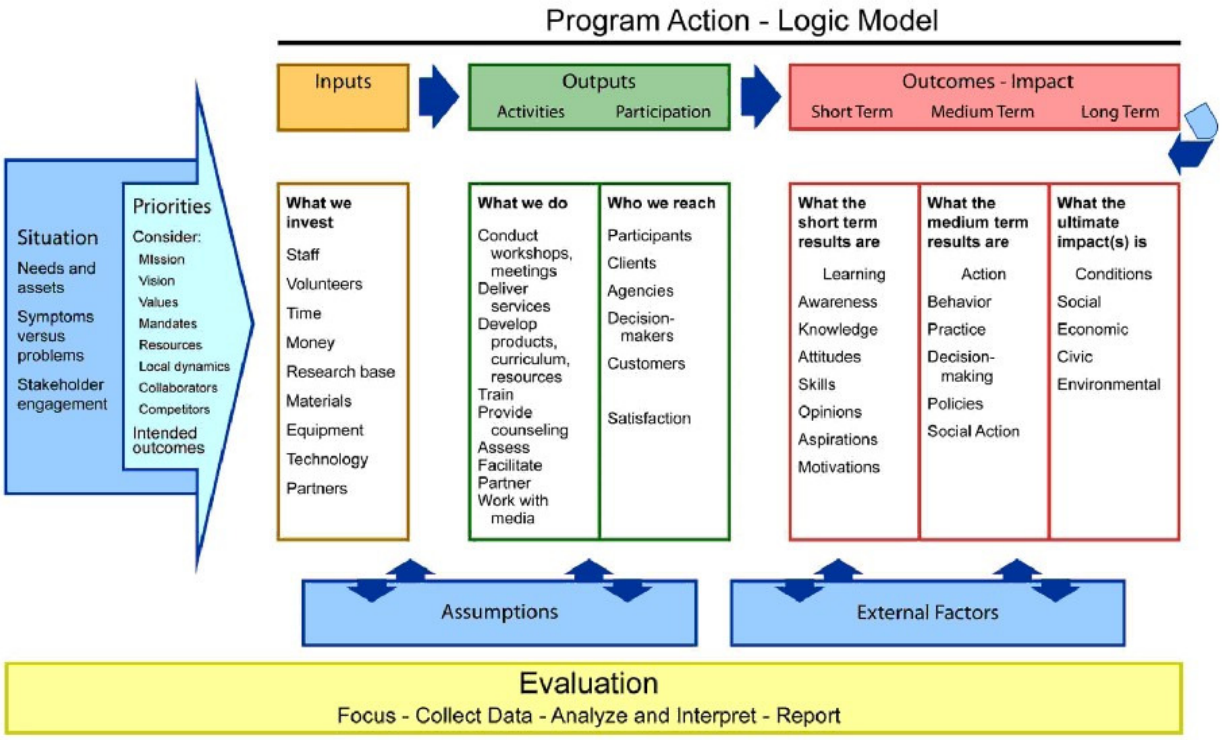


Figure 8: An example of a logic model (adapted from NHS Health, 2007, p.2).

Julian et al. (1995) claim that a major strength of a logic model is the ability to consider the linkages between conditions, activities, outcomes and impacts. McDonald and Teather (1997) state four other benefits of using this type of approach, namely that it builds a common understanding of the programme and expectations for resources, people reached and results; it is helpful in programme design or improvement; it is able to communicate the place of a programme in the organisation or problem hierarchy, particularly if there are shared logic charts at various management levels; and, lastly, it points to a balanced set of performance measurement points and evaluation issues.

5.1.3. The logical-framework theory of implementation evaluation approach

The logical-framework (logframe) theory of implementation is a theory-driven evaluation approach that involves problem analysis, stakeholder analysis, development of a hierarchy of objectives and selection of a preferred implementation strategy (AusGuide, 2003; Gasper, 2000). Logframe has several components, which can receive different degrees of emphasis and be operationalised in various ways (Gasper, 2000). It focuses on aspects of a programme's logical

framework or theory of implementation and the programme's aims, activities, services and outcomes relative to the serviced population are thus assumed to form part of what is termed the programme's logical framework (Potter, 2004). These aspects were incorporated into OLSET's logframe analysis during the DfID review (cf. Potter & Naidoo, 2006; 2007).

The logframe approach emphasises both programme theory or logic and programme results (Potter, 2004), relative to indicators of a programme's success.. It attempts to identify the elements used to plan and manage programmes, and focuses on the aims, objectives, outcomes, inputs and outputs of a programme. A variety of indicators are normally used as the basis for establishing the quality of a programme's work, and whether programme effects or results are being, or have been, achieved.

When using a logframe approach, the evaluator analyses both the programme's rationale as well as its plan of action (Potter, 2004). The programme's rationale is analysed by gathering information concerning the purposes of the programme and its aims. The plan of action is analysed by gathering information on how programme activities are implemented. As both the programme's rationale and its detailed plan of action are reflected in a programme's logical framework, the combined framework is often referred to as the programme's theory of implementation (Chen, 1990; Weiss, 1998).

In this way, the evaluator using a logical framework evaluation approach attempts to tap into the programme's theoretical basis and its logic (Potter, 2004). The evaluation design involves an examination of the logical process followed in both the programme's planning and its implementation. This framework then forms a basis for understanding both how the programme is conceptualised and planned, and how it is implemented in practice.

The logframe approach is the most commonly used project design and management tool amongst the international development community (Hailey & Sorgenfrei, 2004). The original 'LogFrame' was designed in the early 1970s for USAID in response to a series of project evaluations, which had identified several elements leading to the limited success of USAID's projects. Sartorius (1996) defines the *'first generation'* of this approach as use of a 4x4 matrix in the 1970s and

1980s. In this generation, it was a pre-specified set of boxes, which one tried to fill, with the result that not all components necessarily linked logically to each other. Furthermore, it was typically applied to summarise projects that had already been designed and were susceptible to rationalisation in the cosmetic sense (Cracknell & Rednall, 1986; MacArthur, 1994). In its *'second generation'*, logframe became a procedure for analysis from problem formulation through project design to later selection, monitoring and evaluation. In the 1990s, the first and second generation of this approach spread widely. Sartorius (1996) has described a *third generation* as a set of advances in the early and mid-1990s. This third generation is characterised by the use of computer packages to ease preparation and revision of matrices, more adequate training and better insight into indicators, and the linking of this approach to other planning methods. However, differences between levels have remained unclear.

If this approach is used in a flexible manner, it provides a powerful analytical tool to support project planning and implementation (AusGuide, 2003). It can also be applied in a participative manner. Despite the advantages of this approach, too much or too little detail may be provided which may hinder analysis (AusGuide, 2003). For contexts with multiple and diverse stakeholders, Hersoug (1996) states that this approach tends to over-specify objectives i.e. to overemphasize control as opposed to flexibility when planning a path forward.

5.1.4. The operationalisation of the evaluation model used in this study

The evaluation plan utilised in this study was based on the three evaluation approaches mentioned above, namely Chen and Rossi's theory-driven approach, the logic model approach and the logframe approach, as well as the recommendations of the DfID review (Potter & Naidoo, 2006; 2007). The evaluation plan was informed by both the theoretical assumptions of educational development, open learning, IRI and empowerment theory (refer to Chapter 3 and Chapter 4) and the EIA programme's objectives and mission statement, resources, local dynamics and context, collaborators and intended outcomes (refer to Chapter 2). The inputs, outputs (activities and participation) and outcomes (short - and medium-term) were then considered within the framework of the two research questions posed in this study (refer to Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12). A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used to obtain the data for the

evaluation, as recommended in the literature (AusGuide, 2003; Chen, 1990; 2005; Gasper, 2000; Kumpfer et al., 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991; Weiss, 1998).

5.1.4.1. Dependent variable one: Evidence of educational development outcomes in relation to the programme's objectives.

In order to address the first research question, namely whether the EIA programme was achieving its objectives, the programme's inputs in terms of radio lessons and materials, combined teacher support and in-service training provided on open learning principles were conceptualised as independent variables. The programme's objectives and mission statement (as stated in Chapter 2, on page 26) were then used as basis to develop the intended short- and medium-term outcomes which were conceptualised as dependent variables as reflected as results or impacts of the programme. These were also informed by the logical framework developed for the DfID review (as seen in Chapter 2, on pages 36 and 37) and theory related to educational development, open learning and IRI.

Combining these sources resulted in the development of nine outcomes relevant to addressing the first question (refer to Figure 9). Six of these outcomes were seen to be short-term, namely: equal access to quality education; material provision; teacher support; teacher support group provision; opportunities; and skills development. Two outcomes were seen to be medium-term, namely: improvement of education quality; and working in unison. The final outcome - unexpected outcomes - was seen to be both short-term in relation to broadcasting factors and medium-term in relation to rate of student absenteeism. These outcomes were then used to derive indicators, and as theory-driven categories or themes for analyses of the data.

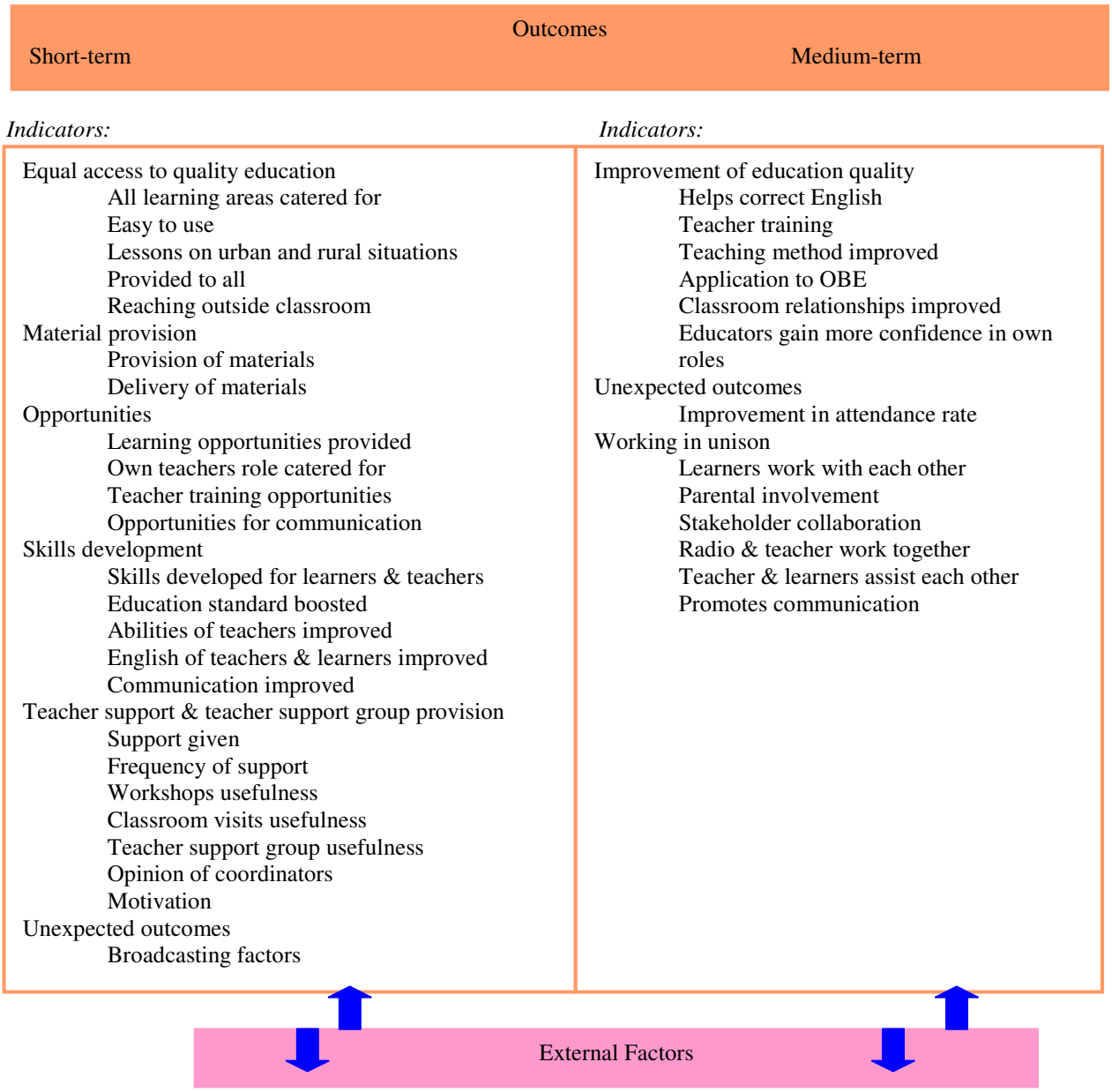


Figure 9: Indicators of short- and medium-term outcomes, relative to the EIA programme's objectives

5.1.4.2. Dependent variable two: Evidence of empowerment outcomes in relation to the programme's implementation.

In addition to evaluating the EIA programme, the research posed a second question as to whether empowerment was occurring within both teachers and learners as an additional outcome of the EIA programme's implementation. Using Zimmerman's (2000) empowerment model and its identified relationships to both distance education and open learning theory as a basis (see

Chapters Two, Three and Four), three outcomes identified as relevant to educational development were also identified as relevant to the issue of empowerment, namely opportunities, skills development and working in unison. An additional six outcomes related to addressing the second research question were also formulated (see Figure 10).

Three of these outcomes were short-term, namely: abilities; skills development and opportunities. Five were medium-term, namely: action; participation in the community, working in unison, power-sharing and independence. The final outcome, external factors, was seen as both short-term and medium-term.

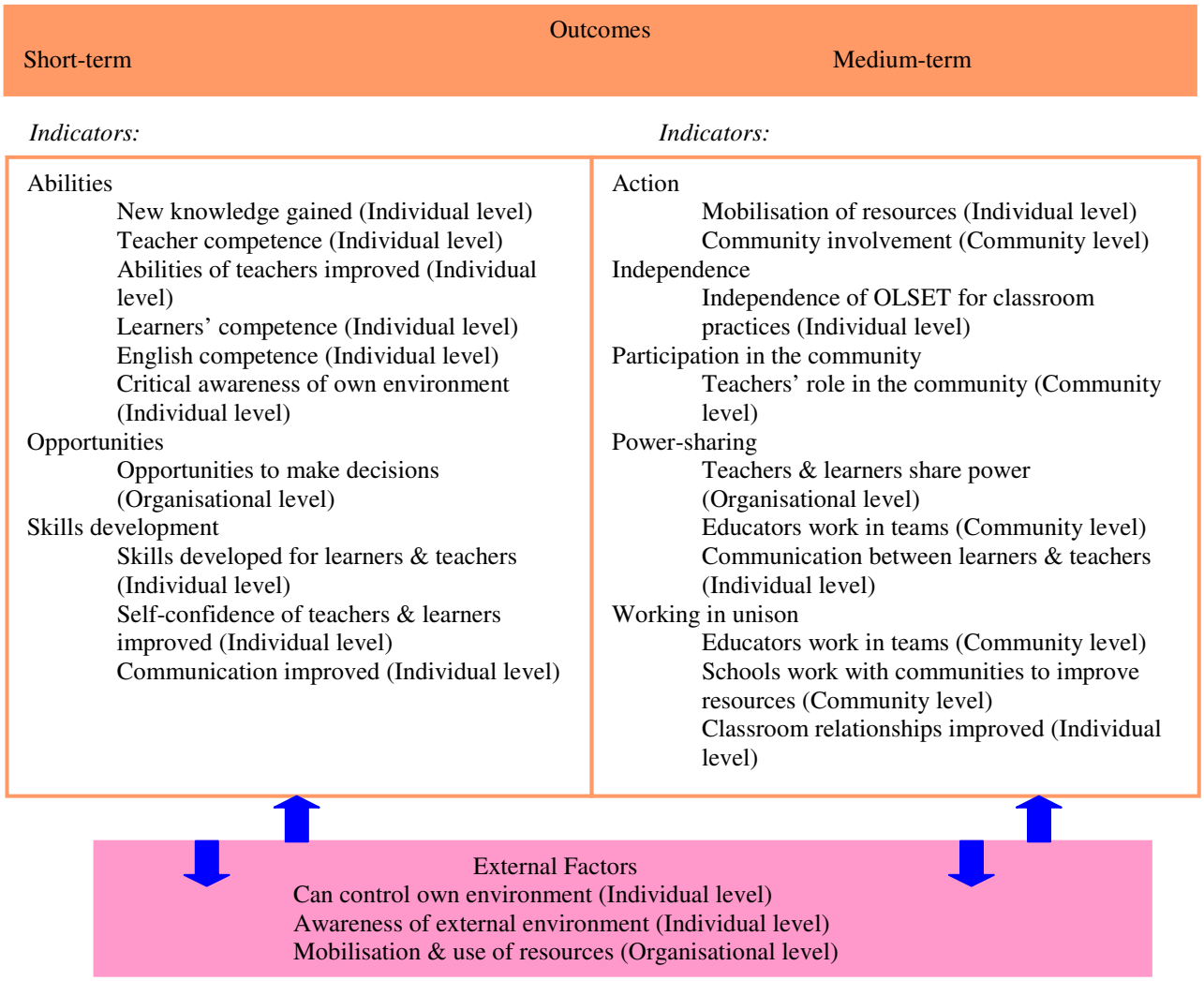


Figure 10: Indicators of short- and medium-term outcomes, relative to empowerment of programme beneficiaries.

In addition to this initial division, the outcomes or impact for empowerment were further divided on the basis of level of analysis using Zimmerman's (2000) three levels of analysis of empowerment. Abilities (new knowledge gained, teacher competence and abilities improved, learners' competence, English competence, critical awareness of own environment); skills development (skills developed for learners and teachers, self-confidence and communication improved); action (mobilisation of resources); working in unison (classroom relationships improved); power-sharing (communication between learners and teachers); independence (for classroom practices); and external factors (awareness and control of external environment) were analysed at the individual level. Opportunities (opportunities to make decisions) was analysed at the organisational level as postulated by Zimmerman (2000) (see Table 3). Power-sharing (teachers and learners sharing power, or shared leadership according to Zimmerman (2000)); and external factors (mobilisation and use of resources, or competition for resources according to Zimmerman (2000) were also analysed at the organisational level (cf. Zimmerman, 2000). Organisational coalitions at the community level of analysis (Zimmerman, 2000) were investigated in terms of action (community involvement); participation in the community (by teachers); and working in unison and power-sharing (educators working in teams and schools working with communities to improve resources).

It should be noted that in the context of this research, it was assumed that empowerment would only be reported by teachers and principals if educational change had occurred. This is, if there had been a change in the skills and attitudes of the people using the EIA programme at classroom-level (Fordham, 1980; South African Institute for Distance Education [SAIDE], 1994; UNESCO, 2005; Watson, 1984). The evaluation thus assumed that the intervention based on principles of open learning had a relationship with educational development as represented by a series of short- and medium-term outcomes as well as empowerment as represented by a series of short- and medium-term outcomes, as represented in the following model:

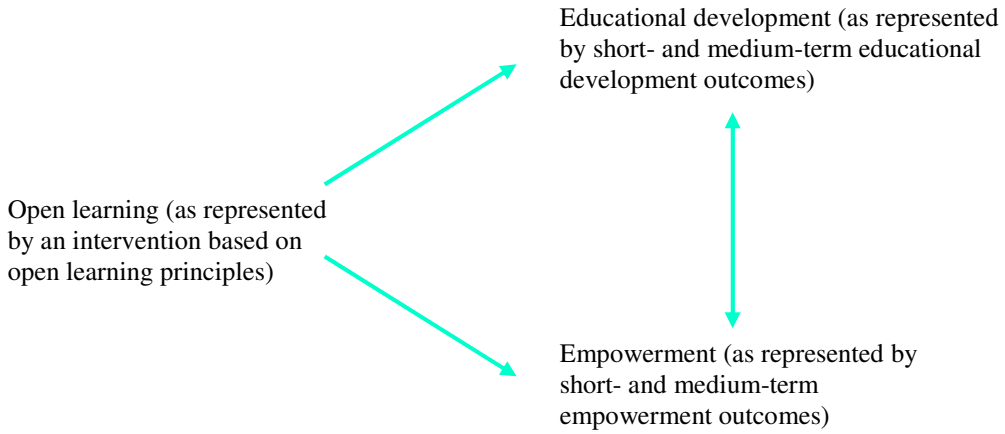


Figure 11: The evaluation model followed in this study

5.2. Research design

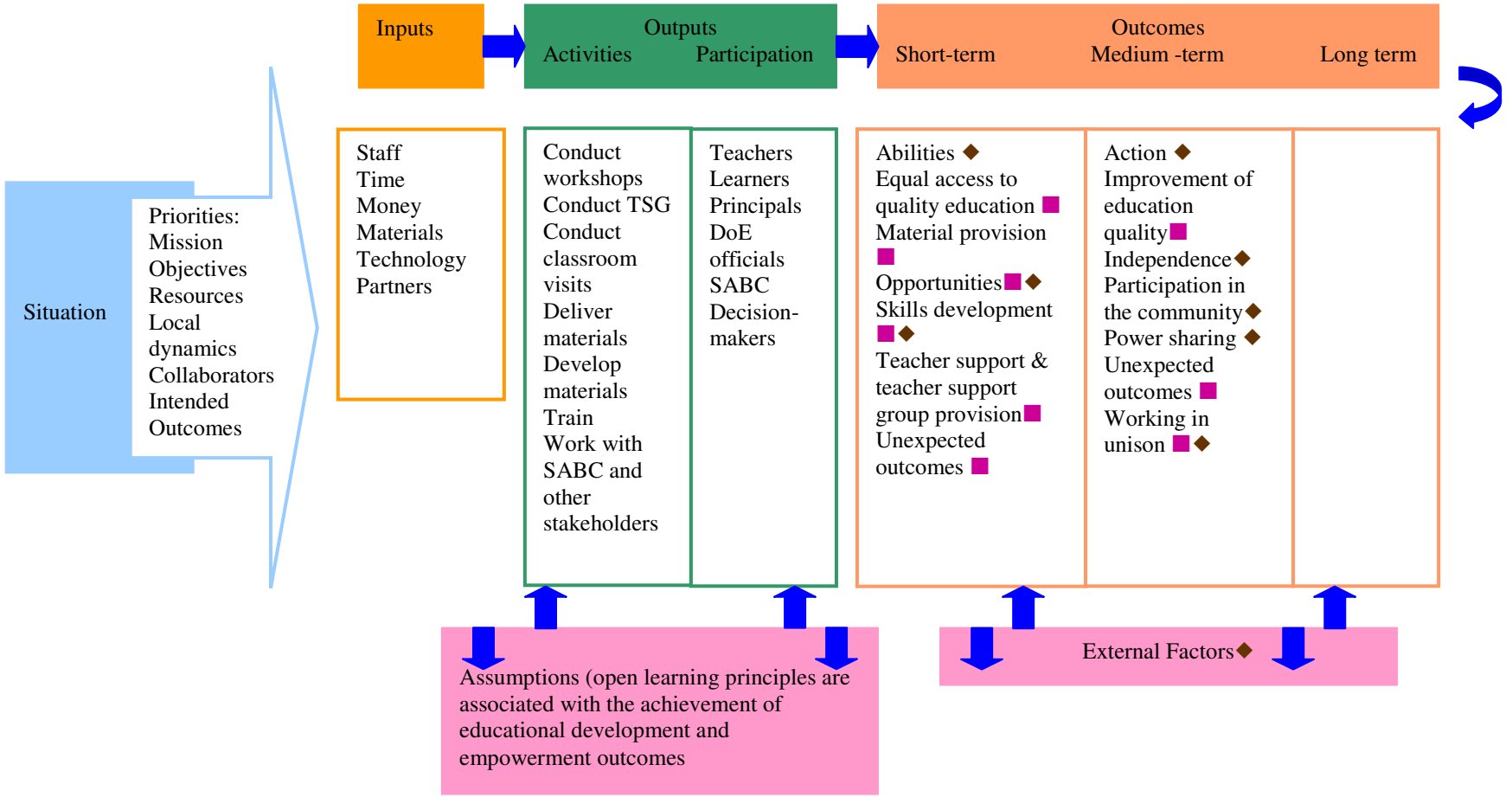
This study followed a design created to assess the short-term and medium-term outcomes or impacts identified in relation to both research questions and in this way evaluate the EIA programme both in terms of its intended outcomes and in terms of empowerment outcomes (see Figures 9 and 10). The research aimed to provide a detailed and in-depth exploration of how the English in Action (EIA) programme operated over a 2-year period between 2001 and 2003 using teacher and principal questionnaires, personal accounts and classroom observations. This was a significant period for OLSET as in 2001 it had limited funding whereas in 2003 it had ample funding. Thus, a comparison of how the programme worked in both funding scenarios was performed.

In order to assess the outcomes related to the first question, the researcher utilised the OLSET database of participating teachers and schools. 215 teacher and principal questionnaires obtained in 2001, 326 teacher and principal questionnaires obtained in 2003, and 202 personal accounts obtained in 2001 and 2003 were examined in order to explore implementation issues and efficacy of the EIA programme through thematic content analysis. In order to assess the outcomes related to the second question focusing on empowerment, evidence from a number of different sources were examined, including the OLSET database, questionnaires administered to teachers and principals in 2001 and 2003, personal accounts provided by teachers and principals in 2001 and

2003 and 36 classroom observations undertaken in 2003. The questionnaire and personal account data were examined for empowerment themes using thematic content analysis. Frequency analysis was also used to highlight dominant themes in the data.

In addition, the observational data were analysed for indicators of the effectiveness of the EIA programme in developing the educators' English skills to use as evidence of work-related empowerment. The rationale for doing so was based on the notions that in the EIA programme teachers are required to develop the capacity to teach more frequently in English as opposed to mother tongue; while learners are required to understand more English and need less help in understanding concepts using mother tongue. There is thus command of a new language for both groups, suggesting a gain in mastery of their own lives for the participants indicative of a sense of empowerment (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

The two research questions posed in the study were thus evaluated in light of the outcomes provided using both quantitative and qualitative sources of data. Previous IRI research (cf. A. I. D., 1990; Célicourt, 2006; Oxford, 1985; Perraton & Creed, 2000; Potter & Naidoo, 2006; Wagner et al., 2004) suggests that IRI produces positive results in terms of numbers and statistics. However, there is limited research in determining the perception of the results obtained as a result of using IRI by those that implement it. Furthermore, by using qualitative data one is able to ascertain what emerged as being achieved - as in goal-free evaluation (Scriven, 1977) without any pre-conceived notions which are often set up before the research commences in quantitative research. A summary of the evaluation plan followed in the study is provided overleaf (see Figure 12). This summary clearly sets out the situation, inputs, outputs and impacts (short-term and medium-term) assessed in the research.



Key:
■ Outcomes relevant to research question one
◆ Outcomes relevant to research question two

Figure 12: The detailed evaluation model followed in this study.

5.3 Paradigmatic assumptions underlying the research

Prior to discussing the practicalities of implementing the design structure outlined above, it is necessary to set out the underlying assumptions informing the evaluation plan and research. Two world views or paradigms are perceived as dominating research and evaluation efforts, the quantitative-realist and qualitative-idealist perspectives or paradigms (Smith, 1983). Sarantakos (1998) has described paradigms as sets of propositions which explain how the world is perceived, and all scientific inquiry is based within particular theoretical frameworks which in turn are based within particular paradigms (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Although the quantitative and qualitative paradigms appear contradictory, there is a third major research paradigm which combines the two. Proponents of this pragmatic paradigm adhere to the compatibility thesis as well as to the philosophy of pragmatism. The compatibility thesis is the idea that quantitative and qualitative can both be used in a single research study, while the philosophy of pragmatism says that researchers should use the approach or mixture of approaches that works the best in a real-world situation (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Creswell, 2005; Maxcy, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In order to address the posed research questions, this evaluation was located within the pragmatic paradigm.

Pragmatism arose in the USA towards the end of the 19th century when philosophers such as; Charles Pierce, William James, John Dewy and George Mead rejected traditional assumptions concerning the nature of knowledge, truth and inquiry and the idea that there was only one scientific method (Creswell, 2005; Maxcy, 2003). For pragmatists knowledge claims can arise from actions, situations and consequences, and they are concerned with solving problems by applying the most appropriate methods to do so. Pragmatism also helps to understand how research approaches can be mixed fruitfully (Hoshmand, 2003).

Community psychology is located primarily within a qualitative, interpretivist methodology, despite both quantitative and qualitative methodologies being used within the field (Seedat et al., 2001). Similarly, educational development straddles both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. “A methodology is a model which entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm” (Sarantakos, 1998, p. 31-32). Thus, a methodology translates the principles of a

paradigm into research language thereby demonstrating how the world can be explained, handled and approached.

Quantitative methods focus on strict quantification of data and on the empirical control of variables (Ponterotto & Grieger, 1998). This form of research often incorporates large-scale sampling procedures and the use of statistical tests to study group averages and variances. Qualitative methods, in the broadest sense, refer to research that produces descriptive data (Ponterotto & Grieger, 1998). The table below (Table 4) represents important differentiating characteristics of the two approaches. The figure following directly thereafter contrasts the methods followed in the two approaches.

Table 4:

Distinguishing characteristics of quantitative and qualitative approaches (reproduced from Ponterotto & Grieger, 1998, p. 51).

Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Natural Science Perspective	Human Science Perspective
Positivism	Phenomenology, Idealism & Constructivism
One true reality, measurable	Multiple realties, socially constructed & content dependent
Comte, Durkheim, Mill	Husserl, Deutscher, Weber, Dilthey
Deductive	Inductive
Theory driven	Theory generating
Hypothesis testing	Hypothesis generating
Predicting	Understanding
Quantification	Description
Understanding laws & causes	Seeking meaning
Outcome oriented, answering questions	Discovery oriented, asking questions
Objective & detached researcher	Involved & interactive researcher
Experimental designs & standardised instruments	In-depth interviews, participant observation & 'researcher as instrument'
Third-person written reports	First-person written reports
Internal validity, external validity, reliability & objectivity	Credibility, transferability, dependability & conformability
Methods & procedures are predetermined & followed rigorously throughout study	Methods & procedures are fluid & evolving

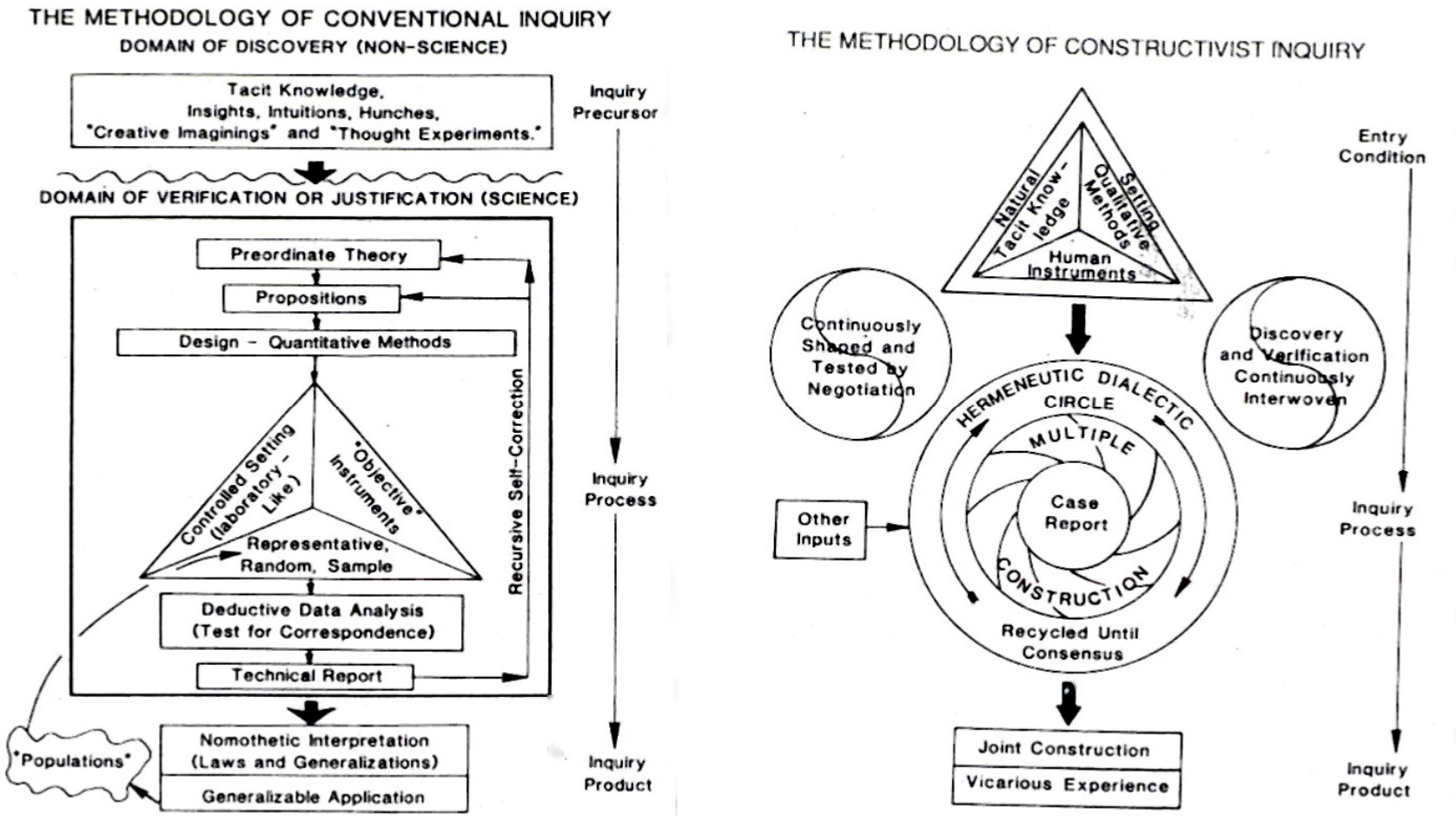


Figure 13: Diagrammatic comparison of the methods used for quantitative and qualitative approaches (reproduced from Guba and Lincoln, 1989, p. 165 & 174).

The debate regarding the ‘correct’ methodology for social research is a long-term one, with the main contestants in the ‘paradigm war’ being the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Theorists such as Guba and Lincoln (1986;1989) have emphasised the incompatibility of the different epistemological positions underlying these research approaches (Kelle, 2001). However, many other writers (e.g. Denzin, 1978; Fielding & Fielding, 1986) have advocated the integration of these two methods. It has been argued that qualitative and quantitative methods are not solely tied to a specific epistemological standpoint and that the epistemological positions are often connected to different methods which converge at several points. Proponents from both sides of the debate accept certain tenets, for example, the theory-ladenness of empirical observation.

The debate between the two approaches has largely ceased recently due to several factors (Creswell, 2005). One reason is that the dichotomy between the two does not really hold true under closer inspection; for example, there is both an objective and subjective reality to a situation. Some methods are more closely associated with one world view than others are, however to categorise them as being one or the other method creates an unrealistic situation. It has been argued that the idea of world views is incoherent and not wholly utilisable. Instead, according to Kelle (2001), many researchers adopt a perspective that what is adequate from each paradigm or methodology is used for a particular investigation and the rest omitted. Another factor that has quietened the debate is an increased interest in the procedural aspects of mixed methods research (Creswell, 2005). Mixed methods research has been seen to help bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research and provide a valid meeting point for the two seemingly divergent yet deeply related approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Mixed methods research is the systematic combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in research or evaluation (Chen, 2006). As theories of methodology have developed, mixed methods research has come to be viewed as a separate and distinct design (Creswell, 2005; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Philosophically, mixed methods designs are the ‘third wave’ or third research movement, a movement that moves past the ‘paradigm wars’ by offering a logical and practical alternative (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Hence, philosophically, mixed research makes use of the pragmatic paradigm.

The goal of mixed methods research is not to replace either quantitative or qualitative approaches, but rather to draw from the strengths and reduce the weaknesses of both approaches within a single study and across studies (Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Howe, 1988; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sechrest & Sidana, 1995). Thus, wider ranges of perspectives on utility are possible (Cook, 1985). The logic of inquiry of mixed methods includes the use of induction, deduction and abduction (uncovering and relying on the best of a set of explanations for understanding one's results) (Chen, 2006). It is inclusive, pluralistic, complementary, and suggests that researchers take an eclectic approach when conducting research.

By combining qualitative and quantitative methods, two outcomes may arise (Creswell, 2005). Either qualitative and quantitative results may converge in which case the results lead to the same conclusions, or although the qualitative and quantitative results may relate to different objects, they may be complementary to each other and therefore can be used to supplement each other (methodological triangulation) or qualitative and quantitative results may be divergent or contradictory and inconsistent and uncomplimentary results may arise, leading to difficulties in integrating, comparing and translating the different data forms (Cresswell, 2005). A great deal of work still needs to be undertaken in the area of mixed methods research regarding its philosophical positions, designs, data analysis, validity strategies, mixing and integration procedures and rationales, however the practicality of the approach when conducting research is undeniable, as it allows for the best of multiple different approaches to be combined in a highly pragmatic way (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Investigations concerning mixed methods designs (Creswell, 1994; Morse, 1991; Morgan, 1998) have focused on the use of component (parallel or sequential) designs. Different elements are kept separate, which allows each element to be true to its own paradigmatic and design requirements. The design followed in this study can be characterised as a sequential mixed methods design utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods, as outlined above.

5.4. Sample

Data sources utilised in the study included questionnaires, personal accounts and classroom observations. These data sources were gathered from teachers and principals that implemented the EIA radio learning programme provided by OLSET in both 2001 and 2003, as well as the EIA programme's coordinators at OLSET during the same time frame, using convenience sampling methods (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

The sample for the questionnaires and personal accounts was obtained from the seven provinces implementing the programme at the time the research was conducted i.e. in 2001 and 2003. In 2001, questionnaires were delivered to every school on the OLSET database containing the universe of schools implementing the EIA programme, however, it must be noted that the database was not particularly well developed at that stage. This meant that questionnaires were delivered to 42 schools and 215 completed questionnaires were returned (refer to Table 5). This represents 1.4% of all the teachers on the OLSET database. In 2003, by which time the number of schools utilising OLSET was hugely expanded, only every third school on the OLSET database containing the universe of schools implementing the EIA programme in each province was selected and questionnaires were delivered to those schools. Questionnaires were delivered to 466 schools and a very large number of questionnaires, approximately 978, were returned. Only responses from those that volunteered were obtained in both years, thus volunteer bias may have played a role in this study (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

This potential bias was exacerbated in 2003 as a result of the exceptionally high number of questionnaires returned. Due to insufficient resources being available to conduct in-depth thematic analysis on all questionnaires received, only every fourth questionnaire from those received was analysed per province, except for the Free State and Limpopo provinces and the Kwa-Zulu Natal (Hlabisa), Kwa-Zulu Natal (Nongoma) and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Port Shepstone) areas, where few questionnaires were retuned. Table 5 presents a synopsis of the number of questionnaires analysed according to schools as well as the number of participants per school in 2001 and 2003. The number of questionnaires analysed in 2003 represents 1.1 % of the teachers in the OLSET database at the time.

Table 5:

Number of schools and participants returning OLSET questionnaires in 2001 and 2003[15]

2001 Questionnaires	**Region**	**Number of schools**	**Number of teachers**	**Number of principals & Heads of Department (HODs)**
	Eastern Cape	5	11	4 principals
	Free State	8	32	6 principals
	Gauteng	9	29	6 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Braemar)	7	37	6 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	6	28	6 principals, 1 HOD
	Kwa-Zulu (Port Shepstone)	7	29	5 principals, 3 HODs
	Sub-total	*42*	*178*	*33 principals, 4 HODs*
2003 Questionnaires	Eastern Cape	35	42	5 principals, 2 HODs
	Free State	13	20	8 principals
	Gauteng	23	34	14 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Braemar)	27	40	18 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Durban)	22	44	18 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	7	32	1 principal
	Kwa-Zulu (Nongoma)	6	21	3 principals
	Kwa-Zulu (Port Shepstone)	7	7	5 principals
	Limpopo	5	9	4 principals
	Sub-total	*145*	*249*	*74 principals, 3 HODs*
	Totals	**183**	**427**	**107 principals, 7 HODs**

Personal accounts were obtained by asking OLSET EIA coordinators to contact schools in their regions to provide personal accounts from both teachers and principals in both 2001 and 2003. The coordinators were specifically asked to contact schools that they felt were implementing the programme well and schools they felt were having difficulty in implementing the programme. Table 6 provides a summary of the number of schools and participants that provided personal accounts in both 2001 and 2003. In 2001, 0.7% of the teachers in the OLSET database were represented by this sample and in 2003, 0.3% of the teachers were represented.

[15] Refer to Table A1 in Appendix A for more details of the participants.

Table 6:

Number of schools and participants providing personal accounts in 2001 and 2003[16]

2001 Personal accounts	**Region**	**Number of schools**	**Number of Teachers**	**Number of Principals**	**Number of HODs**
	Eastern Cape	5	6	4	0
	Free State	6	14	6	0
	Gauteng	10	15	5	0
	Kwa-Zulu (Braemar)	6	12	6	0
	Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	7	3	6	1
	Kwa-Zulu (Port Shepstone)	7	19	5	3
	Sub-total	*41*	*69*	*33*	*4*
2003 Personal accounts	**Region**	**Number of schools**	**Number of Teachers**	**Number of Principals**	**Number of HODs**
	Eastern Cape	4	3	1	0
	Free State	2	8	2	1
	Gauteng	5	4	4	1
	Kwa-Zulu (Durban)	7	8	6	1
	Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	4	25	4	2
	Kwa-Zulu (Nongoma)	4	4	4	1
	Kwa-Zulu (Port Shepstone)	3	13	4	0
	Sub-total	*29*	*65*	*25*	*6*
	Totals	**70**	**268**	**116**	**20**

The personal accounts and questionnaires obtained in 2001 and 2003 were analysed using thematic content analysis, and a comparison of the number of schools from each province that participated in the questionnaires and personal accounts in 2001 and 2003 was carried out.

As can be seen from Figures 14 and 15, more schools participated in the collection of questionnaire data in 2003 than 2001. In 2003, more schools participated from the Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Braemar) areas than in 2001, however fewer schools participated in 2003 in the Kwa-Zulu Natal (Hlabisa) and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Port Shepstone) regions than in 2001. In the Kwa-Zulu Natal (Durban) and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Nongoma) regions, as well as Limpopo, there were no coordinators servicing those regions in 2001, hence there were no participants for those regions, although data was obtained from these areas in 2003.

[16] Refer to Table A2 for a more details on the participants.

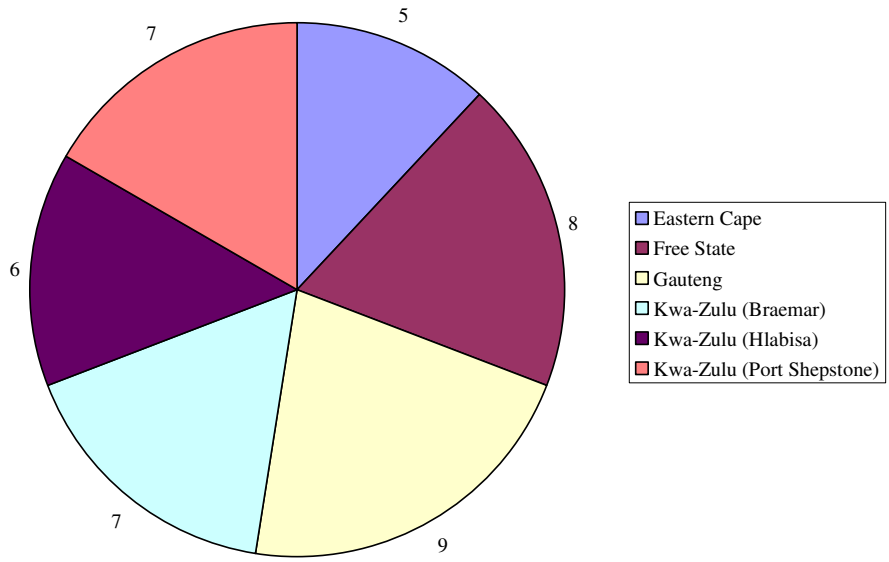


Figure 14: Total number of schools in which questionnaires were administered in 2001.

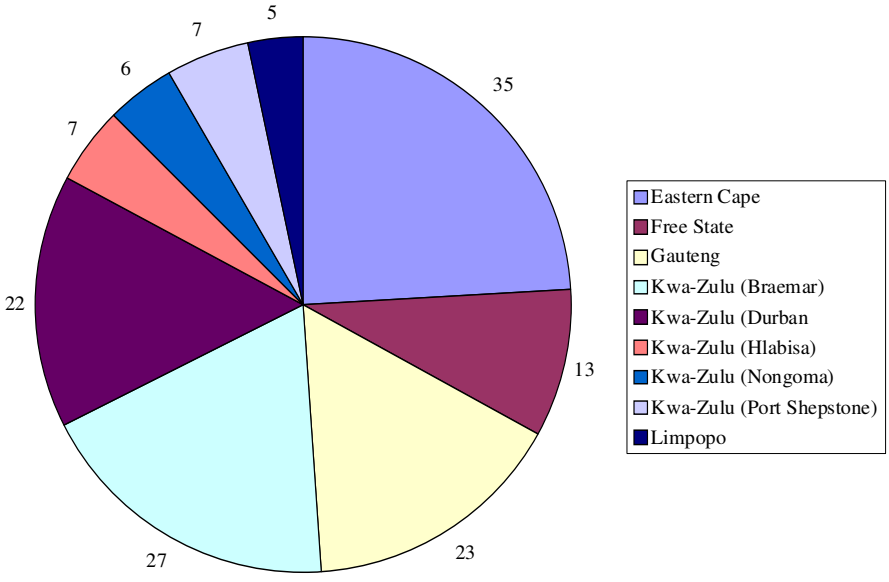


Figure 15: Total number of schools in which questionnaires were administered in 2003.

In relation to the personal accounts, no clear pattern of participation emerges except that fewer schools participated in 2003, as can be seen in Figures 16 and 17.

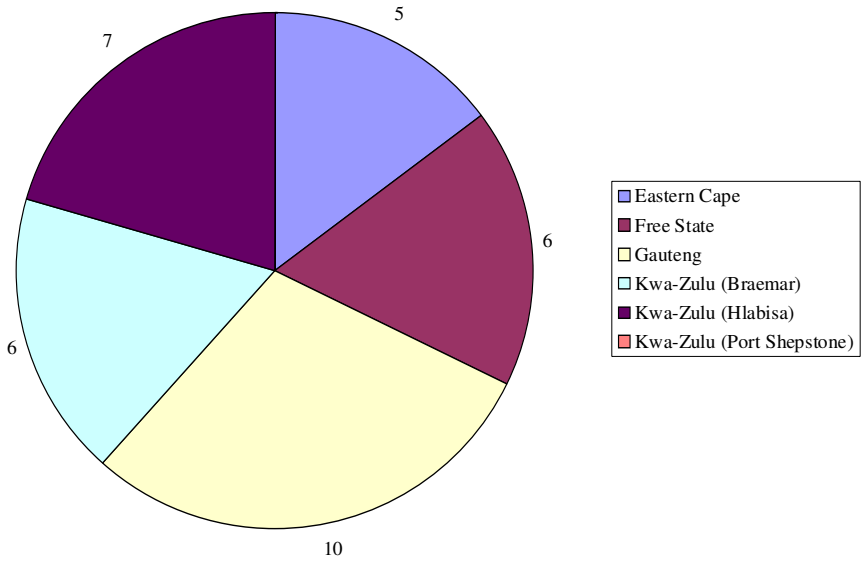


Figure 16: Total number of schools that provided personal accounts in 2001.

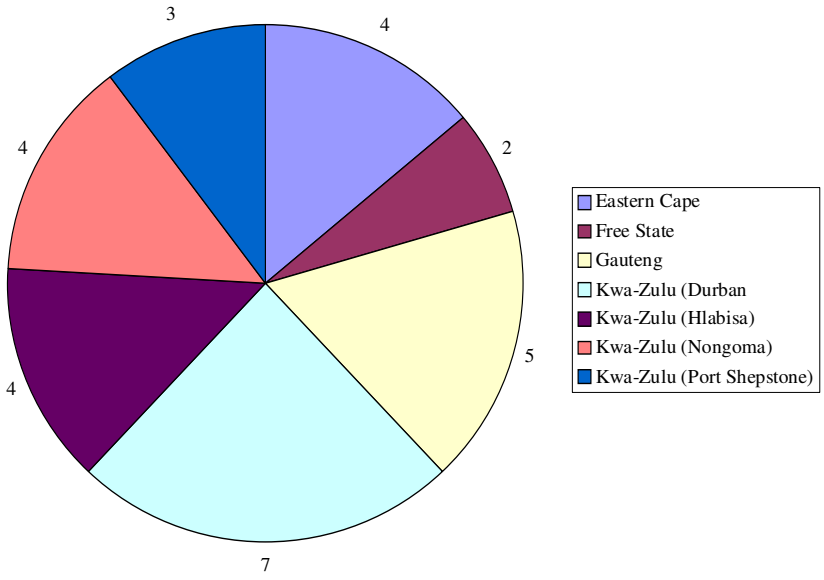


Figure 17: Total number of schools that provided personal accounts in 2003.

It would thus seem that a broader range of participants from across a wider area of South Africa was obtained in 2003 in relation to both the questionnaires and the personal accounts. The results obtained in 2003 could therefore be regarded as potentially more representative of the universe using EIA than those obtained in 2001, however it must be borne in mind that in all cases there was a strong likelihood of issues of representativeness across the sample (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

In 2001 the principals that completed the questionnaires had a mean of 21.97 (*SD*=1.23) years of teaching which ranged from 7 to 37 years. Hence, the principals had many years of teaching experience and were seen to be experienced educators. The majority of the principals were in the age range of 50 to 59 (*N*= 18), followed by the age range 40 to 49 (*N*=13) and lastly 6 were in the age range 30 to 39. The majority of the principals were headmasters of rural schools (*N*=22), 10 were principals of urban schools and 3 were principals of farm schools. According to Thornton (2007) the population in South Africa living in urban areas is that of 60%. Hence, the impoverished rural schools are represented more by this sample.

The teachers in the 2001 questionnaires, had a mean of 14.89 (*SD*= 0.57) for years of teaching. The years of teaching ranged from 5 months to 37 years. Most of the teachers were seen to be experienced educators while a few had little teaching experience. The majority of the teachers were in the age range of 40 to 49 (*N*= 92), followed by the age range 30 to 39 (*N*=61), 12 were in the 50 to 59 age range, 11 were under 30 and 2 were 60 and over. Most of the teachers taught in rural schools (*N*=121), 44 were teachers in urban schools and 13 were teachers in farm schools. As seen for the principals, this sample represents more the rural schools than the urban schools.

The principals in the 2003 questionnaires had a mean of 21.67 (*SD*=0.81) years of teaching which ranged from 9 to 35 years. As for 2001, these principals were viewed as experienced educators. Indeed, of the 77 principals that completed the questionnaire 54 also taught at the same time. The majority of the principals were in the age range of 40 to 49 (*N*= 38), followed by the age range 50 to 49 (*N*=29) and lastly 8 were in the age range 30 to 39. The majority of the principals were headmasters of rural schools (*N*=40), 20 were principals of schools in townships, 8 were principals of urban schools, 4 were principals of schools in informal settlements and 3 were

principals of farm schools. Once again more rural schools are represent by this sub-section of the sample.

In the 2003 questionnaires, the teachers had a mean of 14.89 (*SD*= 0.52) for years of teaching. The years of teaching ranged from 1 year to 38 years. Most of the teachers were seen to be experienced while a few had little teaching experience. The majority of the teachers were in the age range of 40 to 49 (*N*= 98), followed by the age range 30 to 39 (*N*=96), 30 were in the 50 to 59 age range, 13 were under 30 and 9 were 60 and over. Most of the teachers taught in rural schools (*N*=147), 58 were in township schools, 24 were teachers in informal settlement schools, 12 were teachers in urban schools and 5 were teachers in farm schools. This sample represents more the rural schools than the urban schools.

In both 2001 and 2003 the principals were more experienced educators and older than the teachers. The teachers represented a wider age and experience range. Nevertheless, it is evident that the teachers and principals were able to provide experienced feedback on issues of educational development and their experiences in the classroom. In addition, in both years the principals and teachers represented more the rural schools, which indicates a rural bias. These types of descriptions were not attainable from the personal accounts, as respondents did not provide this information.

The sample for the classroom observations was drawn primarily from implementers of the EIA programme in Gauteng in 2003. Observations were used to substantiate the themes obtained from the personal accounts and questionnaires as represented in Figure 18. Thus, the observation data are not representative of the EIA lessons conducted countrywide. Five primary schools were chosen purposively from the OLSET database based on proximity to Johannesburg (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). The five schools that were selected were; Winnie Ngwekazi Primary School (located in Soweto); Madiba Primary School (located in Lenasia); Ecaleni and Emmangweni Primary Schools (located in Tembisa) and Rabasotho Primary School (located near Fourways).

At the Winnie Ngwekazi Primary School, two Grade 1 teachers, one Grade 2 teacher and one Grade 3 teacher were observed for 3 classroom sessions each. Since not all Grade 3 teachers were

using the EIA programme in Gauteng, only Grade 1 and Grade 2 teachers (where available) were observed at the other schools. At Madiba and Emmangweni Primary Schools, one Grade 1 and one Grade 2 teacher were observed for 3 classroom sessions each. At Ecaleni and Rabasotho Primary Schools, two Grade 1 teachers in each school were observed for 3 classroom sessions each.

Overall, the samples of data used in this study can be described as convenience or opportunity samples. As such, there are limitations in the extent to which the questionnaire, interview and observational data can be regarded as representative.

One strength of the data lies in the fact that multiple perceptions of the programme and its implementation have been applied through the process of data gathering. Another lies in the fact that perceptions of the programme and its implementation were gathered over two years (2001 and 2003), corresponding to the periods in which schools were inadequately and adequately resourced. A third strength was that the data were gathered from seven provinces in South Africa.

Weaknesses of the data lie in the fact that, despite wide-spread distribution of questionnaires across the project, uneven data returns were achieved. As such, the data are based on what was available from the seven provinces, as opposed to being representative of all schools in which the programme was being implemented.

The strategies adopted in collecting and analysing the data are described in more detail below.

5.5. Data sources

As summarised below in Figure 18, a variety of data sources were utilised in order to obtain information to address the research questions. The OLSET database was used to identify which schools were running the EIA programme and to make contact with key informants. Questionnaires related to the functioning of the EIA programme and personal accounts of EIA programme enactment were obtained from both teachers and principals/heads of departments, as key informants and stakeholders, and classroom observations of the EIA programme being implemented were also gathered.

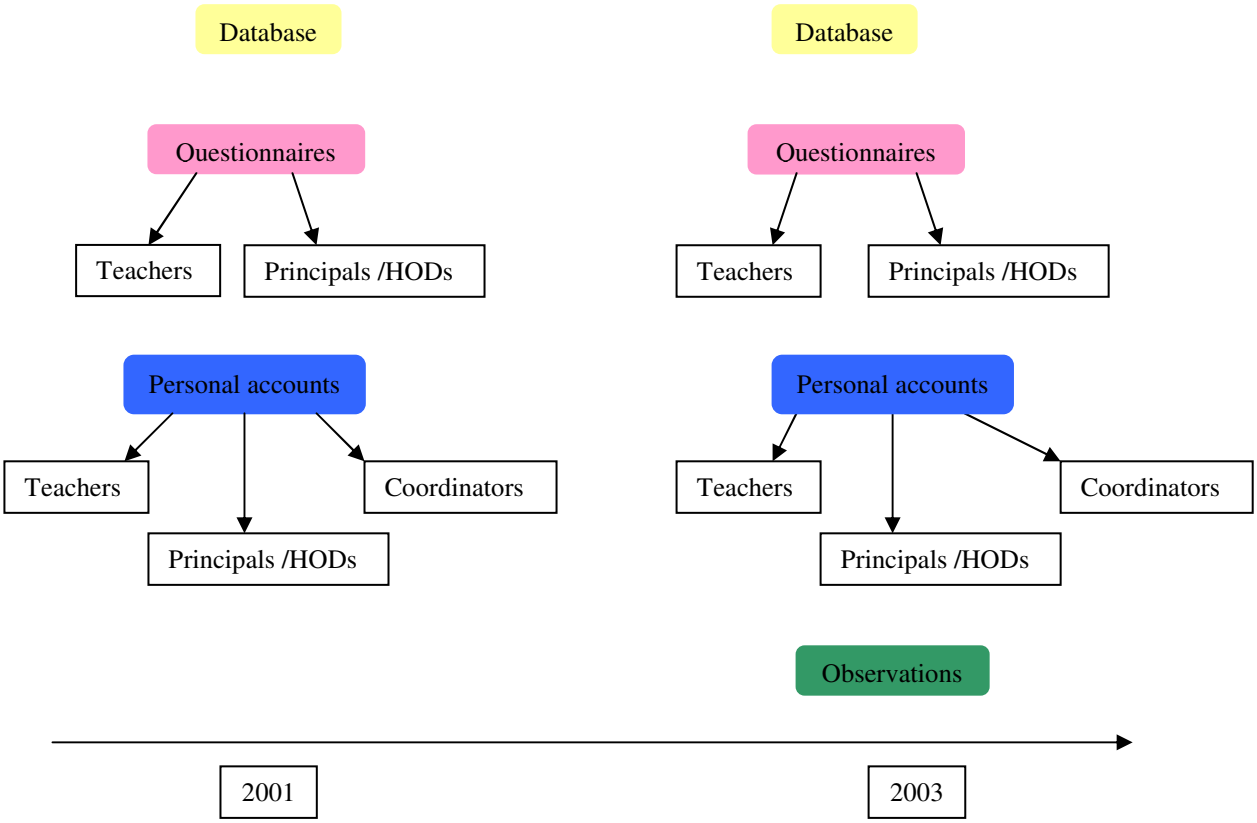


Figure 18: Data sources in the investigation

5.5.1. Database

In 2001, the OLSET database consisted of only the school names per province with the associated number of teachers and learners for each school. From 2002 to early 2004, this database was developed by the author, with the aid of a clerical secretary, and expanded to include data obtained from workshop registers; materials delivered and materials received; the names of the teachers, their associated school and the number of learners taught by each; the grade taught, the province and the district from which the teacher came; as well as the materials received by each teacher. Certain data, such as the setting of the school, could only be obtained from the different relevant educational departments, however the data provided by the different educational departments varied in terms of accuracy and was sometimes found to be out of date and incomplete. This meant that access to details such as school setting was difficult to obtain. Furthermore, from the information on the database it was not possible to discern the designation of the individuals i.e. if they were teachers, principals or heads of department. Nevertheless, a

large amount of data concerning the teachers (which included teachers, heads of department and principals) known to be using the EIA programme was obtained.

5.5.2. Teachers' and principals' questionnaires

An OLSET questionnaire for the teachers and principals using the EIA programme over a period of three years was developed by the researcher. Questionnaires were chosen as they are a common method of data collection in social studies and are very familiar to respondents due to their widespread and frequent use (Creswell, 1998; Rubin & Babbie, 2001). The questionnaire design process began in 2001 with the help of colleagues (Silva, 2002). Continuous adjustment on the basis of responses to the questionnaires was made throughout the three year period to ensure the information required was obtained, with final changes to the wording of the questionnaire being carried out in 2003. The questionnaires collected in 2001 and 2003 were used in this research (refer to Appendix B for a copy of the teacher and principal questionnaires used in 2001 and 2003).

When constructing the questionnaire a number of principles were taken into account. The questionnaire was written in simple English without jargon that would not be understood by respondents and the items were specifically written to be clear, precise and, where possible, short. Leading and loaded questions were avoided and, where possible, questions were separated out into distinct entities and double-barrel and double negative questions were removed (Fife-Shaw, 1995). For certain issues, multiple questions were asked concerning the same issue to ascertain the reliability as well as the validity of the responses. The questionnaire was also constructed in a manner that was user-friendly and ethically correct.

At the front of the questionnaires in both 2001 and 2003, record information such as the location of the school was sought. More record information was sought in 2003, such as the physical address of the school. These questions were closed-ended and included response sets such as check lists to enhance response speed. Later items in both the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires sought open-ended responses to issues concerning the actual implementation of the EIA programme. The items included in both the teacher and principal questionnaires across both years (2001 and 2003), as well as the rationale for their inclusion and/or modification, are presented in

Appendix C (Tables C1 and C2). No additional pilot of the questionnaires was conducted. These responses were analysed utilising thematic content analysis, as described below.

5.5.3. Personal accounts

In order to probe more deeply and to analyse diverse phenomena, personal accounts of the implementation of the EIA programme by teachers and principals were obtained. Cohen et al. (2001) argue that personal accounts can provide authentic stories of people's actions. In the study, these accounts are able to represent the personal meanings, experiences and perspectives of individual informants about the implementation of the EIA programme. Personal accounts also provide a means to empower the participants (Fetterman, 1993). They enable those working with the EIA programme to be actively involved in the research process by providing evidence and relevant aspects of their work which they feel are important (Fetterman, 1993).

Personal accounts were obtained from principals, heads of department (HODs) and teachers. Reports of how the OLSET coordinators were working in the region allocated to them were also collected. All of these sources of information were collated in case study format for the data obtained in 2001. Personal accounts obtained from the principals, HODs, teachers and OLSET coordinators in 2003 were analysed in a similar way to those obtained in 2001. The personal accounts provided from both years were analysed using thematic content analysis, as described below.

5.5.4. Classroom observations

Observation involves watching or attending to behaviour that is naturally occurring and is a process all people naturally engage in (Wilkinson, 1998). Observations are a valid research method in programme evaluation as they provide an opportunity for the researcher to obtain a view of the programme in its natural setting (Middleton, 1981; Wilkinson, 1998). In this study, a series of classroom observations of the radio learning lessons were conducted. These observations were conducted only in 2003 as they were used for interpretative and substantive purposes. The researcher used the data obtained in the observations to cross-check the themes obtained in 2001 and 2003 from the questionnaires and personal accounts.

When using observation as a research method, the specific aspects to be observed in a given situation must be clearly established before beginning, as it is impossible to observe every aspect, especially within a classroom context (Croll, 1986). Checklists or category systems were therefore formulated before the observation process began (Hoyle, Harris & Judd, 2002). The observation checklists formulated by Amidon and Hough (1967) and Eggleston, Galton and Jones (1976), Flander's (1970) system for analysing teacher behaviour and Love and Roderick's (1971) work were used a basis for developing the observation schedule used in this study. In order to obtain the final observation schedule used in this study, three pilot studies were undertaken.

5.5.4.1. The first pilot study

First, an informal observation of two classrooms at Winnie Ngwekazi Primary School took place in order to obtain a sense of what would yield valuable information i.e. categories to be included during the systematic observation to be undertaken. In addition, observation schedules formulated by Amidon and Hough (1967), Eggleston, Galton and Jones (1976), Flander's (1970) and Love and Roderick (1971) were used as the foundation for the observation schedule formulated.

The researcher's main aim in the observations was to determine if more English or mother tongue was being used by the teachers and learners respectively, which would indicate a mastery of English as a skill (which was also used in this study as an indicator of empowerment). It was decided that both verbal and non-verbal aspects would be important to watch as non-verbal behaviour was used by the teachers in these two classrooms in important ways, for example, the teachers would use hand gestures to encourage the students to continue with their responses. The importance of these gestures was laid out in Flander's (1970) observational system. It was also decided that both the teachers' and the learners' behaviour would be important to observe, since the EIA lessons are participative in nature, where both the learners and teachers are asked to respond to the radio lessons in different ways.

On this basis, the following observation categories were drawn up:

Verbal behaviour (teacher and leaner behaviour integrated due to the participative nature of the EIA lessons)

a1 = Learners and teacher greet in English

a2 = Learners and teacher greet in mother tongue

a3 = Listening to the radio

a4 = Learners sing along to the radio

a5 = Teacher explains radio instruction in English

a6 = Teacher explains radio instruction in mother tongue

a7 = Teacher conducts activity in English

a8 = Teacher conducts activity in mother tongue

a9 = Learners answer radio question in English with teacher help

a10 = Learners answer radio question in English without teacher help

Non-verbal behaviour (divided into teacher and learner behaviour)

b1 = Teacher accepts learner's behaviour

b2 = Teacher praises learner's behaviour

b3 = Teacher displays learner's ideas

b4 = Teacher moves to facilitate interactions

b6 = Teacher gives direction to learners

b7 = Teacher demonstrates or illustrates

c1 = Learner stands up and dances

c2 = Learner smiles and laughs

c3 = Learner waves hand/s to good morning song

c4 = Learner waves hand/s to goodbye song

5.5.4.2. The second pilot study

In order to determine if the observation schedule that was formulated could be used in the field, the researcher observed one teacher at the Winnie Ngwekazi Primary School for five lessons. In so doing, it was found that three observations sufficed for the individuals being observed to become accustomed to the researcher, therefore only data obtained after the second observation of a particular classroom were used for the purposes of this study. In this way, the effects of

observer bias, such as modification of behaviour due to the presence of the researcher, were limited (Middleton, 1981; Wilkinson, 1998).

During these five 'pilot' observations, the research moved from observing the presence of the different items from 60-second intervals to 30-second intervals. This was done as it was found that too much classroom behaviour was being missed during the 60-second gap. A stopwatch was used to ensure that this was done effectively.

5.4.4.3. The third pilot study

A third pilot was conducted in order to obtain reliability data. The researcher and a research assistant undertook three observations together. Inter-rater reliability was calculated using two methods. The first was using the formula for net agreement i.e. [(A-D)/ (A+D)] x 100 where A is agreement and D is disagreement, which yielded a net agreement of 95.07% for the three observations undertaken (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Although this was a good result, there are many problems with this procedure (cf. Howell, 1997), therefore the chance-corrected measure of agreement known as kappa was also calculated proposed by Cohen (1960) was also calculated. The formula for this is

$$k = \frac{\Sigma fo - \Sigma fe}{N - \Sigma fe}$$

It is a more conservative formula and yielded a result of 0.77 or 77% of agreement for the three observations, which is deemed an acceptable level of inter-rater reliability (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

Once the piloting was complete, thirty-six classroom observations were conducted in total using the observation schedule presented in Appendix D (developed as explained above). The data produced from this instrument was primarily quantitative in nature and was analysed using descriptive and relational statistical methods as discussed below.

5.6. Procedure

Each of the data sources was accessed and interpreted by the researcher, who worked as a junior employee of OLSET from 2002 to 2004 in the research and database department, and who

therefore, according to the typology postulated by Gold (1958, as cited in Junker, 1960) and Kreuger and Neuman (2006), functioned as a participant observer during the data collection stage. According to the typology, this implies that the researcher's activities were generally known to those working with her in OLSET although explicit details were not necessarily provided. Permission was obtained from OLSET to use the various forms of data obtained both prior to beginning and during the research process.

In 2001, the OLSET database was used as a basis to obtain the questionnaires. In-depth thematic content analysis was conducted on all questionnaire responses obtained in 2001. Personal accounts were then obtained from schools chosen by the coordinators. In-depth thematic content analysis was also conducted on these personal accounts. Comparisons of the themes obtained from these two types of data were made.

In 2003, questionnaires and personal accounts were also obtained. Each of these were thematically analysed and compared in a similar way to the results of the thematic analysis undertaken for the 2001 data. The themes obtained from the questionnaires and personal accounts in 2001 and 2003 were then compared.

Classroom observations of EIA lessons were conducted only in 2003. Five schools were chosen in Gauteng to conduct classroom observations. Where possible, all three grades in each school were observed, with a minimum of three radio lessons observed per grade. The classroom observations were analysed statistically, although the results obtained were interpreted bearing in mind the themes obtained from the questionnaires and personal accounts obtained in 2001 and 2003. Quantitative data were analysed using a statistical package i.e. SAS version 8.0 and qualitative data were analysed using thematic content analysis using a computer package ATLAS.ti version 5.0.63.0. The quantitative and qualitative data was given equal weighting in the interpretation despite more qualitative data being collected, as suggested by Creswell (2005) when using a sequential mixed methods design.

5.7. Ethics

All the data obtained belong to OLSET. The researcher accessed these data with permission from OLSET, which was possible as the researcher was an OLSET employee.

The data were not anonymous as OLSET required the respondents' name for record purposes. Confidentiality was assured, however, as only the author, the author's supervisor and OLSET management had access to the data. No identifying data appeared on any of the response formats and only group trends were analysed.

There was thus no possible harm done to the participants of this research. Furthermore, whether or not approached participants took part in the research there were no negative consequences for them. It was stressed that participation was voluntary. A certificate of ethics clearance was received from the ethics committee at the University of the Witwatersrand. A copy of this certificate is presented in Appendix E.

5.8. Triangulation and validity

As discussed above, this study followed a sequential mixed methods design utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods. It also employed techniques of triangulation (Cresswell, 1995).

Qualitatively-oriented social theorists have often used the notion of ‘triangulation’ to argue in favour of an integration of qualitative and quantitative methods (Denzin, 1978; Fielding & Fielding, 1986). Triangulation, a term drawn from naval military science, is the process where sailors use multiple reference points to locate an object’s exact position at sea (Creswell, 2005). Applied to research, it means that investigators can improve their enquiries by collecting and integrating different types of data investigating the same phenomenon. The term initially arose from the realm of quantitative psychological methodology within the psychological testing framework where it was proposed to further test empirical results by the use of different instruments (Kelle, 2001). Triangulation has different possible meanings, however, which can be related to a variety of different methodological problems and tasks (Cook, 1985; Kelle, 2001).

Triangulation reduces the risk of systematic distortions inherent in the use of only one method. Fielding and Fielding (1986) state that the combination of methods may add breadth and depth to the analysis. Denzin (1978) proposed that different types of triangulation should be used, namely:

- Time triangulation: triangulation attempting to take into consideration the factors of change and process by utilising cross-sectional and longitudinal research designs.
- Space triangulation: triangulation utilising cross-cultural techniques in order to overcome the regionalism of studies conducted in the same country or subculture.
- Combined levels of triangulation: triangulation through conducting more than one level of analysis (individual, group and collective).
- Theoretical triangulation: triangulation based upon alternative or competing theories in preference to using one viewpoint only.
- Investigator triangulation: triangulation through utilising one or more observer.
- Methodological triangulation: triangulation utilising either the same method on different occasions or different methods on the same object of study.

In this study, methods of time, investigator and methodological triangulation were used.
Time triangulation was used as the data were obtained over two years i.e. in 2001 and 2003. As represented in Figure 19 overleaf, the data yielded were then linked and integrated following the suggestions made by Fielding and Fielding (1986). Firstly, a comparison was made of the data collected in the two separate years i.e. the themes that resulted from the personal accounts and questionnaires obtained in 2001 were integrated and then compared to the integrated themes resulting from the personal accounts and questionnaires obtained in 2003. In addition, all the themes that resulted from the personal accounts and questionnaires in both years were combined in order to identify similar and contradictory views across the different data. The classroom observations were used to substantiate the themes that arose from the 2001 data. Furthermore, the observational data were used for interpretative purposes a priori in the process of analysing the 2003 verbal data. Thus methodological triangulation was also achieved by using both quantitative and qualitative processes to obtain the data utilised in the study, and through a careful process of comparison of the results obtained using the different methods.

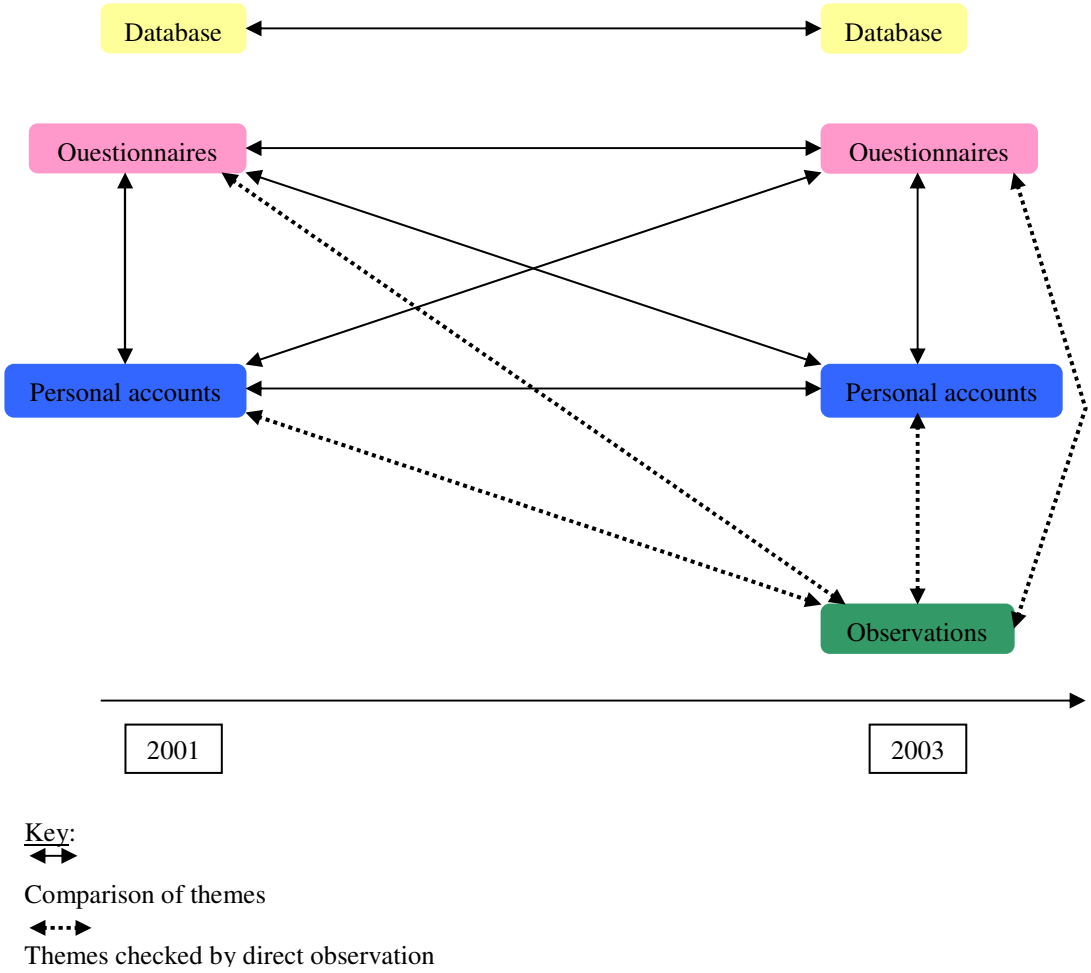


Figure 19: Data and time model for triangulation

The researcher used a research assistant to obtain inter-rater reliability of the observation schedule used in this study, thus ensuring a form of investigator triangulation came into play when this instrument was used, as suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1985; 1989). Investigator triangulation was also evident during the development of the questionnaires. Multiple researchers and stakeholders were involved in the development of the questionnaires in 2001 and 2003, respectively. Furthermore, in 2003 the 2001 questionnaires were used as a starting point. Thus investigator triangulation was used to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaires.

Although numerous forms of triangulation were utilised in the study in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the data, it is also important to take note of the role of the researcher within the OLSET organisation during the research. The researcher was also the interpreter of the data, and her specific role in the organisation and interaction with both the EIA programme and

numerous participants may have had significant influences in relation to decisions taken and the research process, as well as data interpretation.

The researcher attempted to describe the methods and procedures undertaken in this study as clearly as possible in order to provide an audit trail to ensure confirmability of the results (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The conclusions drawn were based on the actual words of the participants in order to make the results as authentic as possible (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The results were also related to theory in line with the type of evaluation used in this study thus; creditability was sought (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Nonetheless, the researcher did not confirm the interpretation of the results with the participants. Hence, there is a possibility that the researcher did not interpret the results correctly, especially due to her role within OLSET.

However, in order for dependability (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to be ensured the researcher compared data across two time intervals (2001 and 2003), across data sources and participants. As discussed in the following chapter there was convergence of results which indicated authenticity and creditability of the results. Furthermore, in an effort for the researcher to be as self-aware as possible the researcher made an effort to seek negative, positive and contradictory underlying meaning of every phrase coded.

It must be noted that the sample was described as fully as possible and representativity indicated in order to allow for future comparisons. However, since the sample of participants used in this study were not representative of the universe using the OLSET EIA programme the results may not be transferable (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Overall, the researcher played a pivotal role in the type of data gathered, in the analysis and the interpretation of the data, while numerous triangulation techniques were used to ensure that the data obtained were analysed in as rigorous, reliable and valid a manner as possible. There are major limitations in the analysis, which will be described in the following section.

5.9. Data analysis

5.9.1. Thematic content analysis

The qualitative data obtained from the questionnaires and personal accounts in this research were analysed using thematic content analysis. Thematic content analysis is the term used to describe an interpretative application of the method of content analysis, in which themes are identified, categorised and elaborated based on systematic scrutiny (Stemler, 2001). Content analysis was first used in the 1920s and 1930s for the analysis and quantification of communication content in mass media, thus its origins are primarily in the sociological and linguistic traditions (Stemler, 2001). The term is used inconsistently in the literature. At times, it is used to cover any generic method that involves analysing content while at other times it is used to describe a specific analytical approach. Content analysis, as used in this thesis, is a scientific tool used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or sets of texts. The presence, meanings and relationships of words and concepts are quantified and analysed in order to make inferences (George & The Rand Corporation, 1959). It therefore allows researchers to shift through large volumes of data with relative ease in a systematic fashion (Stemler, 2001).

Researchers have debated the respective merits and uses of quantitative and qualitative approaches to content analysis. There are a number of ways in which these two approaches to content analysis differ. These include:

1. Communications are read in order to formulate hypothesis and to discover new relationships (qualitative) as opposed to systematic content analysis for the purposes of testing hypothesis (quantitative).
2. Content analysis is regarded as an impressionistic procedure used to make interpretations concerning content characteristics (qualitative) as opposed to being regarded as a systematic procedure used to obtain precise, objective and reliable data (quantitative).
3. Predications are made only in terms of belonging or not belonging to an object (qualitative) as opposed to identifying attributes which allow for exact measurement or rank ordering (quantitative).
4. Content analysis is seen as a flexible procedure which allows content-descriptive explanations or coding (qualitative) as opposed to a rigid procedure used to make

judgements (quantitative).

One recent development is to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches when carrying out an analysis. Thus, content analysis has become a method that straddles both quantitative and qualitative paradigms (Stemler, 2001). This is in accordance with the pragmatic paradigmatic approach followed in this investigation. Content analysis can be viewed as a tool for rendering quantitative data suitable for quantitative analysis as the frequency counts of a word utilisation can be statistically analysed, however, contingency analysis can also be used i.e. coding may depend on the absence or presence of an attribute (Berelson, 1952). Thus content analysis analyses not only the manifest content (surface content) but also the themes and main ideas of the text, in other words, both the primary content and context information as latent content (Mayring, 2000).

Content analysis can therefore be regarded as an empirical methodological approach of text analysis within the context of communication, following content analytical rules and systematic models, without rash quantification. Post World War Two, however, a need for more inferential skills became evident, leading to the development of thematic content analysis as an accepted analytical tool (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Thematic content analysis is thus an interpretative application of the method of content analysis, in which themes are identified, categorised and elaborated based on systematic scrutiny (Stemler, 2001). It has been used extensively in psychology, and is appropriate in this study as the research wishes to make inferential conclusions.

When thematic content analysis is used to describe text, there are three possible comparisons that can be made (Holsti, 1969). The analyst may compare documents to a single source in different ways, for example, comparing data over time. The investigator may also compare communication from a single source in different situations. Lastly, the researcher may compare the messages produced by a single source across different audiences. Comparisons of communication content across time, situation or audience are inter-message analyses. All of these strategies were used in this study.

Krippendorf (1980) sees content analysis as being objective and systematic as it is replicable. This replicability is based on an individual's rules hence the values and predispositions of this individual will frame the analysis. Content analysis is unobtrusive as it is not individuals that are being content-analysed but some form of text. Both quantitative and qualitative analysis can be undertaken. The greatest strength is that content analysis can be done on any document be it old or new, structured or unstructured (Krippendorf, 1980).

It must be noted, however, that content analysis can yield over-simplistic and atheoretical results (Holsti, 1969). In this research the pre-ordinate categories developed were based on theory - this is also in line with the theory-driven evaluation approach used in this study. However, there is the issue of whether the frequency of the number of counts for a particular category reflects a linear importance of that theme to the respondent. There is also the issue of how pre-ordinate and emergent themes are identified and the weighting attached to these for interpretation purposes. For example, a sensitive theme may only be mentioned once but be of vital importance to the speaker. Nevertheless, elements of frequency counts need to be included during the manifest content analysis to eliminate problems of reliability (Palmquist, 2003; Rubin & Babbie, 2001).

At this juncture, it is thus pertinent to move on to a discussion on how content analysis was undertaken in this study.

5.9.2. Categorisation of data

The process of coding the raw data involved four basic stages:-

1. The researcher developed a set of categories or themes for classifying the raw data by reading three examples from each set of data thrice. Thus, theoretically-based categories or themes (based on educational development theory and Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment) as well as data-driven categories or themes were formulated. This resulted in two clusters of categories or themes being formulated. It should also be noted that certain categories or themes appeared under more than one cluster when applicable - these are denoted with a *.

Cluster 1: Educational development

Equal access to quality education	Improvement of education quality
Material provision	Opportunities*
Skills development*	Teacher support and teacher support group provision
Unexpected outcomes	Working in unison*

Cluster 2: Empowerment

Abilities	Action (proactive approach to life)
External factors	Independence
Multiuse of OLSET resources	Opportunities*
Participation	Participation in the community
Power sharing	Skills development*
Working in unison*	

2. The researcher then decided what the unit of content to be analysed would be. Krippendorf (1980) differentiates between three units, sampling, recoding and context units. The sampling unit is made up of the entire independent message used for the basis of sampling. In this study the 2001 questionnaires, 2001 personal accounts, 2003 questionnaires and 2003 personal accounts were the sampling units. The recording units are analytically separable parts of the message that are independently attached to content categories (Krippendorf, 1980). Usually the smallest recording unit is sought for practical purposes. This research used phrases as the recording unit, for example: *"It is easy for me to address the different levels of the children in class even though it is multigrade"*. To address the fact that message meanings are contextual, researchers also define a context unit, the immediate environment in which the message is received.

3. A rationale or description of each category or theme as set out in step one was then formulated as this guides the placement of units of content into categories or themes. The rationales for placement were based on Holsti's (1969) work, in which he provides a useful three-part typology. First researchers can focus on message content and meaning.

Second researchers can examine the antecedents of messages. Finally, researchers can investigate message effects. The structure of a content analytic study depends on the specific research questions being investigated. In this study, the researcher used the first two typologies as well as the guiding research questions when providing a detailed rationale for the placement of units into each category or theme. The different categories, their description and rationale, as well as examples of phrases coded under each category from each data source, are presented in Tables 7 and 8 below.

4. A system of enumeration was thereafter decided upon. Some researchers (cf. Berelson, 1952) argue that categories should focus exclusively on manifest meaning, others (cf. Holsti, 1969) look toward latent meaning as well. Since in this investigation thematic analysis was undertaken, the latent meaning was also considered. Hence, enumeration took place only in terms of frequencies. The researcher focused on the latent meaning of messages by categorising similar responses obtained under each category/theme (as represented in Tables 24 and 25) using in-vivo coding, to ensure that these issues that resulted were grounded in the participants' self-reports. The researcher, while categorising similar responses under each category or theme, also analysed the direction of the message i.e. if the message was positive or negative and if it supported or opposed other messages.

Using these four basic steps, the researcher then coded all responses obtained from the 2001 questionnaires, 2003 questionnaires, 2001 personal accounts and 2003 personal accounts separately. All responses obtained from the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts were typed using Microsoft Word. These responses were then transferred to ATLAS.ti. This software programme aided the researcher's task in coding the text and enumerating the identified phrases in each category or theme. ATLAS.ti allowed the researcher to read each line of text, highlight a relevant phrase and assign it to a category or theme that was developed (as described in steps one and three above). Upon coding all of the data, the programme was able to produce a report of the frequency of phrases for each category or theme as well as all the phrases coded under each category or theme. Thereafter, in an attempt to reduce the data further, as explained in step three above and in the following section, the researcher focused on the latent content of the

phrases. Hence, in-vivo coding was undertaken. Coding of the different data were done in the same manner in order to facilitate comparison of the four different data forms obtained, as represented in Figure 19.

Table 7:

Themes/Categories and their descriptions relevant to educational development

Theme/ Category	**Theme/Category description**	**Examples of coded phrases**
Equal access to quality education	This theme refers to OLSET providing quality education in both rural and urban areas.	*"Concepts are easy to understand"*(2001 questionnaire respondent P6) *"… explains more than I could because some of these things we were never exposed to until now… "* (2003 questionnaire respondent G21) *"It also breaches the gap that has been experienced for a long time by learners who are taught English by a teacher who themselves speaks English as a second language which ultimately results in the learners not leaning the correct pronunciation, intonation and speaking tempo in English.*" (2001 personal accounts, principal of Mofulatshepe Primary School) *"OLSET is able to accommodate different language".* (2003 personal accounts, teacher at Monaghan Farm School)
Improvement of education quality	This theme refers to the idea that by using the two English in Action programme curricula there is evidence of an improvement in education quality.	*"I make sure they understand the questions before giving correct answers"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T61) *"It has highly fulfilled the teacher's needs as it integrates with outcomes based education"* (2003 questionnaire respondent KH10) *"It is easy for me to address the different levels of the children in class even though it is multigrade"* (2001 personal accounts, teacher from Joseph Ditsela Farm School) *"I have also discovered the change in my role when presenting a lesson has been coaching and leading"* (2003 personal accounts, teacher from Imbalencane Combined Primary School).
Material provision	This theme refers to the provision of relevant teacher and learner support materials as well as of radios and/or audio cassettes.	*"I have no workbooks"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T5) *"The radio cassettes that OLSET supplies to us are of poor quality"*(2003 questionnaire respondent KB12) *"I appreciate the materials and help that I have received* "(2001 personal accounts, teacher from Khuphuka Lower Primary School)

		"However many do need more material and better quality radios" (2003 personal accounts, teacher from Imizikayifani Primary School)
Opportunities (also relevant to the empower-ment cluster)	This theme refers to the individual's opportunity to control his/her life and the occasion to develop his/her skills.	*"…learners are free to express themselves"* (2001 questionnaire respondent P2) *"The learners are provided with the opportunity to take part and to be involved during the lesson"* (2003 questionnaire respondent KD4) *"It also provides creative opportunities for developing visual literacy and communicative competence."* (2001 personal accounts, principal of Reseamohetse Primary School) *"…by providing educators with opportunities to develop and improve their teaching skills and by preparing our learners to be become active and responsible members of our society"* (2003 personal accounts, principal of Enzondwane Primary School)
Skills development (also relevant to the empower-ment cluster)	This theme refers to the attainment and mastery of different skills, in particular, language, literacy and communication skills. It denotes a critical awareness as it may suggest environmental mastery as well. These skills help individuals become independent thereby enabling them to control their lives. This is relevant to all three levels of analysis of Zimmerman's (2000) model.	*"Learners are taught to be flexible and open"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T3) "*It develops the learners with the skills of listening, speaking and be responsible*." (2003 questionnaire respondent G24) *"With these lessons, skills of listening, talking and writing are developed in the learners*." (2001 personal accounts, principal of Mcatshangelwa Primary School) "*The OLSET programme develops various skills such as listening, talking and touching*." (2003 personal accounts, principal of Khayalemfundo JP School).
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	This theme refers to INSET provided via the OLSET workshops, as well as evidence of OLSET support provided in a variety of ways for example teacher support groups.	*"…supports teachers teaching & learning"* (2001 questionnaire respondent P5) *"Since the beginning of this year only one workshop has been conducted"* (2003 questionnaire respondent KH 12) *"They have taught us how to handle the lesson"* (2001 personal accounts, teacher at Siphakamile CP School) *"Due to the current OLSET expansion workshops take most of the time as a result few class visits are possible."* (2003 personal accounts, coordinator)
Unexpected Outcomes	This theme refers to elements that were mentioned by participants as outcomes of the programme but that were not accounted for by the set objectives.	*"Problems with broadcast as the advertisements detract the learners"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T33) *"Sometimes the SABC make repetition on lesson and broadcast adverts in between the lesson which disturbs the learners' attention."* (2003 questionnaire respondent KD 51)

		"The Outcomes Based Education and OLSET officials should work hand in hand to make the programme more successful." (2001 personal accounts, principal of Mzimhlophe Primary School) *"I have also noticed that the number of absentees is decreasing in our school".* (2003 personal accounts, teacher from Imbalencane Primary School)
Working in unison (also relevant to the empower-ment cluster)	This theme refers to individuals working in unison in an organised manner in order to improve their collective lives thus enacting empowerment at the community level (Zimmerman, 2000). This might include collective action to access government and other community resources (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). In essence, is there evidence of collections of people able to work as a group to develop partnerships with different stakeholders, as set out by one of OLSET objectives.	*"…helps learners work with others"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T5) "*…helps to teach each other.*"(2003 questionnaire respondent E41) "*Department officials include the coordinator in some of their meetings and are eager that the OLSET radio learning programme continues"* (2001 personal accounts, coordinator) "*Even parents' involvement in their children's school work improved as the learners took home activity books to complete their tasks and exercises*." (2003 personal accounts, teacher at Empumalanga Public School)

Table 8:

Themes/Categories and their descriptions relevant to empowerment

Theme/ Category	**Theme/Category description**	**Examples of coded phrases**
Abilities	This theme is related to motivation and the belief about one's competence and mastery at the individual level of empowerment.	*"Their kids are able to listen & talk freely"*(2001 questionnaire respondent P8) *"They can listen and answer questions in English*" (2003 questionnaire respondent KD9). *"… now able to listen with comprehension.*"(2001 personal accounts, teacher from Masahkane-Tswelopele Primary School) *"…but even prepares learners' ability to cope with higher grades."*(2003 personal accounts, foundation phase HOD at Marhulana Primary School)

Action (proactive approach to life)	This theme refers to coping behaviour undertaken in order to improve the individual's or group's situation. It also refers to practical actions used to enhance individual or collective lives.	*"Find material for reading and written work"*(2001 questionnaire respondent T37) "*I sometimes tell then words and ask for explanation and they said it without my translation*" (2003 questionnaire respondent G 8). *"I bought the radio cassette because I felt I was getting late"* (2001 personal accounts, teacher from Mdlazi Primary School) "*Although we had problems at the beginning as the programme did not have sufficient funds to sustain the programme, we did not despair but ran the programme with the little resources we had*" (2003 personal accounts, principal of Nondabula Primary School).
External factors	This theme refers to an awareness of resources and the ability to mobilise these. This involves searching for aspects of awareness at the individual level of empowerment and causal agents, social and environmental barrier removal and environmental support and resources at the organisational level (Zimmerman, 2000).	*"Put up pictures as the lesson progresses"*(2001 questionnaire respondent T72) *"Because OLSET provide us with learning materials and also resources"* (2003 questionnaire respondent E33). *"Although distance and irregular transport is inevitably a limiting factor"* (2001 personal accounts, foundation phase HOD at Mdlazi Primary School) *"I like OLSET because they supply us with material to teach."* (2003 personal accounts, principal of Gcotsheni Primary School)
Independence	This theme refers to relationships in which one party or individual is reliant on another for psychological factors or external factors such as resources. Such relationships may indicate states of powerlessness.	*"Not enough teaching material"* (2001 questionnaire respondent P12) *"You must provide assessment standards for the activities"* (2003 questionnaire respondent K6) *"Give us tape recorders, so that after the lesson, if the pupils did not understand it, we must use the tape recorder"* (Questionnaire respondent G9) *"…every educator gets a radio so that we won't have to wait for other educators to finish before we can start with our work"* (2001 personal accounts, teacher from Mhlabulungile CP School) "*…find it very difficult to freely teach it because there is insufficient learning material e.g. books and radios.*" (2003 personal accounts, teacher from Imizikayifani Primary School)
Multiuse of OLSET resources	This theme refers to the educators' use of the OLSET materials in other areas of education besides during the English in Action radio lessons. This category did not arise from the theory but rather from the data itself.	"*Use it to integrate in other learning areas, e.g. numeracy, life skills*." (2001 questionnaire respondent T1) *"I use the OLSET materials in other areas of teaching when I am doing life skills e.g. things which are found on the farm kinds of transport etc."* (2003 questionnaire respondent KPS9)

Participation	This theme refers to notions of participation that form a part of Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment at two levels. At the psychological or individual level under the behavioural facet, this indicates behaviour that exerts control on the context. An empowered community is where the individuals initiate efforts to improve their collective lives, respond to threats to quality of life and provide for citizen participation. Again, this theme arose from the text and not from the theory.	*"Shy learners participate in the radio lesson"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T5) "*…it encourages learners' active involvement.*" (2003 questionnaire respondent KB24) "*…they all want to take part during the lesson.*" (2001 personal accounts, teacher from Siphakmile School) "*Learners also feel free to participate actively without any shyness.*"(2003 personal accounts, teacher from Reagile Primary School)
Participation in the community	This theme refers to the individual's participation in community organisations, usually on a volunteer basis. An individual that undertakes such participation is postulated by Zimmerman (2000) to be empowered at the community level.	*"Can communicate with other learners from other schools with no problem"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T4) *"Being with OLSET signifies that we have a participative role in the community"* (2001 personal accounts, principal of Winnie-Ngwekazi Primary School)
Power-sharing	This theme refers to shared responsibilities and shared leadership at the organisational level of Zimmerman's (2000) model. Organisations with shared responsibilities, a supportive atmosphere and social activities are expected to be more empowering than hierarchical organisations. Empowering organisational structures may also work to undermine the act of empowerment if members do not share real decision-making power.	*"The children correct educator if she gives incorrect instruction"* (2001 questionnaire respondent T8) "*….makes suggestions the actual management of the activity is left to the educator to determine"* (2003 questionnaire respondent KH14) "*Communication with the educator and with his/her classmates is promoted since learners share questions and responses.*"(2001 personal accounts principal of Somkhele Junior Primary School "*During these workshops ideas are shared, lessons demonstrations are done, solutions to problems encountered during the implementation of the programme are also sought*."(2003 personal accounts, coordinator) (Also coded under Skills development)

5.9.3. Procedures used to reduce and analyse the qualitative data

One of the most comprehensive forms for generation of meaning and confirmation of qualitative data came from Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994), who see qualitative research as a two-stage process. The first stage involves the creation of meaning, carried out through the use of thematic content analysis in this study. The second stage is to confirm if the meanings elicited are true and accurate.

Verification is an important concept for traditional quantitative research (Shank, 2002). Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) recommend that issues of reliability, validity and generalisability be addressed. In terms of reliability, the researcher attempted to be as objective as possible in a qualitative study by not leading the participants to desired responses as well as by structuring the instruments as much as possible. The researcher also made every effort to provide a detailed account of how the data were reduced so that replicability of the study can be carried out at a later date. This study also made extensive use of various triangulation methods in an effort to validate the data in terms of verifying and confirming different issues. Furthermore, the researcher used in-vivo coding on the verbal data obtained.

Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) also state that in order to verify data and make meaning, different displays must be used. They present two forms: within-case and cross-case displays. The within-case display is used to help sort out the order found within a given case, while cross-displays allow one to dig into particular and historical characters of cases. This was done by comparing the findings in 2001 to those found in 2003 as represented in Figure 18. Data displays allow one to determine patterns, find the variables and map out possible relationships (Shank, 2002). According to Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994), there are two phases to this process. The first is to explore and describe the data. In total 3 817 phrases were coded for the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts within 16 categories or themes. The second phase seeks to explain, order and predict i.e. to undertake causal modelling and causal networks. Inter-relationships between different categories are also checked. Using in vivo coding the 3 817 phrases were categorised based on their latent content into 81 issues as outlined in Tables 24 and 25**.** Based on these processes conclusions were drawn.

5.9.4. Statistical analyses

In an attempt to determine if more English or mother tongue was being used by the teachers and learners in order to triangulate findings from the questionnaires and personal accounts, a classroom observation schedule was drawn up and 36 classroom observations conducted. This issue was particularly important to address as it could provide evidence of a mastery of English as a skill and also indicate empowerment. Statistical analyses using distribution, chi-square and contingency tables were used. In addition, to verify and support the combination of different sets

of data for analyses chi-square analyses were used. All statistical procedures were run on a computer package i.e. SAS (version 8.0).

5.9.4.1. Descriptive statistics for the observation schedule categories

Distribution analysis of the observation tallies were conducted to obtain descriptive information on the data. The researcher obtained the descriptive statistics i.e. ranges, means, medians, modes, standard deviations and skewness of each of the observation variables.

5.9.4.2. Chi-square and contingency analyses; use of English in the classroom

Chi-square analysis was used to explore differences in frequencies of the themes obtained across and within data (Howell, 1997). Chi-square analysis was also used to explore differences in the categorical or nominal data obtained from the observations (Howell, 1997). This was done in order to determine if the teachers differed from each other in terms of the observed mutually exclusive categories in the observations. The number of observation categories chosen was extensive and in many cases, few elements of a particular category were noted. This situation is an artefact of observing with pre-set categories i.e. systematic observations (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

One of the assumptions of the chi-square technique is that the test statistic must approximate a chi-square distribution (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). This approximation may be poor if the expected frequencies are small. The general recommendation is that all expected frequencies should be greater than 1 and not more than 20% should be less than 5. If these conditions do not hold then some categories should be collapsed (Howell, 1997). From the initial data, some categories had expected values that were less than 1 and in some cases more than 20% were found to be less than 5, hence categories had to be collapsed. Categories were collapsed based on similarities between groupings.

Once it was determined that the teachers differed from each other, contingency table analysis was used to determine if one variable or category was contingent on the other (Howell, 1997). This was done to determine if the teachers were more empowered by using EIA. In order to determine this aspect, observations of the differences in choice of language usage were necessary.

Contingency analyses were therefore used to determine the difference between English and mother tongue usage during the OLSET radio lessons. This enabled the researcher to investigate the English learning short-term output or impact.

5.10. Summary

In this chapter, information regarding the evaluation approach, research design and methods followed in the study was provided. This research sought to investigate whether the EIA programme had met its objectives according to its underlying educational development theory, as based on open learning principles. The study also investigated whether the programme had provided a vehicle for empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels as per Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment. Hence a combination of the theory-driven (Chen, 1990; Weiss, 1998), logic model (Kumpfer et al., 1993; Wandersman & Linney, 1991) and logical-frame evaluative approaches were used (AusGuide, 2003; Gasper, 2000) as presented in Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12. The research followed a sequential mixed methods research design incorporating triangulation procedures located within the pragmatic paradigm. Both quantitative data obtained in 2003 (classroom observations) and qualitative data obtained in 2001 and 2003 (questionnaires and personal accounts) were used.

In 2001, 178 teacher questionnaires, 33 principal questionnaires and 4 HOD questionnaires were received from seven provinces implementing the EIA programme. Sixty-nine personal accounts were received from teachers, 33 from principals and 4 from HODs. In 2003, 249 teacher questionnaires, 74 principal questionnaires and 3 HOD questionnaires were obtained from seven provinces implementing the EIA programme. Sixty-five teacher personal accounts, 25 principal personal accounts and 6 HOD personal accounts were received. Thirty-six classroom observations were conducted in 10 classrooms in the Gauteng province in 2003 as well. In-depth thematic content analyses were conducted on the qualitative data as well as procedures to reduce and compare themes. Chi-square and contingency analyses were the statistical techniques used to analyse the data obtained from the classroom observations.

A number of strengths and limitations of the data, and of the data analyses techniques utilised in this study have been outlined. The results obtained from the various data forms in 2001 and 2003

are presented in the following three chapters. The frameworks of programme outcomes as presented in Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12 in this chapter are used to structure the analyses.

Chapter 6: Results

In this chapter, the results of the various analyses will be presented. The data obtained via the database will first be presented. Comparisons across and within the data are then undertaken. The results of the two research questions are then presented separately.

6.1. Database

The OLSET database capturing details of schools involved in the EIA programme was utilised as the means to obtain the sample and background information related to the evaluation. In 2001 there were an estimated 15 557 teachers and 622 280 learners implementing the programme (Potter, 2001). As the database was developed between 2001 and 2004, access to exact numbers of teacher and learners implementing the EIA programme was made easier, and in 2003 it could be confirmed that there were 30 167 teachers and 1 302 728 learners using the EIA programme. This illustrates that, with the advent of the DfID funding, the number of teachers and learners using the EIA programme grew substantially from 2001 to 2003, in fact, the numbers of learners and teachers being reached were almost doubled, as shown in Table 9 below. According to the Department of Education (2005), in 2003 there were 12 038 922 learners, 362 598 teachers and 26 879 schools nationally. OLSET can thus be viewed to have been used by approximately 11% of all schools in South Africa in 2003. Of these 12 176 391 learners, 3 850 660 were in the foundation phase, hence OLSET's EIA programme was reaching approximately 35% of all foundation phase learners in South Africa in 2003 (Department of Education, 2005).

Table 9:

Number of teachers and learners using the EIA programme in 2001 and 2003

	2001	**2003**
Number of teachers	15 557	30 167
Number of learners	622 280	1 302 728

The database provided a means to effectively examine how representative the sample of data gathered, was of the overall universe using the EIA programme and the implications thereof. The database was also used as a means to access the sample. As outlined in the previous chapter the

data were drawn from seven provinces in which the programme was operating in these two years. However, due to the uneven data returns achieved the data are based on what was available from the seven provinces, as opposed to being representative of all schools in which the programme was being implemented.

6.2. Comparison within and across data

Due to the wide array of data and the different types of triangulation methods used in this study, it was possible to conceptualise the data as consisting of a number of different cells which were then used as basis for comparison both within and across data.

6.2.1. Combination of data

6.2.1.1 Teacher's and principals' questionnaires

In both 2001 and 2003, the frequency of themes for the teachers and principals/HODs identified in the questionnaires in relation to both research questions was similar, as shown in Table 10 below. These frequencies were tested using Chi-square analysis. No statistically significant differences were found between the frequencies of responses given by teachers and principals/HODs in either 2001 or 2003 for either research question one (educational development cluster) or research question two (empowerment cluster), as shown in Table 11. On this basis, the phrases that arose from the teachers and principals were combined and analysed further as one unit.

Table 10:

Frequency of themes/categories coded in the questionnaire data for teachers and principals/HODs

Theme / Category	**2001 Teachers**	**2001 Principals/HODs**	**2003 Teachers**	**2003 Principals/HODs**
Category/theme relevant to the educational development cluster				
Equal access to quality education	87	30	12	9
Improvement of education quality	191	34	35	19
Material provision	73	28	117	22
Opportunities	1	4	19	2
Skills development	197	30	514	66
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	40	20	239	28
Unexpected outcomes	15	13	23	4
Working in unison	53	9	19	3
Category/theme relevant to the empowerment cluster				
Abilities	141	7	276	20
Action (proactive approach to life)	4	0	1	0
External factors	26	9	77	8
Independence	34	13	84	13
Multiuse of OLSET resources	9	0	118	0
Opportunities	1	4	19	2
Participation	48	8	72	16
Participation in the community	5	0	0	0
Power sharing	22	7	6	2
Skills development	197	30	514	66
Working in unison	53	9	19	3

Table 11:

Chi-square statistics for the questionnaires

	X^2	*df*	*p*-value
2001 teachers and principals relevant to research question one	63.00	56	0.24
2003 teachers and principals relevant to research question one	63.00	56	0.24
2001 teachers and principals relevant to research question two	66.00	60	0.28
2003 teachers and principals relevant to research question two	68.75	63	0.30

6.2.1.2 Personal accounts

As with the questionnaires, in both 2001 and 2003, the frequency of themes for the teachers, principals/HODs and OLSET coordinators identified in the personal accounts in relation to both research questions was similar, as shown in Table 12 overleaf. These frequencies were also tested using Chi-square analysis. No statistically significant differences were found between the frequencies of responses given by teachers, principals/HODs or coordinators in either 2001 or 2003 for either research question one (educational development cluster) or research question two (empowerment cluster), as shown in Table 13. On this basis, the phrases that arose from the teachers, principals and coordinators were combined and analysed further as one unit.

Table 12:

Frequency of themes/categories coded in the personal accounts data for teachers, principals/HODs and OLSET coordinators

Theme / Category	**2001 Teachers**	**2001 Principals/ HODs**	**2001 Coordinators**	**2003 Teachers**	**2003 Principals/ HODs**	**2003 Coordinators**
Category/theme relevant to the educational development cluster						
Equal access to quality education	8	9	4	7	3	1
Improvement of education quality	18	12	10	9	7	0
Material provision	15	12	7	26	11	1
Opportunities	2	3	0	4	2	0
Skills development	56	42	10	55	18	4
Teacher support &teacher support group provision	11	7	31	17	13	30
Unexpected outcomes	2	4	0	7	3	0
Working in unison	4	4	7	20	2	7
Category/theme relevant to the empowerment cluster						
Abilities	58	16	1	19	5	1
Action (proactive approach to life)	2	3	1	8	5	0
External factors	12	8	8	58	10	4
Independence	8	4	0	26	8	0
Multiuse of OLSET resources	0	0	0	0	0	0
Opportunities	2	3	0	4	2	0

Participation	10	12	0	2	2	0
Participation in the community	0	1	0	0	0	0
Power sharing	2	2	3	7	2	1
Skills development	56	42	10	55	18	4
Working in unison	4	4	7	20	2	7

Table 13:

Chi-square statistics for the personal accounts

	X^2	*df*	***p*-value**
2001 teachers and principals relevant to research question one	47.25	42	0.27
2001 teachers and coordinators relevant to research question one	45.00	35	0.12
2001 principals and coordinators relevant to research question one	36.00	30	0.21
2003 teachers and principals relevant to research question one	54.00	42	0.10
2003 teachers and coordinators relevant to research question one	39.00	35	0.30
2003 principals and coordinators relevant to research question one	35.25	30	0.23
2001 teachers and principals relevant to research question two	66.00	56	0.17
2001 teachers and coordinators relevant to research question two	42.53	35	0.18
2001 principals and coordinators relevant to research question two	44.55	40	0.29
2003 teachers and principals relevant to research question two	55.00	45	0.15
2003 teachers and coordinators relevant to research question two	33.00	27	0.20
2003 principals and coordinators relevant to research question two	15.13	15	0.44

6.2.2 Comparison of the 2001 and 2003 teachers' and principals' questionnaires

Data from the teachers' and principals' questionnaires obtained in 2001 and 2003 were used to answer the two research questions posed in this study. As explained above, the similarity of themes identified between the principals and the teachers in both years allowed for the data to treated as a single combined set in either year i.e. teachers' and principals' responses were treated as a single data set for 2001 and a single data set for 2003. In 2001, 215 questionnaires were received. In 2003, 325 questionnaires were received. Some of the themes identified, such as opportunities, skills development and working in unison, were relevant to both research questions and, in turn, both category clusters i.e. educational development and empowerment.

6.2.2.1 Research question one: Is the EIA programme achieving its objectives?

It will be recalled from Chapter Five (Figure 9), that a number of outcomes relative to the EIA's objectives were formulated. Short-term outcomes were: equal access to quality education, material provision, opportunities, skills development, teacher support and teacher support group provision, and unexpected outcomes. Medium-term outcomes were: improvement of education quality, unexpected outcomes and working in unison. In the data, the following themes were established relative to these outcomes. From the responses obtained from the 2001 questionnaires it was found that phrases were coded under all eight of the outcomes relevant to educational development. A total of 825 phrases were coded. The largest outcome (skills development) contained 227 phrases, for example, "*improves their* (the learners') *understanding of the language*", which was stated by teacher 26. The smallest outcome, the establishment of teacher support groups, contained only four phrases which were concerned with the fact that these support groups occurred, for example, "*support groups are offered*", as stated by teacher 81.

In the 2003 questionnaires, all eight educational development outcomes also had phrases coded within them. One thousand one hundred and thirty one phrases were coded. Similarly to the 2001 questionnaire data, the largest outcome (skills development) contained 580 phrases, such as a teacher from Msizi Dube Primary, who commented on how "*their* (the learners) *audio and concentration skills are developed in all the learning areas*". The outcome of teacher support and teacher support group provision had only two phrases coded within it, as exemplified in the following quote expressed by a teacher from Ecaleni Primary about the teachers seeing fruitfulness in these meetings *"we meet other teachers discuss and solve problems where clarity is needed"*. Table 14 presents a summary of the number of phrases coded from the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires for each outcome relevant to educational development. Chi-square analysis demonstrated no significant statistical difference between the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires (X^2 = 63.00, df = 56, p = 0.24). Hence, there were no differences in the themes relevant to educational development in the questionnaires across the two years.

Table 14:

Number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to educational development for the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires.

Outcomes	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**
Equal access to quality education	117	21
Improvement of education quality	225	54
Opportunities	5	21
Material provision	101	139
Skills development	227	580
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	60	267
Unexpected outcomes	28	27
Working in unison	62	22
TOTALS:	**825**	**1 131**

6.2.2.2 Research question two: Are the teachers and learners of the EIA programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

It will be recalled from Chapter Five (Figure 10), that a number of outcomes relative to the EIA's implementation were formulated. Short-term outcomes were: abilities, external factors, opportunities, and skills development. Medium-term outcomes were: action, external factors, independence, participation in the community, power sharing and working in unison. In the data, the following themes were established relative to these outcomes. Two outcomes arose directly from the data namely, multiuse of OLSET resources and participation. In the 2001 questionnaires, it was found that phrases were coded under all eleven outcomes that were relevant to empowerment. Six hundred and twenty seven phrases were coded. The largest outcome (skills development) comprised of 227 phrases. This outcome was also relevant to educational development. The action outcome had the fewest number of phrases coded within it, for example, teacher 34 commented on how she would *"prepare teaching aids"*.

In the 2003 questionnaires, ten of the eleven outcomes had phrases coded under them. One thousand eight hundred and eighteen phrases were coded. Similarly to the 2001 questionnaire data, the largest outcome (skills development) contained 580 phrases. No phrases were coded into

the participation in community outcome, as no text was found relevant to this outcome. Table 15 presents a summary of the number of phrases coded from the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires for each outcome relevant to empowerment. Chi-square analysis demonstrated no significant statistical difference between the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires ($X^2 = 99.00$, $df = 90$, $p = 0.24$). Hence, there were no differences in the themes relevant to empowerment in the questionnaires across the two years.

Table 15:

Number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to empowerment for the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires.

Outcomes	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**
Abilities	148	296
Action (proactive approach to life)	4	1
External factors	35	85
Independence	47	91
Multiuse of OLSET resources	9	118
Opportunities	5	21
Participation	56	88
Participation in the community	5	0
Power sharing	29	8
Skills development	227	580
Working in unison	62	22
TOTALS:	**627**	**1 311**

6.2.3 Comparison of the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts

In addition to the questionnaires, personal accounts of the implementation of the EIA programme from teachers, principals/HODs and OLSET coordinators obtained in 2001 and 2003 were also used to answer the two research questions of this study. There were 106 personal accounts received in 2001. In 2003, 96 personal accounts were received. Again the outcomes of opportunities, skills development and working in unison were relevant to both research questions and, in turn, both to educational development and empowerment.

6.2.3.1. Research question one: Is the EIA programme achieving its objectives?

A total of 278 phrases were coded for all eight educational development outcomes in the 2001 personal accounts. As in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires, the outcome with the most coded phrases was skills development with 108 phrases. The types of phrases coded are exemplified by a statement expressed by the teachers of Bathabile Farm School "*develops diverse kinds of skills"*. The outcome of opportunities contained only five phrases. A typical example of a phrase coded under this outcome was provided by HOD 12, "*learners are also given opportunities to discover things for themselves"*.

In the 2003 personal accounts, 253 phrases in total were coded for the eight educational development outcomes. Skills development was again the outcome with the most phrases. The teachers expressed how much improvement had occurred, for example, a teacher from Gcotsheni Primary School stated, *"communication is much better"*. As seen in the 2001 personal accounts, the opportunities outcome contained the least number of phrases. A teacher from Enzondwane Primary School expressed how OLSET "*provid*(es) *educators with opportunities to develop and improve their teaching skills"*. Table 16 presents a summary of the number of phrases coded from the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts for each outcome relevant to educational development. These outcomes are in line with the model of the outcomes relevant to research question one, as shown in Figure 9. Chi-square analysis demonstrated no significant statistical difference between the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts ($X^2 = 63.00$, $df = 56$, $p = 0.24$). Hence, there were no significant differences in the outcomes relevant to educational development in the personal accounts across the two years.

Table 16:

Number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to educational development for the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts.

Outcomes	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**
Equal access to quality education	21	11
Improvement of education quality	40	16
Material provision	34	44
Opportunities	5	6
Skills development	108	77
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	49	60
Unexpected outcomes	6	10
Working in unison	15	29
TOTALS:	**278**	**253**

6.2.3.2. Research question two: Are the teachers and learners of the EIA programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

Two hundred and seventy nine phrases were coded for ten of the eleven empowerment outcomes in the 2001 personal accounts. As was found in the previous data forms, the outcome with the most coded phrases was skills development with 108 phrases. The outcome of multiuse of OLSET resources had no phrases coded within it.

In the 2003 personal accounts, 270 phrases in total were coded for nine empowerment outcomes of the eleven. Skills development was again the outcome with the most phrases. The outcome of multiuse of OLSET resources and participation in the community had no phrases coded within them. Table 17 presents a summary of the number of phrases coded from the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts for each outcome relevant to empowerment. These outcomes are in line with the model of the outcomes relevant to research question two, as shown in Figure 10. Chi-square analysis demonstrated no significant statistical difference between the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts ($X^2 = 99.00$, $df = 90$, $p = 0.24$). Hence, there were no differences in the themes relevant to empowerment in the personal accounts across the two years.

Table 17:

Number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to empowerment for the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts.

Theme / Category	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**
Abilities	75	25
Action (proactive approach to life)	6	13
External factors	28	72
Independence	12	34
Multiuse of OLSET resources	0	0
Opportunities	5	6
Participation	22	4
Participation in the community	1	0
Power sharing	7	10
Skills development	108	77
Working in unison	15	29
TOTALS:	**279**	**270**

6.2.4. Comparison of the 2001 and 2003 questionnaire and personal account data

A comparison of the data received in 2001 and 2003 was done to obtain a perspective of how the EIA programme was being implemented both when there was abundant funding as in 2003, as well as when there was a lack of funding as in 2001. Furthermore, the personal accounts and questionnaires provided different views and issues relevant to the same outcomes as presented in the previous sections. A comparison of the themes that arose under each outcome for educatinal development and empowerment was thus carried out. This endeavour also provided a means of triangulating comments made by different teachers from different data sources. Similarly, an examination of whether the teachers and/or principals from one school expressed comparable statements in the different data sources mentioned above was performed.

6.2.4.1. Research question one: Is the EIA programme achieving its objectives?

Firstly, a comparison of the number of phrases coded in each outcome relative to educational development for each data set (i.e. 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts) was done. As presented in Table 18, the number of phrases across the four different data sets appeared to be very similar, with skills development

consistently being the outcome with the most number of phrases coded within it. The establishment of teacher support groups was consistently the outcome with the fewest number of coded phrases. No significant statistical differences were found between the 2003 and 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts for research question one, as shown in Table 19. Hence, there were no differences in the outcomes in the various data in 2001 and 2003 relevant to research question one (educational development).

Table 18:

Comparison of the number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to educational development for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

Outcomes	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**	**TOTALS**
Equal access to quality education	117	21	21	11	170
Improvement of education quality	225	54	40	16	335
Material provision	101	139	34	44	318
Opportunities	5	21	5	6	37
Skills development	227	580	108	77	992
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	60	267	49	60	436
Unexpected outcomes	28	27	6	10	71
Working in unison	62	22	15	29	128
TOTALS:	**825**	**1 131**	**278**	**253**	**2 487**

Table 19:

Chi-square statistics relevant to educational development for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

	X^2	*df*	*p*-value
2001 questionnaires and 2001 personal accounts	72.00	64	0.23
2001 questionnaires and 2003 personal accounts	63.00	56	0.24
2003 questionnaires and 2001 personal accounts	63.00	56	0.24
2003 questionnaires and 2003 personal accounts	56.25	49	0.22

Teachers and/or principals from the same school made similar statements within the same outcome in different sources. Table 20 presents the similar phrases stated in the different data sources by the same teachers and/or principals from the same school.

Table 20:

Similar phrases stated by the same teachers/principals from the same school relevant to educational development for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

Region	**School name**	**Theme / Category**	**Phrase coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Phrase coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**	**Phrase coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Phrase coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**
Eastern Cape	Masakhe	Improvement of education quality	*"in line with OBE"*– principal		*"it also shapes the teacher in the OBE"* – principal	
		Skills development	*"develop their communication skills"* - teacher		*"communi cation has improved"* - teacher	
	Qwalasela	Equal access to quality education	*"it makes children familiar with both urban and rural areas"* - teacher		*"the children learn about concepts that are not found in their setting"* - teacher	

Gauteng	Bathabile	Skills development	*" the listening skills of the foundation phase learners have been greatly improved and developed"* - teacher	*"it has aided in developing the learners listening skills"* - teacher		*"it develops learners listening skills"* - teacher
	Monaghan	Improvement of education quality	*"integrates many learning areas"* - teacher		*"the programme covers the three essential learning areas; numeracy, literacy and life skills"* - teacher	
	Masahkane-Tswelopole	Skills development	*"the learner's articulation of words has improved"* - teacher			*"it increases vocabulary"*- teacher
	Rabasotho	Teacher support & teacher support group provision		*"take us as educators to more workshops"* - teacher		*"the support is so helpful, but we would like to get more support"* - teacher
		Skills development		*"helps the learners to speak English well"* - teacher		*"the learners can understand English much better than they used to"* - teacher
Kwa-Zulu (Braemar)	Ifafa	Opportunities	*"opportunities for the learners & educators to communicate with each other in practical ways"* – principal		*"opportunity to communicate in a practical way"* – principal	
	KwaMaquza	Material provision	*"the radios and tapes are of poor quality"* - teacher		*"if possible may we be supplied with better quality radios"* - teacher	

	Shayamoya	Material provision	*"I have no workbooks"* - teacher		*"we don't receive the appropriate material on time"* - teacher	
		Skills development	*"it helps both learners and educators to improve their standards of English"* – principal		*"English has improved"* – principal	*"they understand English better"* – principal
Kwa-Zulu (Durban)	Phumzuzulu	Skills development		*"it has improved the learners listening skills"* - teacher		*"their listening skills are developed"* - teacher
Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	Enqoleni	Equal access to quality education	*"the activities are easy to follow yet meaningful"* - teacher		*"OLSET's English is simple, understand-able and pleasant to use"* - teacher	
Kwa-Zulu (Nongoma)	Enzondwane	Skills development		*"the OLSET programme helps improve the learners listening, imagination and observation skills"* – teacher		*"it promotes the listening skills"* - teacher
Kwa-Zulu (Port Shepstone)	Mdlazi	Material provision	*"the poor quality of the radios"* - teacher		*"the radio didn't work"* - teacher	
		Skills development	*"learners are being motivated"* - teacher		*"motivate the learners"* - teacher	

6.2.4.2. Research question two: Are the teachers and learners of the EIA programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

A comparison of the number of phrases coded in each outcome for each data set for empowerment (i.e. 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts) was also carried out. The numbers of phrases across the four different data sets were very similar with skills development again being the outcome with the most number of

phrases coded within it, as shown in Table 21. Participation in the community was the outcome with the fewest number of coded phrases. No significant statistical differences were found between the 2003 and 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts for research question two either, as shown in Table 22. Hence, there were no differences in the outcomes in the various data in 2001 and 2003 relevant to research question two (empowerment).

Table 21:

Comparison of the number of phrases coded for each outcome relevant to empowerment for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

Outcomes	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Number of phrases coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**	**TOTALS**
Abilities	148	296	75	25	544
Action (proactive approach to life)	4	1	6	13	24
External factors	35	85	28	72	220
Independence	47	91	12	34	184
Multiuse of OLSET resources	9	118	0	0	127
Opportunities	5	21	5	6	37
Participation	56	88	22	4	170
Participation in the community	5	0	1	0	6
Power sharing	29	8	7	10	54
Skills development	227	580	108	77	992
Working in unison	62	22	15	29	128
TOTALS:	**627**	**1 310**	**279**	**270**	**2 486**

Table 22:

Chi-square statistics relevant to empowerment for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts

	X^2	*df*	*p*-value
2001 questionnaires and 2001 personal accounts	99.00	90	0.24
2001 questionnaires and 2003 personal accounts	90.75	81	0.22
2003 questionnaires and 2001 personal accounts	110.00	100	0.23
2003 questionnaires and 2003 personal accounts	99.00	90	0.24

Similar statements within the same outcome in different sources were expressed by the same teachers and/or principals from the same school in relation to empowerment as well. Table 23 presents the similar phrases stated in the different data sources by the same teachers and/or principals from the same school.

Table 23:

Similar phrases stated by the same teachers/principals from the same school relevant to empowerment for the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts and the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

Region	**School name**	**Theme / Category**	**Phrase coded in the 2001 Questionnaires**	**Phrase coded in the 2003 Questionnaires**	**Phrase coded in the 2001 Personal accounts**	**Phrase coded in the 2003 Personal accounts**
Eastern Cape	Qwalasela	Abilities	*"learners are able to follow stories told in English"* - teacher		*"able to understand English"* – teacher	
Free State	St. Peter Claver	Independence	*"we will need all the proper materials in order to continue"* - teacher		*"sometimes do not have apparatus the radio requests"* – teacher	
Gauteng	Monaghan	Power sharing	*"it involves the learners and the educator"* - teacher	*"it involves everybody including the teacher"* - teacher		

	Reagile	Participation		*"learners participate actively during the radio lessons"* - teacher		*"all pupils co-operate well, actively involved"* - teacher
Kwa-Zulu (Hlabisa)	Enqoleni	Abilities	*"children speak fluent English"* - teacher		*"all children understand English well"*- teacher	
	Ingaqa	Participation	*"actively participate in the lesson by dancing and listening actively"*- teacher		*"laughing and participating"* – teacher	
	Somkhele	Power sharing	*"learners share questions and responses"* - teacher		*"learners are allowed to discuss in groups"* – teacher	

Having established the similarity of outcomes and frequency of outcomes across respondents (teachers and principals/HODs), time (2001 and 2003) as well as data sources (questionnaires and personal accounts), it was possible to examine the data set as a whole in relation to each specific research question.

6.3. Research question one: Is the EIA programme achieving its objectives?

Miles and Huberman (1984; 1994) proposed a method to enhance and confirm understanding, which was first used in this study. This was done by considering themes that arose within each outcome and the underlying meanings or latent content of these in terms of their negative, positive or contradictory outlook i.e. direction, as shown overleaf in Table 24.

Having established whether the themes utilised in the analysis were positive or negative specific in vivo codes were then identified as they related to the different research questions guiding the evaluation. The codes were then related back to specific comments made by respondents as they related to each research question.

Table 24:

Themes relating to short- and medium-term outcomes relative to the EIA programme objectives.

Outcomes	**Themes**	**2001 question-naires**	**2003 question-naires**	**2001 personal accounts**	**2003 personal accounts**
Short-term outcomes					
Equal access to quality education	EIA programme provides a series that caters for all learning areas	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	EIA is easy to use by all	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	EIA provides lessons on urban and rural situations		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	EIA provides exposure to aspects that educators are not familiar with		X (+)	X (+)	
	EIA is provided to all	X (?)	X (?)		
	EIA helps with the correct pronunciation of English	X (+)		X (+)	X (+)
	EIA is reaching those outside the classroom in the community	X (+)	X (+)		
	EIA allows for communication to occur	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Material provision	Relevant materials are provided	X (?)	X (?)	X (+)	X (+)
	Timeously delivery of materials	X (-)	X (-)		X (-)
	EIA resource's quality	X (-)	X (-)		X (-)
Opportunities	EIA provides learning opportunities	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	EIA provides teacher with own role		X (+)		
	EIA provides opportunities for teacher training		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	EIA provides opportunities for communication		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Skills development	Learners skills and abilities improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Teachers skills and abilities improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Learners and teachers English have improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Motivation improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Apply OLSET methodology to other areas	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Communication skills have improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Self-confidence of learners and teachers improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Teacher support & teacher support group provision	Support is given	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Frequency of support		X (?)	X (?)	X (?)
	Workshops are useful	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Opinion of the coordinators	X (+)	X (+)		
	Knowledge gained		X (+)		
	Classroom visits	X (-)	X (-)		
	Motivation provided		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Frequency of TSG's			X (-)	X (-)
	Value of TSG's	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)

Medium-term outcomes					
Improvement of education quality	Skills of educators and learners have developed	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Standards of education have been boosted	X (+)	X (+)		
	Classroom relationships have improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Educators have gained more confidence in their roles		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	EIA eases English second language teaching	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	EIA motivates educators	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	New knowledge is gained	X (+)	X (+)		
	Teaching methods have improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Application to OBE (national curriculum)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	Abilities of teachers have improved	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Educational movement across different levels			X (+)	
Working in unison	Learners work with each other thereby learn new skills	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Parents more involved			X (+)	X (+)
	Collaboration of OLSET with external stakeholders			X (+)	X (+)
	Radio teacher and educator work together	X (+)		X (+)	
	EIA promotes communication	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	
	Teachers and learners assist each other	X (+)			X (+)
	Educators now working in teams			X (+)	X (+)
	Schools working with communities to improve resources			X (+)	X (+)
Short- and medium-term outcomes					
Unexpected outcomes	Improvement in the rate of attendance	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	SABC factors e.g. advertisements, broadcast	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
	Recognition of EIA as a necessity in the curriculum		X (+)		X (+)

Key:
X (+) = Theme was present with a positive connotation
X (-) = Theme was present with a negative connotation
X (?) = Theme was present with contradictory connotations i.e. both positive and negative meanings

These themes are discussed in detail in the subsections following.

6.3.1. Short-term outcomes

6.3.1.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of equal access to quality education

As shown in Table 24, eight themes arose overall in the 'equal access to quality education' outcome. Salient points and themes raised were that the EIA programme caters for all learning areas, it is easy to be used by all, it provides urban and rural lesson contexts, it provides exposure to teaching aspects that educators are not familiar with, it is provided to all, it helps correct English pronunciation, it reaches the community outside the classroom and it allows for communication to occur. All of these themes had only positive underlying meanings except for the theme that the programme is provided to all, which had both positive and negative meanings attached to it within the same data. Some participants stated that the programme was provided to all while others stated that it was not, as exemplified by the principal 42 in the 2003 questionnaires *"farm schools are left out in many instances"*.

Not all the themes raised were present in all four data sets, therefore limiting interpretation of year-based trends within the data. Different issues arose as important in the different data sets, with only the themes that the programme caters for all learning areas and that it allows communication to occur expressed by participants in all four data sets. The change in the programme to include the national curriculum was seen as important by the teachers using the EIA programme in relation to these themes. Examples of quotes from all four data sets were; *"it links with other learning areas"*- teacher 31 in the 2001 questionnaires, *"OLSET provides series on literacy, numeracy and life skills that integrate skills, knowledge and values that access various learning areas"*- principal 11 in the 2003 questionnaires, *"educators have positive attitudes towards OLSET since it is a language programme in line with the OBE style"* – principal 5 in the 2001 personal accounts, and *"OLSET's radio learning programme is one of the resource tools that compliment and enhance the delivery of OBE"* – teachers from Reagile Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts. Furthermore, avenues for communication created through using the programme were also seen as important, such as *"it is of great assistance to the class teacher especially where pupils have a communication problem"* – principal 7 in the 2003 questionnaires.

6.3.1.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of material provision

The overall meaning attached to the three themes that were found relative to 'materials provision' outcome were negative or contradictory. In the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts, all participants said that relevant support material was provided, however, in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires some of the participants said that they were not provided with relevant materials while others said that they were. For example, in the 2001 questionnaires principal 4 said that *"no workbooks were provided"* and principal 6 said that *"no visual aids were provided"*, and in the 2003 questionnaires a teacher from Mt. Sheba Junior School stated that she *"did not have the teachers' guide"*. Hence, the questions in the questionnaires appeared to prompt missing support materials as an important theme.

In all data sets except the 2001 personal accounts, the participants reported that the materials were not being delivered timeously, for example, teacher E8 in the 2003 questionnaires said, *"this programme can be improved when the material can be delivered at the beginning of the year"*. Similarly, the quality of the materials, especially the radios, was criticised. For example a teacher from Ekubusisweni Primary in the 2003 questionnaires said *"send better radios in quality"*.

6.3.1.3. Themes relevant to the outcome of opportunities

Themes such as the EIA programme provides learning opportunities, provides the teacher with her/his own role, provides opportunities for teacher training and provides opportunities for communication arose under the 'opportunities' outcome. No themes appeared in all four data sets and all themes were expressed in positive terms by the participants. Examples of quotes under the 'provides learning opportunities' theme were; *"provides opportunities to speak English"* – principal 13 in the 2001 questionnaires, *"the learners are provided with the opportunity to take part and to be involved during the lesson"* – teacher KD4 in the 2003 questionnaires, and *"provides creative opportunities for developing visual literacy"*- teacher from Reseamohetse School in the 2001 personal accounts. The provision of the teachers' role was expressed only in the 2003 questionnaires, for example, *"it gives a teacher an opportunity to explain to learners what has been said"* which was expressed by teacher KPS10.

6.3.1.4. Themes relevant to the outcome of skills development

All seven themes which arose under the 'skills development' outcome, as presented in Table 24, arose in all the data sets with only positive meanings. For example, the improved skill of reading and writing of the learners was expressed in the following manner in all four data sets. In the 2001 personal accounts, principal 19 said *"sentence making are really enhanced though fun"*, in the 2003 personal accounts and 2001 questionnaires the respondents commented "*they have well developed writing skills*" and in the 2003 questionnaires a teacher from Thuthukanim Mabhele Junior Primary stated that EIA "*promote*(s) *language development"*. Skills development was the outcome that occurred the most frequently all data sets.

6.3.1.5. Themes relevant to the outcome of teacher support and teacher support group provision

Under this outcome, nine themes arose. All participants in all the data sets agreed that support was being provided to teachers and that the workshops organised were useful. There was, however, disagreement among the respondents of the 2003 questionnaires and the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts about the frequency of this support. For example, in the 2003 questionnaires a teacher from Nokhwezi Primary School commented that she needed *"more teacher development workshops, as I am not confident of what I have gained this year"*. Furthermore, in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts the participants were adamant that there were too few classroom visits. All the other themes that arose were positively stated though. Such as the usefulness of the workshops, the knowledge gained, the motivation provided, the good opinions of the EIA coordinators and that support is provided by OLSET.

The value of the teacher support groups was recognised by all participants in all four data sets. For example, in the 2003 personal accounts a coordinator indicated that in these meetings *"teachers identify problems and share experiences on how to deal with overcrowded classes and hyperactive learners"*. However, the frequency at which these support groups occur was not regarded as sufficient by the participants in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts. The participants commented that they wanted more teacher support groups to take place

6.3.2. Medium-term outcomes

6.3.2.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of improvement of education quality

Eleven themes were raised in relation to the 'improvement of education quality' outcome, as shown in Table 24. In this case, all the themes had only positive underlying meanings as expressed by the participants and no year-based trends were evident. Only the themes that the skills of the educators and learners had improved, that classroom relationships had improved, the teaching methods had improved and that the abilities of the teachers had improved were present in all four data sets. These themes were thus viewed as important by all the participants. Examples of expressed quotes of the 'improved teaching methods' in all four data sets were; *"educators are able to plan and mange time well"* – principal 8 in the 2001 questionnaires, *"the OLSET programme shows me how to plan a lesson, I know how to do integration in learning areas"* – teacher E29 in the 2003 questionnaires, *"it provokes their critical thinking when planning and preparing a lesson"* – principal 8 in the 2001 personal accounts, and "*it helps me prepare for my lessons in a better way"*- teacher from Bathabile primary school in the 2003 personal accounts.

6.3.2.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of working in unison

Within the 'working in unison' outcome, eight themes arose which were all positively expressed. The theme that learners work with each other thereby learning new skills was expressed in all four data sets. For example; teacher 60 in the 2001 questionnaires commented that *"learners work cooperatively"*, in the 2003 questionnaires teacher KD12 stated *"they learn to help each other",* in the 2001 personal accounts principal 7 commented that the learners *"learn to share and cooperate with each other"*; and in the 2003 personal accounts a teacher from Khayalemfundo JP School commented *"they are actively involved in group activities"*. The other themes raised (as presented in Table 24) were not found in all four data sets, with no time trends evident, which suggests that different themes were important in different data sets. These included more parental involvement, collaboration of OLSET with external stakeholders, radio teacher and educator work together for example "*there is mutualism between the radio lesson and the educator*" which was stated by a teacher from Ithongasi Primary School in the 2001 questionnaires, EIA promotes communication, teachers and learners assist each other, educators are now working in teams and schools are working with communities to improve resources

6.3.3. Themes relevant to the short- and medium-term outcome of unexpected outcomes

Under the 'unexpected outcomes' outcome, three themes arose. Firstly, in the positive sense, the attendance rates of the learners had increased, as expressed in all four data sets. From a more negative perspective, the disruption that advertisements and repeat broadcasts had on the implementation of the EIA lessons was expressed by all participants in all the data sets. For example, in the 2003 personal accounts a teacher stated *"sometimes the programmes on the radio go back to lessons they already have done, it is confusing because we don't know where we are"*. The third theme raised was a more positive one though. In the 2003 datasets, there was recognition by the participants that the EIA lessons were a vital part of the curriculum. For example, a teacher from Monaghan Primary School in the 2003 narrative commented that she *"would also like the Department of Education to officially recognise the programme. Hence making the OLSET programme a normal part of classroom work rather than just being supplementary..."*

6.3.4. Summary and evaluation

Overall, themes relevant to all short- and medium-term outcomes relative to the EIA programme's objectives were found in the data. This can be represented diagrammatically as follows;

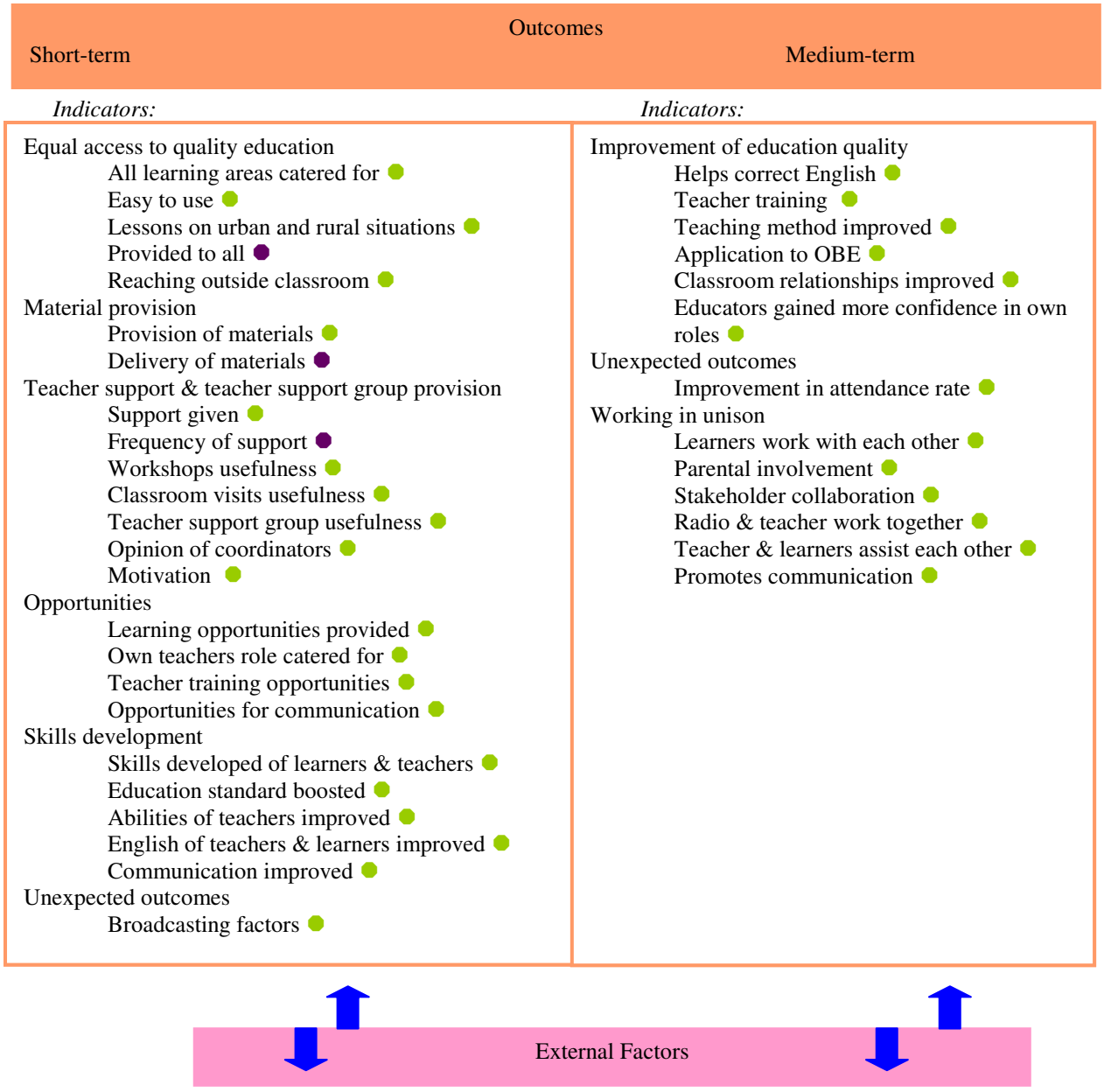


Figure 20: Outcomes relevant to research question one present in the data.

.

It was also evident from the analysis that the majority of comments made by the teachers and principals were positive, indicating that:

a) The programme was perceived by participating teachers and principals as meeting its objectives, in terms of tangible indicators of specific short- and medium-term outcomes.

b) The programme was positively received, suggesting a high level of advocacy. This was the case both in 2001, when resources were still being distributed to many schools as well as in 2003 when resources to schools had been distributed.

6.4. Research question two: Are the teachers and learners of the EIA programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

Miles and Huberman's (1984, 1994) method to enhance and confirm understanding was first used to consider the themes that arose relative to the empowerment outcomes and the positive or negative valences of the comments made. Themes relevant to the eight outcomes are presented in Table 25 below.

Table 25:

Themes relating to short- and medium-term outcomes relative to the empowerment of EIA programme's beneficiaries.

Outcomes	**Themes**	**2001 question-naires**	**2003 question-naires**	**2001 personal accounts**	**2003 personal accounts**
Short-term outcomes					
Abilities	Teacher competence			X (+)	X (+)
	Learners new competence	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	English competence improvement	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Different learners' abilities catered for			X (+)	
	Teachers and learners motivated	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Can communicate	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Socialisation abilities due to EIA		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Medium-term outcomes					
Action (proactive approach to life)	Mobilisation of resources	X(+)		X (+)	X (+)
	Community involvement		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)

Independence	Dependent on OLSET to design curriculum	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	
	Lack of OLSET resources	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
	Dependent on OLSET to provide all resources	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
Participation in the community	As a result of OLSET have a role in the community	X (+)		X (+)	
Power sharing	Teachers and learners share power	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Teachers feel empowered		X (+)	X (+)	
	TSG allows sharing				X (+)
	Educators now working in teams				X (+)
	Communication between teacher and learners happening	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Short-term and medium-term outcomes					
External factors	Exert control over own environment		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Critical awareness of causal agents	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Awareness of external environment	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Mobilisation and use of resources	X (?)	X (+)	X (+)	X (-)
	Teacher's admission that were poorly trained		X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Appreciation of OLSET resources	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
	Quality of OLSET radios	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
Outcomes that arose from the data					
Multiuse of OLSET resources	Use of OLSET in other areas	X (+)	X (+)		
	Use of available resources		X (+)		
Participation	Learners and teachers participate actively in EIA	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)

Key:
X (+) = Theme was present with a positive connotation
X (-) = Theme was present with a negative connotation
X (?) = Theme was present with contradictory connotations i.e. both positive and negative meanings

6.4.1. Themes relevant to the short-term outcome of abilities

All seven themes that arose under the 'abilities' outcomes were positively expressed by the participants. The learners' new competence, the improvement in English competency, the increased motivation of the learners and teachers and the ability to communicate were expressed in all four data sets. Examples of statements expressed in relation to the ability to communicate were: in the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 19 said that *"they can express themselves and communicate"*, teacher KH2 stated *"they express themselves fluently"* in the 2003 questionnaires, principal 15 in the 2001 personal accounts commented *"the programme enables learners to communicate easily"*, and HOD 3 in the 2003 personal accounts stated that *"even the*

shyest child is now able to express him/herself". The increase in socialisation abilities due to the EIA programme was expressed in all the data sets except the 2001 questionnaires. The participants in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts also discussed how the teachers' competence had improved. Only in the 2001 personal accounts did the participants highlight that the EIA lessons catered for different learners' abilities, for example, a teacher from Mzimlophe Primary School stated *"OLSET accommodates all groups of learners as they have different abilities"*.

6.4.2. Medium-term outcomes

6.4.2.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of action

In the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts as well as the 2001 questionnaires, the participants expressed positively how they were able to mobilise resources. For example, in the 2001 questionnaires teacher 37 said that she "*find*(s) *material for reading and written work*". Furthermore, as expressed in 2001 and 2003 personal accounts and the 2001 questionnaires, there was community involvement in the educational process. An extended and highly vivid example of this was provided by principal 17; *"at the end of 2001 our school was selected by the Regional Department of Education to be one of the Multi Media Education Resource Centres. The primary aim of the Multi Media Education Resource Centre is to empower educators, community members and learners on various skills for example computer skills, life skills and Outcomes Based Education computer programmes."*

6.4.2.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of independence

The three themes that arose under the outcome of 'independence' were all expressed negatively by the participants. Themes of the dependence of the teachers on OLSET to design a curriculum arose in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires as well as the 2001 personal accounts. For example in the 2001 personal accounts, a teacher from Mhlabulungile LP School stated *"every educator should get a radio so that we won't have to wait for other educators to finish before we can start with our work"*. The dependence of the participants on OLSET to provide all resources was evident in all four data sets. For example, a teacher from Magugu Primary School stated *"they must provide us with audio visual aids so that learners will see what they are taught"*. Lastly, in all data sets participants expressed that they were not provided with enough OLSET resources.

6.4.2.3. Themes relevant to the outcome of participation in the community

In the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts, the participants recognised that they had a role in the community because of using the EIA programme. In the 2001 personal accounts this was expressed by principal 1 in the following manner, *"being with OLSET signifies that we have a participative role in the community"*. In the 2001 questionnaires teacher 3 expressed how the learners *"can communicate with other learners from other schools with no problem"*.

6.4.2.4. Themes relevant to the outcome of power sharing

In the last distinct outcome relevant to 'power sharing', five themes arose. The sharing of power between the teachers and learners during the EIA lessons and the communication that was occurring was expressed positively by participants in all four data sets. For example, in the 2003 questionnaires a teacher from Sizwakele Junior Primary School commented, *"OLSET helps the children to communicate with each other and their teacher in a meaningful way"*. The teachers commented that they felt empowered in the 2003 questionnaires and the 2001 personal accounts as well, for example, a teacher from Joe Solomon Primary School stated "*providing high quality teaching and learning materials, which empower both pupils and teachers"*. Only in the 2003 personal accounts did the participants report that the teacher support groups allowed for sharing and that educators were working in teams.

6.4.3. Themes relevant to the short- and medium-term outcome of external factors

As presented in Table 25, seven themes arose under the external factors outcome. A central theme in this outcome was expressed by a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts *"teachers and learners are highly motivated and use limited resources effectively"*. All responses had positive meanings except in the 2001 questionnaires, where the theme of mobilisation and use of OLSET resources was not always positively expressed. Two principals stated that the radio and audiotapes were easily stolen yet they did not express views on how they could attempt to rectify this problem. Similarly, in the 2003 personal accounts, a teacher from Imizikayifani Primary School said, *"we only received two radios and now one is out of order so we find it difficult for five classes with a total of 300 learners in Grade two to have only one radio to use"*. The quality

of the radios was criticised in all the data sets as the new radios that OLSET provided did not work from the onset.

6.4.4. Outcomes that arose from the data

6.4.4.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of multiuse of OLSET resources

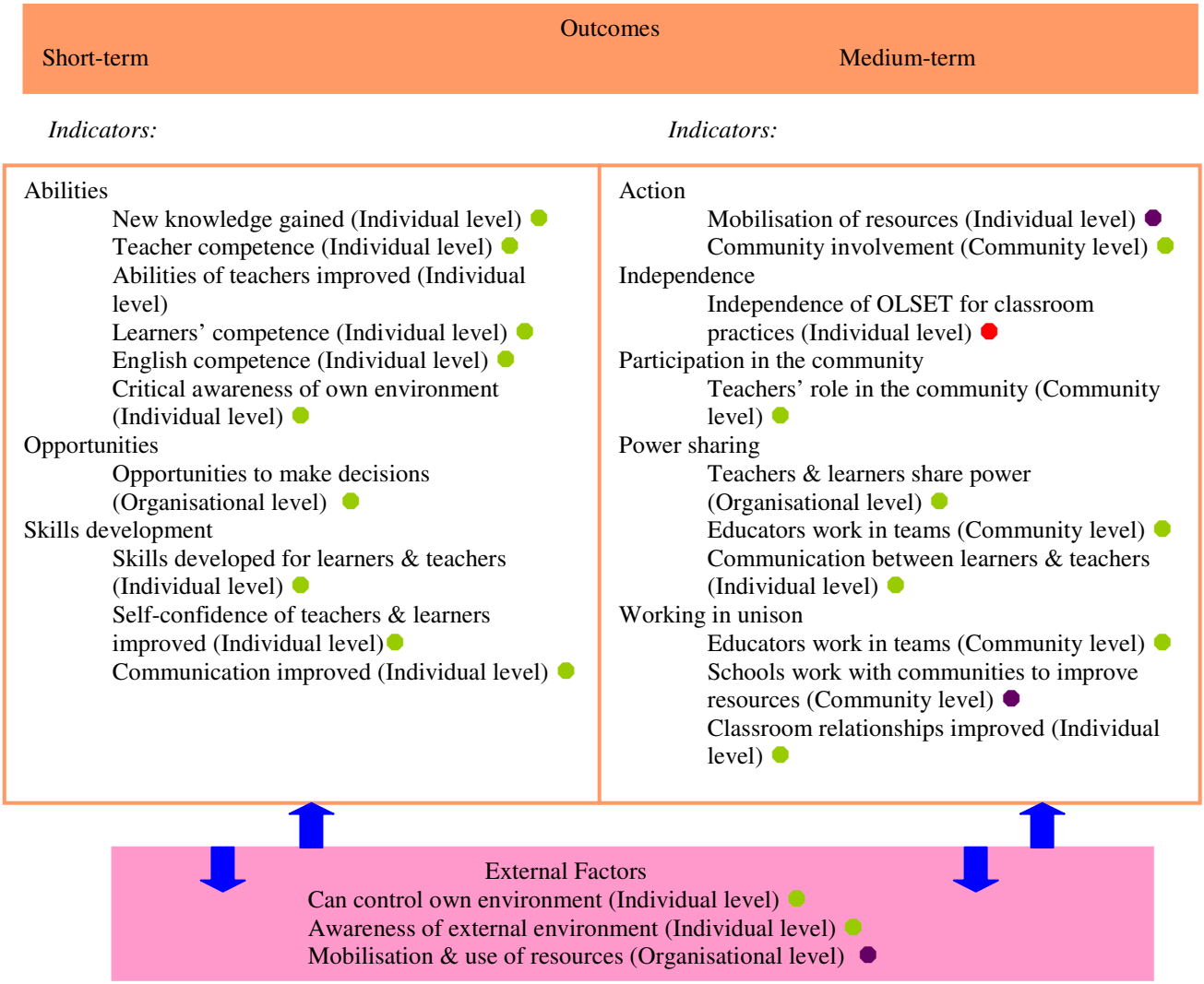
The outcome of 'multiuse of OLSET resources' was only made salient in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires. Hence, the questionnaires appeared to prompt the importance of this theme. In these two data sets, the OLSET resources were being used in other learning areas aside from the area for which they were developed, namely English instruction. For example, a teacher from Welani Primary School stated, *"we use the calendars for calculations"*.

6.4.4.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of participation

In all four data sets, the participants indicated that the teachers and learners were active participants in the EIA lessons. For example, in the 2001 questionnaires, a teacher from Malusi Omuhle stated, "*as educators we were actively involved in the lesson"*. All participants in all the data sets also expressed that learners were actively involved in the radio lessons. For example, teacher E24 in the 2003 questionnaires said, *"it promotes creative participants"*.

6.4.5. Summary and evaluation

Overall, themes relevant to all short-term outcomes relative to the EIA programme's implementation were found in the data. However not all the medium-term outcomes relative to the EIA programme's implementation were found in the data. The medium-term outcome of independence' was not founding the data. Contradictory evidence was also obtained for an indicator of the action outcome, a medium-term outcome, as well as for an indicator of external factors. This can be represented diagrammatically as follows;



Key:
- There is evidence of presence of this theme
- There is no evidence of presence of this theme
- There is contradictory evidence on the presence of this theme

Figure 21: Outcomes/Impacts relevant to research question two present in the data.

It was also evident from the analysis that the majority of comments made by the teachers and principals were positive, indicating that the programme was perceived by most participating teachers and principals as empowering, in terms of tangible indicators of specific short- and medium-term outcomes.

It was thus clear that a common set of themes which were generally similarly reflected across different data forms (questionnaires and personal accounts), time frames (2001 and 2003) and

types of participant (teachers and principals/HODs) were obtained to address the two research questions posed.

6.5. Classroom observations

While the majority of the themes identified in the questionnaires and personal accounts suggest that empowerment was occurring through engagement with the EIA programme, an additional source of data, classroom observations, was also utilised to further investigate the second research question. The observations conducted using the observation schedule were therefore used to determine if more English or mother-tongue was being used by the teachers and learners respectively during the EIA radio programmes. This would, as previously discussed, indicate a mastery of English as a skill which, in turn, would indicate empowerment.

6.5.1. Descriptive statistics of the observation schedule categories

The researcher obtained the descriptive statistics for each pre-set observation category i.e. the ranges, means, medians, modes, standard deviations and skewness for each pre-set category. These calculations are provided in Table 26.

Table 26:

Descriptive statistics of the classroom observations

	N	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	**Mean**	**Median**	**Mode**	**Standard Deviation**	**Skewness**
a1	36.00	0.00	2.00	0.37	0.00	0.00	0.55	1.12
a2	36.00	0.00	1.00	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.36	2.13
a3	36.00	0.00	33.00	19.11	19.00	16.00	7.53	-0.57
a4	36.00	0.00	11.00	6.14	6.00	6.00	3.04	0.27
a5	36.00	0.00	11.00	1.52	1.00	0.00	2.31	2.40
a6	36.00	0.00	8.00	1.46	0.00	0.00	2.16	1.69
a7	36.00	0.00	17.00	5.46	4.00	2.00	4.79	0.87
a8	36.00	0.00	16.00	3.06	1.00	0.00	3.91	1.51
a9	36.00	0.00	17.00	2.51	2.00	0.00	3.56	2.67
a10	36.00	0.00	13.00	5.49	5.00	4.00	3.85	0.68
b1	36.00	0.00	6.00	0.71	0.00	0.00	1,53	2.68
b2	36.00	0.00	8.00	1.91	2.00	0.00	2.05	1.36
b3	36.00	0.00	1.00	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.28	3.09
b4	36.00	0.00	12.00	3.86	3.00	1.00	2.86	0.83
b5	36.00	0.00	9.00	2.09	2.00	0.00	2.49	1.30
b6	36.00	0.00	4.00	1.34	1.00	0.00	1.24	0.58
b7	36.00	0.00	24.00	6.77	5.00	2.00	6.12	1.14
c1	36.00	0.00	15.00	4.34	3.00	1.00	3.99	1.22

c2	36.00	0.00	8.00	2.09	2.00	0.00	2.21	0.95
c3	36.00	0.00	2.00	0.66	1.00	1.00	0.54	-0.08
c4	36.00	0.00	2.00	0.71	1.00	1.00	0.67	0.40

Thirty-six classroom observations were conducted. The number of observation categories chosen was extensive and in many cases, few elements of a particular category were noted. Most of the categories had skewed distributions, as seen in Table 26. In most cases, the distributions were skewed to the left thus demonstrating few observations per category. Due to this, a number of categories had to be collapsed in order to conduct further statistical analyses. In all cases, categories that were alike in terms greeting and non-verbal behaviour were collapsed into one larger category. This situation is often an artefact of observing with pre-set categories i.e. systematic observations (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

6.5.2 Chi-square and contingency analyses; use of English in the classroom

Table 27:

Chi-square statistics of the classroom observations

	X^2	*df*	*p*-value
a1 + a2 + c3 + c4	33.85	35	0.39
a3	116.04	35	< .0001
a4	51.19	35	0.03
a5 + a7	133.43	35	< .0001
a6 + a8	194.83	35	< .0001
a9	152.49	35	< .0001
a10	91.49	35	< .0001
b1 + b2 + b3	84.55	35	< .0001
b4 + b5	94.45	35	< .0001
b6 + b7	158.28	35	< .0001
c1 + c2	161.52	35	< .0001

$N = 36$

Chi-square analyses were used to explore differences in the categorical or nominal data obtained from the observations, in other words, to determine if the teachers differed from each other in terms of the observed mutually exclusive categories (Howell, 1997). Significant differences were found between most categories, which indicated that the teachers differed from each other in terms of these categories.

The educators differed from each other in how involved they were in the radio lessons in relation to listening, singing, the use of English and mother-tongue, the ability of the learners to answer with and without the teachers help, the teachers' recognition of learners, the teachers' facilitation of the lesson, the teachers' discipline of learners, and the level of non-verbal participation during the radio lessons. There were, however, no significant differences between the teachers in the combined category of greeting (a1, a2, c3 and c4) ($X^2 = 33.85$, $df = 35$, $p = .39$), as indicated in Table 27. This suggests that not all the teachers observed in the study differed from each other in the manner that they greeted their learners and were, in fact, greeting them in a similar manner.

Once it was determined that the teachers differed from each other in terms of broad categories of classroom behaviour, contingency table analyses were used to determine if one variable or category was contingent on the other (Howell, 1997). The difference in choice of language, in particular if English was used more than mother-tongue, would indicate that a mastery of English as a skill was achieved which, in turn, would indicate empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000). A contingency analysis was therefore used to determine the difference between English and mother-tongue usage during the OLSET radio lessons, in other words an analysis of the relative differences in the frequencies of use of the two language types was carried out.

Table 28:

Contingency analysis of the classroom observations in terms of the use of English vs. mother tongue

	X^2	*df*	*p*-value
a5 + a7 versus a6 + a8	186.58	35	< .0001

$N = 36$

As reported in Table 28, there was a significant difference between the use of English and mother-tongue in the classroom during the EIA radio lessons ($X^2 = 186.58$, $df = 35$, $p < .0001$). From the raw data, it was evident that English was the language that was used most frequently during the OLSET radio lessons, which suggested that English was being mastered by both teachers and learners and therefore that empowerment was occurring. Furthermore, in these 36 classrooms, it was evident that transitional bilingual education was being used (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). In this model, the educators teach in English and mother-

tongue is used as a bridge to English instruction. This latter finding is tentative, however, as the observations conducted in this study were carried out in a limited sample of Gauteng schools. Future research focusing on this aspect in particular is thus recommended as this may be a trend that is occurring in other classrooms using the EIA programme as well.

6.6. Summary

In addressing the first research question, the largest cluster of themes that arose in both the questionnaire data and the personal accounts in both 2001 and 2003 was 'skills development'. Corroborative statements about skills development were made by the same teacher in different data forms on different occasions and improvement of the skills of educators and learners were reported by both teachers and principals in both 2001 and 2003.

Another common theme across the questionnaires and personal accounts in relation to the first research question was that the EIA programme was providing a series that catered for all learning areas and allowed for communication to occur. Other common themes raised across the data sources included: improvement of classroom relationships, improvement of teaching methods, improvement of abilities of teachers, improvement of learners and teachers English, improvement of motivation, improvement of self-confidence of learners and teachers, the value of TSG's, and improvement in the rate of attendance and learners working with each other thereby learning new skills. Contradictory information, however, was given about the provision of support materials, as well as about the support OLSET offered. A number of teachers commented that support materials were not provided timeously and that the radios were often of poor quality. The teacher support groups (TSGs) were also not offered often, although many teachers commented on their usefulness. The teachers also commented on the usefulness of the workshops and some said that more workshops would be useful. Finally, factors such as advertisements and repetition affected the lessons aversely.

In both the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires, there was one outcome with only four phrases, namely the 'teacher support and teacher support group provision' outcome, while in the personal accounts in both 2001 and 2003, the outcome of 'opportunities' contained only five phrases.

Across the data as a whole, the perspectives of the teachers and principals/HODs regarding the EIA programme were similar in both 2001 and 2003.

For research question two, as in research question one, the largest cluster of themes in the questionnaires and personal accounts in both the 2001 and 2003 data was 'skills development'. Across all the data, comments were made regarding learners' new competence, teachers' and learners' motivation, communication abilities, critical awareness of causal agents, awareness of external environment, appreciation of OLSET resources, and learners' and teachers' active participation in EIA. However in a number of cases the lack of OLSET resources and the poor quality of the radios were commented on.

In the 2001 questionnaires, the outcome 'action' had the fewest number of phrases coded. In the 2003 questionnaires, no phrases were coded under the 'participation in community' outcome. In both the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts, the outcome of 'multiuse of OLSET resources' had no phrases coded within it. Furthermore, in the 2003 personal accounts 'participation in the community' also had no phrases coded. It was also evident that many teachers were dependent on OLSET to provide all resources and to design the curriculum. Contradictory information was provided in both years about the mobilisation and use of resources.

Overall, however, despite certain of the themes containing contradictory and negative views of the EIA programme, the majority of the themes in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts indicated positive views of the programme and that the programme was useful to the teachers. The classroom observations conducted in 2003 supported these findings. The observations indicated that that English was being mastered by both teachers and learners and therefore that empowerment was occurring as English was being used significantly more frequently.

Chapter 7: The effectiveness of the programme

Chapter Six outlined the results obtained in the thematic analysis of the questionnaire and personal accounts data, as well as the classroom observations in relation the outcomes represented in Figures 9 and 10. The ensuing two chapters analyse these results and the empirical findings relating to each of the two research questions in this study in relation to the outcomes as presented in Figure 12. All conclusions are based only on the educator's responses.

Chapter Seven focuses on determining the effectiveness of the EIA programme as set out by its objectives, based on educational development theory, in particular, open learning and distance education (research question one). In terms of the evaluation model outcomes relevant to research question one (see Figure 9) are considered. Links between these and the open learning methodology followed in the programme are drawn.

7.1. Research question one

Is the EIA programme achieving its objectives?

The evidence used to answer this question was drawn from the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts and questionnaires, in relation to the short- and medium-term outcomes relating to educational development. As previously mentioned, some themes that were relevant to the empowerment cluster and thus research question two also arose under this first cluster. This supports the notion that empowerment theory is of value in providing yet another dimension to the operation of educational development in the form of open learning and distance education, in particular, interactive radio instruction. The discussion that follows includes all themes classified under the educational development cluster.

7.1.1. Short-term outcomes

7.1.1.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of equal access to quality education

One of the objectives set out by OLSET (1995; 2007) for the EIA programme is that the programme should offer equal access to quality education through provision of materials and training to enhance both learning in the classroom and curriculum development. Based on the participants' responses in the two groups of personal accounts, as well as within the two groups

of questionnaires, it is suggested that the programme is, in fact, providing a means of catering for curriculum development and learning for all three learning areas that the national curriculum sets out. In the 2001 questionnaires, a teacher reported that the EIA programme is an *"umbrella programme which includes different learning areas"*. The following statement articulated by principal 5 in the 2003 questionnaires provides a further exemplar of the participant's responses on this theme; "…*OLSET provides a series on literacy, numeracy and life skills that integrate skills, knowledge and values that access various learning areas.*" An educator from KwaMaquza Lower Primary School reinforced this notion by stating in the 2001 personal accounts, *"it is a good start for learning areas"*. It is argued by Hopkins et al. (1994) that in order to improve the quality and efficiency of education, the core knowledge and skills of the curriculum must also be developed. The statements above would suggest that the EIA programme is achieving this according to those implementing it.

Furthermore, in the 2003 personal accounts a teacher from Reagile Primary school commented, "*OLSET's Radio Learning Programme is one of the resource tools that compliment and enhance the delivery of Outcomes Based Education*". This suggests that learners who are exposed to the EIA programme are being trained in the required learning areas of the new National Curriculum. Learning is postulated by Hopkins et al. (1994) and Lockheed et al. (1991) to be determined by four factors, one of which, curriculum, is thus being addressed by the EIA programme (OLSET, 1995). In addition, there is evidence that the teachers are being provided with support in the delivery of the new national curriculum, which aids in the development of both the learners and the teachers, which, in turn, is a facet of INSET provision at a distance (Robinson, 1997). Lastly, there is evidence that the EIA programme provides lessons that are designed to teach national curriculum intensively, which is one of the interactive radio instruction's core methods (Perraton, 2000).

The quality of the EIA programme is also made clear in its provision of exposure to materials and teaching methods that educators were not familiar with. Participants commented on this theme in both the 2003 questionnaires and the 2001 personal accounts. For example a teacher from St Thomas School commented in the 2003 questionnaires *"I gained knowledge on how to use radio as a resource in the classroom*". By improving the range of resources available to teachers and

their skills, the quality of education is improved (see the outcomes of 'skills development' and 'improvement of education quality' for further discussion). Furthermore, by providing exposure to new materials and teaching methods, teacher development is aided, which is another of OLSET's objectives (discussed further under the outcome of 'teacher support and teacher support group provision').

In addition to quality provision, participants also commented on the ease of the programme's use. For example, a teacher at Enqoleni Primary school in the 2001 personal accounts stated that the programme is "*simple, understandable and pleasant to use*". Furthermore, a teacher from Nhlonipho Primary commented in the 2003 questionnaires "*it is designed in a way that it became easy and clear for the educator and the learner to understand"*. In the 2001 questionnaires a teacher commented on how the *"workbooks make understanding* easier". The ease of the programme was commented on by the same teacher from Enqoleni in both the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts. By making the programme user-friendly, it ensures that teachers at all levels and with varying degrees of training are able to implement the programme and to develop as a result.

The programme can be said to be reaching both rural and urban settings. Participants commented on the fact that the EIA lessons cater for both rural and urban scenarios. A teacher from Qwalasela Primary School commented in both the 2001 personal accounts and questionnaires that *"it makes children familiar with both urban and rural areas"*. This is done audially and verbally, as well as with the charts provided, as elaborated on by an educator at Enzondwane Primary school in the 2003 questionnaires "*take for instance we don't have a zoo here* (but) *in OLSET programmes there are charts that can take you to the zoo"*. Furthermore, a teacher at Gcotsheni Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts said "…*our learners are at a rural area but the confidence they show in their learning areas are comparable to the urban areas*". This latter quote suggests that the divide between urban and rural schools (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990) is being narrowed directly through EIA programme usage. In addition, the programme seems also to be reaching the wider community, as illustrated by the following quote, which was written by an OLSET coordinator "*You teach ten learners in one class but end up teaching hundreds that are outside the school in the*

community". This was not an expected outcome of the programme and hence will be discussed further under the 'unexpected outcomes' cluster of themes.

The aspects of provision of education to both the wider community and rural areas clearly suggest that the EIA programme is widening access to education in a country where large sections of the population were systematically denied access to education for many years (Howie, 2001). It should be noted, however, that in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires, some participants commented that there was an urban bias in the EIA programme's provision, as those in rural areas had more access to the programme, and there was one principal in the 2003 questionnaires that requested that it be provided more widely to rural schools. This raises questions of whether the urban-rural divide is indeed being narrowed equally across all schools that the EIA programme services (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990).

Another theme commented on many times by educators in the two groups of personal accounts and in the 2001 questionnaires was how the programme provides a method for obtaining the correct pronunciation of English. This is an important need that required action as many teachers from 'disadvantaged' backgrounds are faced with a lack of confidence in spoken and written English (Hartshorne, 1992). The programme thus appears to provide an avenue to address and develop this need.

This links to the idea that the programme is equalising communication between the multicultural and multilingual children present in the classroom. An educator at Monaghan Farm School in the 2003 personal accounts made this salient **"***communication is an issue, however OLSET helps me bridge this gap"*. Furthermore, a teacher in the 2001 personal accounts commented that the communication that is taking place in the classroom during the EIA programmes is in English and this was further corroborated by phrases expressed in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires (further discussion of this theme is provided under the outcome of 'skills development').

Thus, the programme is arguably not only narrowing the gap between rural and urban schools (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990), but also the differential gap between learners in the same classroom. These findings are in accordance with

the DfID review of the programme (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). With the procurement of the new funding offered by DfID, the programme was able to revise its learner curriculum to be in line with the national curriculum. The programme was also being provided to seven of the nine provinces in South Africa, as was evidenced in previous evaluations, even when OLSET was under financial strain (Hunter et al., 1998; Potter, 2002). Thus, one can conclude that despite the expansion of the programme's number of targeted teacher and learners, as was evident in the significant increase since 2001, it seems to continue to provide equal access to a South African interactive radio instruction (IRI) programme and therefore to a previously denied level of quality in education. In so doing, it is providing access to resources, and through this contributing to the development of teachers and learners. Comments made by teachers also suggest that the programme is reducing the educational divide between rural and urban schools and differential background of individual teachers and learners in South Africa (Ewing & Stub, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Perraton, 2000; Pillay, 1990; Robinson, 1997).

7.1.1.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of material provision

The school environment greatly influences a student's learning ability (Lockheed et al., 1991; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005). There are a number of aspects that can influence this environment and thus the school's effectiveness and improvement, including resourcing issues such as whether teaching materials are frequently provided (Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Williams, 2005). Furthermore, one of the four factors that appears to be important in effective learning is instructional materials (Hopkins et al., 1994; Lockheed et al., 1991). According to the Review Committee on Curriculum (2005), INSET for teachers in South Africa should provide learner support materials to teachers as a part of their training. Yet another of OLSET's (1994, 2007) objectives is thus to provide relevant teacher and learner support materials.

All the participants in the various forms of responses commented on how OLSET has provided them with teacher and learner support materials free of charge. A teacher from Mpelenyane J.P. School commented, *"we get material to use"*. However, the quantity of these resources was an aspect that merited attention. In both the 2001 and 2003 responses, some participants commented on the fact that there were enough materials for all while others commented that there were insufficient materials and that they required more materials, in particular, radios. This tension of

providing materials when limited funding was available to do so was also previously found during the financially strained period in OLSET's history (Hunter et al., 1998; Potter, 2002; Potter & Naidoo, 2006). Furthermore, such problems were also evident in the DfID review, as problems with the distribution of materials were experienced due to problems in the DfID procurement process and with shipping (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

Along similar lines, the quality of the radios was questioned abundantly in all forms of the data by the teachers, as exemplified in the following quote; "*the radios must be tested before they are delivered because some of them are not working at all"* which was expressed by an educator in the 2003 personal accounts from Imizikayifani Primary School. A teacher from Mdlazi Primary School commented on the poor quality of the radios in both the 2001 personal accounts and questionnaires.

In addition, in all the data many teachers commented on the fact that the materials were not received timeously. This was expressed in the following manner by a teacher from Shayamoya Primary School in both the 2001 personal accounts and questionnaires "*we don't receive the appropriate material on time*". In 2001, these problems were attributed to a lack of funds. In 2003, problems with the DfID procurement process and with shipping, as noted in the DfID review (cf. Potter & Naidoo, 2006), accounted for the delay in the materials' delivery. Due to delayed delivery of the OLSET support materials, many teachers commented in all the forms of evidence used in this study that their lessons were being delayed. This can be seen in the following quote provided by an educator in the 2003 personal accounts from Imbalencane Combined Primary School, *"I would like to suggest that the reading materials to be delivered early so that the lessons can start in time and the syllabus could be covered*".

This theme may have led to less effective learning taking place. Nonetheless, the benefit of the materials provided was widely acknowledged, as demonstrated by the following teacher's observation in the 2001 personal accounts *"the classroom is now colour-full with the bright learning material provided by OLSET*". The school environment was thus being enhanced which should have led to more effective learning (Hodgson, 1993; Lockheed et al., 1991; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

7.1.1.3. Themes relevant to the outcome of opportunities

OLSET (1995; 2007) aims to create additional opportunities for rural schools to ensure equitable access, which is much needed in South Africa (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990). This outcome also refers to an individual's chance to control his or her life and to develop his or her skills, hence its connection with empowerment. One can deduce that the EIA programme, through using the open learning and distance education technique of interactive radio instruction, is apparently addressing the missed opportunities of those who were excluded from educational opportunities by the past policies of the Apartheid government, by providing opportunities for education and training (Perraton, 1998; 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000).

This is evident in participants reporting that the programme provides the opportunity for further learning, as can be seen in the following statement expressed by a teacher from Bekekayo Intermediate School in the 2003 questionnaires *"...the series incorporates opportunities for children to listen, speak, read and write in English"*. It was also stated by an educator in Reagile Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts "*OLSET's purpose is to create opportunities for previously disadvantaged schools"*. In the 2001 questionnaires, principal 25 commented that the programme *"provides opportunities to speak English"*. Furthermore, a teacher in the 2001 personal accounts from Siphakamile Combined Primary School also reported, "*learners are also given opportunities to discover things for themselves*". This excerpt also supports the idea put forward by Furtwengler (1996), Goldman and Newman (1998), Howarth and Shardlow (2000); Lodge (2005); Hopkins et al. (1994) and Marland (1997) that students need to be involved in the learning process in order for effective education to take place. Furthermore, a sense of ownership over learning concepts for themselves may lead to a sense of empowerment on the learners' part (Zimmerman, 2000).

The teachers also acknowledged that they were being afforded the opportunity to take an active part in the teaching of the EIA lessons. This is line with the open learning concepts (cf. Anzalone, 1995; Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992) and IRI principles (cf. Bosch, 1996; 1997; Dock & Helwing, 1999) the EIA programme utilises. It can also be perceived as creating an empowering role, as the teacher is afforded the opportunity to share in the

teaching. This notion was only evident in the 2003 questionnaires, for example, principal 23 commented, *"the teacher has* (an) *opportunity to emphasise what is said*".

Participants also reported that the EIA programme provided opportunities for INSET at a distance (Perraton, 2000; Robinson, 1997). For example, "*it provided me with the opportunity to update myself by attending workshops"* was expressed in the 2001 personal accounts by an educator from Siphakmile School. Furthermore, in the 2003 personal accounts it was stated by an educator from Enzondwane Primary School that OLSET provides "*educators with opportunities to develop and improve their teaching skills*". Reflection on how "s*ome of the teachers have never heard or observed another teacher teaching English, this then allows for an opportunity to reflect on these lessons*" was also made in the 2003 questionnaires by principal 18. This is part of the support framework OLSET has put forward for teacher development (cf. Leigh, 1995; OLSET, 1995) [17]. Thus, teaching skills are being developed which will improve educational quality and thus development can occur (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995: Stoll, 1992).

In addition, educators state that the programme provides opportunities for communication, which is one of the skills OLSET (1995, 2007) aims to improve. Communication appears to be improving as the EIA lessons encourage communication among the children, as evidenced in the statement provide by an educator from Bontrand Junior School in the 2003 questionnaires "…*by encouraging the children to greet people and when they are learning they should say good-bye*". The principal of Ifafa Primary School said in both the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts that there were *"opportunities for the learners & educators to communicate with each other in practical ways"*. Furthermore, an educator from Ifafa Junior Primary School in the 2001 personal accounts said, "*it provides opportunities for the learners and educators to communicate with each other in practical ways"*. This exemplar serves to demonstrate how the class environment aids in effective learning (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hodgson, 1993; Lockheed et al., 1991; Lodge, 2005; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992). It also demonstrates how the sharing of the learning environment equalises the power held by the teachers over the learners (Zimmerman, 2000).

[17] See section 7.1.1.5 for further elaboration on OLSET's INSET provision.

In the 2003 personal accounts, the foundation phase HOD from Marhulana Primary School commented that OLSET **"***provided an opportunity to interact with other guests/educationists from Norway, Sweden, Britain and other countries who visited our school from time to time to observe the OLSET lessons*". This passage not only demonstrates how communication outside the school has improved but also demonstrates the important role stakeholders have in developing education (Geen, 2005).

In addition, by using the EIA lessons, the educators and learners appear to be undertaking an empowering process (Zimmerman, 1995). The targeted audience of the EIA programme seem to be obtaining opportunities for education, communication and training as discussed above and hence are gaining knowledge on how to achieve goals and control resources (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995). This is further emphasised by the participants comments that their roles as teachers are being catered for by EIA. By so doing, the opportunity is created for community members to develop skills, as discussed further under the theme of 'skills development' itself.

The empowerment processes that emerged seemed to be occurring at all three levels of analysis of Zimmerman's (2000) empowerment model. At the individual level, it was reported that "*it provid*(es) *educators with opportunities to develop and improve their teaching skills"*. At the organisational level, hierarchical levels were being mixed as the teachers had their own roles catered for in the lessons while simultaneously the learners were being guided by the lessons and the teachers, for example "*learners are given the opportunity to practice the language with the guidance of teachers"*. At the community level, learners were encouraged to communicate and interact with outsiders and within their group.

Overall, the themes raised relative to the 'opportunities' outcome would suggest that the open learning methodology underpinning the programme's implementation have been assessed with both the educational development aims set out by OLSET as well the implicit aim of empowerment. This lends support to evaluation model utilised in this study, which suggests that educational development first takes place as a foundation of the empowerment of those taking part.

7.1.1.4. Themes relevant to the outcome of skills development

Psychological empowerment manifests itself in different perceptions, skills and behaviours for different people (Dalton et al., 2001; Zimmerman, 2000). Different beliefs, competencies and actions are needed to master different settings. Hence, in order for development to have occurred the acquisition of new capacities for action i.e. capacity building, which is a form of skill enhancement, should have taken place (Kelly & van der Riet, 2001). As with opportunities, this outcome of 'skills development' thus relates to both the explicit outcomes set by OLSET and the implicit notion of resulting empowerment being explored in this study.

The curriculum objectives most countries require students to meet are basic literacy and numeracy skills and the ability to apply basic skills to new problems (Lockheed et al., 1991). Improving the quality and efficiency of education is a way to develop the core knowledge and skills of the curriculum (Hopkins et al., 1994). Furthermore, previous research conducted by Fordham (1980) has demonstrated that the knowledge and skills required are not being effectively transmitted to students in rural areas. Hence, the urban-rural divide is made apparent (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990).

In this research, however, it was apparent that the learners and teachers using the EIA programme were developing new skills and the participants reported that the learners' skills were being developed. Examples of participants' responses included: *"the learners' comprehension, spelling and grammar have improved"* reported a teacher working at Monaghan Farm School in the 2003 personal accounts; an educator from Nyiko Primary School in the 2003 questionnaires commented on how the learners "….*learn to listen and respond to questions. They learn to concentrate and pronounce words correctly*"; teacher 72 in the 2001 questionnaires commented, *"young learners develop their listening, reading and writing skills"; and* principal 28 in the 2001 personal accounts stated that "*skills such as listening, speaking, imitation, singing, sentence making are really enhanced through fun, play, movement and sharing*". This last quote once again provides support for how involving students in the learning process enhances educational effectiveness and improvement (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hopkins et al., 1994; Lodge, 2005). Furthermore, it serves to illustrate how, in the process of applying open learning principles in this project, students are empowered (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). The learners'

skills development was expressed by the same teacher from Masakhe Primary School in the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts, by the same teacher from Bathabile Primary School in the 2001 questionnaires, 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts, by the same teacher from Phumzuzulu Primary School and the same teacher from Enzondwane, respectively in the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts.

OLSET has catered for both learners and teachers in its curricula. Hence, it would be expected that the skills developed would be different for learners and teachers. As discussed above, the learners have gained a number of skills. Similarly, it was found that the teachers also developed a number of abilities and skills. The foremost skill educators expressed as being developed for themselves across the different data was that their teaching had improved. A teacher in the 2003 questionnaires from Nhlonipho Primary expressed that "*it promotes the presentation skill by the teacher*". In the 2001 questionnaires teacher 5 stated that it *"helps educators' access pupils' problem's listening and language"*. In addition staff at Masahkane-Tswelopele Primary School commented in the 2001 personal accounts that their "*level of pedagogy has increased significantly since they began to use this programme"*. This demonstrates that the open learning elements used by the project (cf. Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992) are providing teachers with opportunities to use different teaching styles, which are being reinforced using distance education principles (Perraton, 2000; Robinson, 1997).

Furthermore, not only learners developed their listening skills – the teachers did as well, as evidenced by the statement provided by a teacher from Imizikayifani Junior Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts *"…we developed a lot of different things such as music and our listening skills"*. Thus, the INSET being provided by OLSET seemed to be developing the educators' teaching skills[18] (Guskey, 2000; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Perraton, 2000; Robinson, 1997; Ruskey, 1999). This, in turn, should aid school effectiveness and hence development (Hopkins et al., 1994; Lockheed et al., 1991).

[18] A more in-depth discussion of the INSET provided by OLSET is explored under the 'teacher support and teacher support group provision' outcome.

The programme also offered learners and teachers skills development in terms of communication. A teacher in the 2003 personal accounts from Gcotsheni Primary School commented, "w*hen we use the OLSET programme there is vast improvement and the communication is much better"*. Educators at Ntuthuzelo Primary School in the 2001 personal accounts stated, "*it teaches learners to communicate with others, helps learners express themselves*". The same notions were also raised in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaire responses. Communication is vital to empowerment and development in order for needs to be expressed, as well as for solutions to be ventured.

Perhaps the most important skill, though, that the teachers and learners developed by using the EIA programme was fluency in English. The HOD of the foundation phase at Marhulana primary school in the 2003 personal accounts commented that the **"***OLSET project does not only help learners improve language skills*". In the 2001 personal accounts principal 30 stated that the programme "*develop their* [the learners'] *English skills and usage"*. Furthermore, as expressed by principal 26 in the 2003 questionnaires, "[the] *pronunciation of words by the learners has developed"*. Teacher 71 in the 2001 personal accounts stated that *"it helps learners speak English fluently".* English improvement was expressed by the same teacher from Rabasotho Primary school in the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts as well by the same teachers from Shayamoya and Masahkane-Tswelopole respectively in the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts.

The educators have also benefited in relation to English fluency. Principal 35 in the 2003 questionnaires commented that "*educators also benefit in the manipulation of grammar*". In addition, as stated in the 2001 personal accounts by an educator from Dlukuwene Combined Primary School, "[the] *teaching* [of] *English improved in our school*". A learning facilitator from the Free State province in the 2003 personal accounts also commented, *"This project thus helps the educators with their pronunciation of English*". Mastery in English thus provides skills for learners to manage higher education, as English becomes the primary language of instruction in South Africa after Grade 3 (Department of Education, 1997). The "*teachers are greatly influenced by this programme to teach English well and effectively*" was stated by a coordinator in the 2003 personal accounts, which should aid the learning process and develop learners and

teachers further (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lockheed et al., 1991). Once again, open learning principles are shown as improving teaching skills (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

In the same way, the educators' abilities to teach English successfully aid the learners. These language and literacy skills, in turn, should aid South Africa's level of international competitiveness (Mbeki, 2004 a; 2004b). Further discussion on English education and usage in the 36 classrooms observed in this study is provided under the outcome of 'participation in the community' (related to the second research question).

It also appears that the EIA programme is affording the targeted population psychological empowerment at the intrapersonal level (Zimmerman, 2000). The "*learners are being motivated by a feeling of being able to apply their knowledge*", as stated by an educator from Mdlazi Primary School in the 2001 personal accounts and similarly in the 2001 questionnaires. In the 2003 questionnaires there were instances of motivation as well, as expressed by an educator from Reagile Primary School *"learners become motivated"*. The teachers have also been motivated, as noted by an educator from Vusukukhanya Primary in the 2003 questionnaires "*it motivated me and encouraged"*. Hence, it is suggested that the teachers' and learners' motivation levels are improved in addition to their skills.

An understanding of the required resources, how to acquire them and the skill to use them infers that participants understand causal agents (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). These skills help individuals become independent, thereby enabling them to control their lives. The interactional component of psychological empowerment hence provides a link between perceived control and taking action to exert control.

This ability to exert control is demonstrated by the teachers in their ability to apply the OLSET methods and materials in other learning areas, as exemplified in the following quotes: "*It broadens their knowledge in all their learning areas in the foundation phase*" by an educator from Ntyatyambo Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts; "*Many have developed the capacity to relate the OLSET materials and methodology in a wider context and apply it*

effectively to the entire OBE curriculum" stated by a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts; a teacher from Ecaleni Primary School further added "*I learn many things as curriculum changes and I have learnt how to integrate OLSET project with other learning areas"* in the 2003 questionnaires; and teacher 52 in the 2001 questionnaires provides an example of how this occurred -*"Sing songs and rhymes to develop listening and speaking skills".* The importance of having a programme aligned with the national policy for sustainable development, as postulated by Matlock (2005), is once again evident. This theme was also discussed under the outcome of 'material provision' Furthermore, according to open learning assumptions, a variety in teaching styles should result in learning that is more effective (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

Organisations that provide opportunities for people to gain control over their lives are empowering organisations (Zimmerman, 2000). These organisations have processes and structures that enhance members' skills and provide them with the mutual support required to enact community-level change. An empowering organisation may have little impact on policy, but may provide members with opportunities to develop skills and a sense of control (Minkler et al., 2001). By having the EIA programme within schools, the school governing bodies are providing opportunities for individuals to gain control over their lives as discussed above. Furthermore, the teachers have reported that the self-confidence of learners and teachers improved across all forms of the data obtained, which thus seems to indicate an effect at the community-level of empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000).

One can thus conclude that the target population of the EIA programme appears to be empowered in terms of skills development at the psychological, organisational and community levels. Skills development can thus become a bridge for crossing the divide between the 'two nations' that characterise South Africa's uneven historical development; one that is part of the global knowledge and consumerist First World and the other that is part of the poor and marginalised Third World (Mbeki, 2004a; 2004b). Hence, one can state that OLSET's (1995; 2007) objectives to improve language and literacy skills, to improve communication skills and to extend vocabulary in terms of educational development and open learning, as well as the unplanned but important outcome of empowerment, have been met. These programme objectives are also in line

with open learning, distance education and IRI objectives (Bosch, 1996; 1997; Dock & Helwig, 1999; Hodgson, 1993; Perraton, 1999; 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

7.1.1.5. Themes relevant to the outcome of teacher support and teacher support group provision

One of OLSET's policies is to provide teachers with support in the form of workshops and classroom visits (Leigh, 1995). In effect, OLSET is providing INSET to the educators that use the EIA programme.

It was apparent from the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts and questionnaires (as previously discussed) that this was happening in the field. There was, however, contradictory information about the nature of this support. Firstly, the majority of the teachers in all the data forms requested that OLSET must "*arrange more workshops for us just to share ideas and to voice what we need from this project*", which was stated by an educator in the 2001 personal accounts from Siphakamile Combined Primary School. Similarly, a teacher from Rabasotho Primary School stated in both the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts that *"the support is so helpful, but we would like to get more support"*. This may indicate that the INSET that the teachers are receiving is not meeting their needs (Du Toit & Squazzin, 2000). On the other hand, for some educators there were "*enough workshops are conducted*" , as reported by a teacher from Nkabane CP School in the 2003 questionnaires. This point was also reported across all forms of evidence, potentially suggesting that perceptions of the amount of training might relate more to qualities of the individual teachers**.** In the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 14 stated that there were "*too few teachers' workshops"*. This was warranted as OLSET was understaffed during this period (Potter, 2002). Due to the expansion OLSET undertook with the advent of new funding from DfID though, it appears that most teachers were 'work-shopped' at least once, as was evident from the OLSET database. This may have been perceived as an insufficient amount of training by some educators, though.

Furthermore, whereas all the coordinators were commended for the help and support they provided in the various data forms, some teachers in the 2003 questionnaires requested that

"*OLSET should supply us with more facilitators*" which was the view of an educator from Thembekile Public School. Some felt that there was not enough classroom support being provided, as seen when a coordinator in the 2003 personal accounts reported "*due to the current OLSET expansion workshops are taking most of the time as a result few class visits are possible*". Previous evaluation findings noted the same themes (Hunter et al., 1998; Potter, 2002). Staffing shortage (even when there is abundant funding) is bound to be a problem in NGOs, where priority is placed on providing services to the community and not on obtaining staff (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

Despite this, the coordinators still strove to conduct as many classroom visits as possible, as exemplified in the following quote from the 2003 personal accounts "*I aim to give the classroom support, work with the learners, monitor and assist them during the lesson"*. In this way the educators' roles, pedagogy and use of new technology in the classroom can be developed (Robinson, 1997). By having support offered both outside and within the school, the teachers' and schools' needs are presumably being addressed and hence a school-focused INSET model is being used (Bolam, 1982; Hofmeyr, 1991). However, no further information could be ascertained from the data on the specific INSET model used by OLSET, indicating an area for further research.

Participants in all four data sets expressed that the workshops were useful in that knowledge and skills were gained. For example, an educator from Somkhele Junior Primary in the 2003 questionnaires reported that "*new things are learnt how to approach other learning areas*". A teacher from KwaMaquza Lower Primary School in the 2001 personal accounts also stated "*OLSET guides you about things you will prepare for the lesson*". In addition, in the 2003 personal accounts a coordinator commented that the workshops also help to "*forge working relationship in developing educators"*. In the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 66 stated it simply by saying that *"workshops are fruitful"*. Thus once again skills development was highlighted as taking place at the workshops. This is one of the fundamental objectives of any INSET initiative in order to develop teachers and, in turn, the learners (Du Toit & Squazzin, 2000; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 2000; Hofmeyr, 1991; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Ruskey, 1999).

Furthermore, in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts as well as the 2003 questionnaires, the teachers reported that the coordinators had motivated them in the workshops and in the support they received from them. This is, as has been argued in the previous section, a form of empowerment. Thus, the support OLSET provides appears to be another opportunity for teachers to empower and develop themselves, which is postulated to occur as a result of applying open learning methods appropriately (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997).

OLSET recognised the importance of teacher support groups during its first evaluation of the programme (Leigh, 1995; Potter, 2002). This is yet another forum in which INSET is provided to teachers using the EIA programme. This medium offers teachers the opportunity to learn from each other and to share both successful and unsuccessful teaching practices, which is an aim of INSET (Grimmett & Crehan, 1992; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lotz, 1996). The value of these groups is recognised by both the coordinators and the teachers, as highlighted in the following quotes: "*These meetings have proved very valuable as there is a lot of exploration around educational issues and sharing"* was the view of a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts; *"The teacher support groups also help me as a coordinator to understand the problems encountered by teachers and to make follow-ups to schools to provide useful support*" was reported in the 2003 personal accounts; an educator in the 2003 questionnaires from Ecaleni Primary School saw the teacher support groups as a place *"to meet other teachers, discuss and solve problems where clarity is needed*"; and teacher 32 in the 2001 questionnaires said that the teacher support groups *"…are very useful"*.

From these quotes, it can be deduced that this form of INSET is mostly taking place outside the schools, where the teachers' needs can be addressed and where authentic teacher participation and development of reflective practices can be practiced (Grimmett & Crehan, 1992; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lotz, 1996). This is seen an essential aspect required in a successful INSET programme (Du Toit & Squazzin, 2000; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995). It is thus highly concerning to realise that these teacher support groups are becoming infrequent in the field. This could be due to the problems of staff shortage inherent to NGO's (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The coordinators reported in the two personal accounts that this was occurring because the teacher support groups "*could only happen with the approval of the Department of Education officials"* and "*due to the*

vastness of the area i.e. I have to cover five districts alone". Teacher support groups therefore cannot happen often and the coordinators report "*these are held at the most three times a year*". Thus a medium that has the potential for sharing of ideas between educators and hence educational development and empowerment is not occurring as frequently as desired by the participants of this study. This may further result in a lack of in-service training.

7.1.2. Medium-term outcomes

7.1.2.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of improvement of education quality

In addition to access, OLSET (1995; 2007) has also set out to improve the quality of education via its EIA programme. Numerous areas of improvement were mentioned by the participants. These areas will be discussed individually.

The first area of improvement is that of the learners' and educators' skills being developed. This is directly related to 'skills development' and hence has been elaborated on under that specific outcome.

Over and above specific skills, the teachers felt that the relationships between themselves and their learners had improved, as exemplified in the following quote by an educator from Massacre Public School in the 2001 personal accounts "*there are activities that promote co-operative learning"*. The statement that "*the programme is effective in facilitating classroom relationships, and keeping the learners interested"* which was noted by a teacher from Imbalencane Combined Primary in the 2003 personal accounts reinforced this. A teacher in the 2001 questionnaires said that she felt *"comfortable guiding"*. Furthermore, principal 8 in the 2003 questionnaires assured that the "*the teaching-learning atmosphere becomes conducive"*. By having a conducive atmosphere for co-operative learning, the stage is set for quality learning to take place. From this, it can be deduced that the students are being involved in the learning process, which is one of the factors of school effectiveness and improvement, as well as of open learning (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hopkins et al., 1994; Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). According to Furtwengler (1996), by empowering students in this manner, a more positive culture results in the school. This positive culture relates to better attendance, which is one of the 'unexpected outcomes' that is noted below. Thus, transformation in education is suggested to be occurring.

The teachers' roles have also been modified, which relates to their gain in confidence in their roles as well as developing new teaching methods, which in turn demonstrates how the educators' abilities have improved (a facet of INSET). This is line with the programme's modified pedagogy (Anzalone, 1995; Bosch, 1997; Helwig et al., 1999; Leigh, 1995; Moulton, 1994; Potter, 1994b; Potter et al., 1995). Quotes that exemplify these assertions are; "*in those schools where educators have been observed educators are seen to be more effective and more confident in their ability to teach"* as stated by a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts; "*It improves the old way of teaching*", which was stated by a teacher from Gcotsheni Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts; and "*New things are learnt how to approach other learning areas*", which was stated by a teacher in the 2003 questionnaires from Somkhele Junior Primary. Lastly, as a principal in the 2001 questionnaires commented, the teachers have *"new confidence*". Improvement of teachers' abilities suggests that teaching quality will also improve as a direct consequence. Elaboration on OLSET's INSET is provided under the outcome of 'teacher support and teacher support group provision'.

In line with the above, teachers also expressed in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires that new knowledge was gained as they learnt *"new approaches"*. This had led to the teachers being "*motivated and obtaining courage*", as expressed by a teacher in the 2001 questionnaires. These aspects are relevant to 'skills development' and 'teacher s and teacher support group provision' hence a more detailed elaboration has been provided under these outcomes.

The teachers, as previously discussed, expressed how easy it is to use EIA, as well as how it facilitates English second-language teaching. These views can be illustrated via the following participants' quotes; "*my teaching of English has improved"*, as stated by an educator in the 2003 questionnaires from Bontrand and, as a teacher in Qwalasela Public School in the 2001 personal accounts stated, "*English in Action makes things easier for me especially in terms of the repetition of concepts, dialogues and others*". A principal in the 2001 questionnaires also commented that one is now *"able to understand English"*.

The teachers also felt that the programme addressed the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) requirements. This was expressed by principal 12 in both the 2001 questionnaires and personal

accounts and expressed more succinctly by a teacher at Monaghan Farm School in the 2001 personal accounts and questionnaires *"what pleased me more is when I realised that the programme covers the three essential learning areas; numeracy, literacy and life skills*". More detail on this theme is provided by an educator from Bhongo Primary School in the 2003 questionnaires "*all learning areas have specific outcomes and cross-curricular links, the approach is in terms of OBE and it also shows clearly what learning outcomes are met in that particular lesson*". Furthermore, a teacher in the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts stated *"it integrates all learning areas"*. Thus, one can infer that the programme is addressing the national curriculum. One of the requirements of open learning is assessment (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992). The teachers approve of the EIA programme because it is in line with the national curriculum. This aspect can be said to be the assessment aspect of open learning that is missing from OLSET's application of open learning in its EIA programme. The EIA programme was not in line with the national curriculum in previous evaluations (Potter, 2002). However, in the DfID review it was found that the EIA programme was in line with the national curriculum (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). Thus, with continuous review of a programme new arising concerns are acknowledged which can subsequently be addressed.

Matlock (2005) postulated that a manner in which a programme can maintain sustainable development is to be aligned with the national commitments and policies. The evidence indicates that in this case this requirement is now being adhered to.

Implicit in this is the notion that "*it is easy for me to address the different levels of the children in class even though it is multi-grade"* as observed by as an educator in the 2001 personal accounts from Joseph Ditsela Farm School. It can therefore be deduced that the programme that is targeted for one level can and is used by multiple grade levels thereby demonstrating the multi-functionality, developmental nature and sustainability of the programme. This was also demonstrated in the DfID review (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

The programme was also reported in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and in the 2001 personal accounts to have improved the motivation of the educators. In the 2001 questionnaires respondent T3 commented, *"it motivates to listen*". In the 2003 questionnaires and the 2001 personal

accounts, similar phrases were expressed by the teachers. Further elaboration on how the programme motivates educators has been provided under the 'skills development' outcome.

Overall, it is thus possible to conclude that the open learning methodology utilised in implementing the programme is boosting educational standards based on the points above, as well as the explicit opinions of teachers. This was exemplified in the following quote provided by a teacher at Tholimfundo Public Primary School in the 2001 questionnaires, "*the programme enables educators to manage their time well and they plan according to acceptable standards*" and the quote from a teacher in the 2003 questionnaires from Bekekayo Intermediate School "*it caters for all categories by simplifying the work and burden for the teacher*".

7.1.2.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of working in unison

According to Geen (2005), a number of stakeholders' roles must be in place in order for development in the education sector to be sustainable. In addition, according to open learning methods, there must be a supporting environment, an enabling environment and an influencing environment (Rowntree, 1992). Furthermore, empowerment at the community level refers to individuals working in unison in an organised manner in order to improve their collective levels and linkages among community organisation and agencies that help maintain their quality of life (Zimmerman, 2000). Thus, as with the outcomes of 'skills development' and 'opportunities', the outcome of 'working in unison' applies to both clusters of themes and thus to both research questions.

Some evidence of this unity could be ascertained from the participants of this research. Firstly, learners have become skilled at working with each other in order to gain new skills. A teacher from Monaghan Farm School reported in the 2003 personal accounts *"learners are teaching each other about their native languages*". Furthermore, in the 2001 personal accounts principal 33 reported "*they* [the learners] *have learned to share and cooperate with each other"*. "*Learners are able to share things amongst them and to share ideas"* was also reported in the 2003 questionnaires by an educator in Phikiswayo Junior Primary School. In the 2001 questionnaires a teacher shared that the learners *"Enjoy working in pairs sharing ideas and experiences"*. "*By teaching each other new words from their own language and correcting each other's*

pronunciation, communication and social integration is encouraged and acceptance of other cultures is promoted" was commented on by a teacher from Monaghan Farm School in the 2003 personal accounts.

Thus, the OLSET lessons *"help encourage the children to interact and socialise with one another more*" as expressed in the 2001 questionnaires. In the 2001 personal accounts, a teacher from Ithongasi Public Primary School added, "*this programme promotes the communicative approach*". In the 2003 questionnaires, an educator from Ecaleni Primary also commented "*they communicate effectively, identify, organise, work effectively with others in groups"*. Once again, it is highlighted that communication is encouraged via the use of the EIA programme.

The programme has also spurred a number of working relationship coalitions. The first is in line with the nature of interactive radio instruction programmes (Bosch, 1996, 1997) i.e. "*there is mutualism between the radio lesson and the educator*", which was reported in the 2001 personal accounts by an educator from Ithongasi Public Primary School. Furthermore, in the 2001 questionnaires teacher 14 elaborated that there is "*learner's and teacher's involvement"* in the radio lessons. In addition, a "*mutual assistance between teachers and learners*" was created, as expressed by an educator working at Kwandabezinhle Primary School. In the 2003 personal accounts, a teacher from Beacon Hill Primary also commented on the *"inspired dynamic interaction within the classroom*". These are also representative of open learning methods (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

Furthermore, educators are now working in teams within the same school, as commented on in the two personal accounts. This is suggested in order for shared knowledge and skills to be developed (Grimmett & Crehan, 1992; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). In the 2003 personal accounts, principal 37 reported an increase in the *"involvement of parents*" since beginning using the OLSET lessons. Furthermore, "*parent-teacher learner involvement seems to be promoted*" was observed by principal 24 in the 2001 personal accounts. This could demonstrate that the community was beginning to initiate efforts to improve their collective lives (Zimmerman, 2000). Furthermore, according to Geen (2005) and Torimiro et al. (2004), parental involvement in the educational process is a vital aspect of educational effectiveness and improvement. Efforts to

sustain the educational developments made are thus in place in terms of the environments needed via different stakeholders' roles in the EIA programme (Geen, 2005).

As was found in the DfID review (Potter & Naidoo, 2006), the regional coordinators reported that they were working in "c*ollaboration with department officials"* and "*establishing relationships with community radio stations*" in the two personal accounts. In addition, it was reported in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts that, where possible, the schools were working with the community to improve the available resources. This collective action to access government and community resources is reported by Perkins and Zimmerman (1995) as an empowering process. These collaborative teams thus have the capacity to affect organisations, communities and society and hence development (Dalton et al., 2001; Geen, 2005).

Thus, the programme can be regarded as empowering at the community level as well - a fact that many community psychologists have tended to overlook (Cox, 2002; Frymier et al., 1996; Gutiérrez, 1995; Le Bosse et al., 1999; Orford, 1992; Peterson & Reid, 2003; Segal et al., 1995; Speer, 2000; Speer & Peterson, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991). One can thus conclude that OLSET's objective of establishing working partnerships with the education departments, the Public Broadcasting service (SABC) and other relevant stakeholders appears to be met; an issue that was not being met in previous evaluations of the programme (cf. Potter, 2002). An element of the programme's sustainability is also being enacted by forming coalitions with government and the national broadcaster.

7.1.3. Themes relevant to the short- and medium-term outcome of unexpected outcomes

Both favourable and unfavourable outcomes not necessarily expected in relation to the objectives have resulted from the use of the EIA programme. The first favourable outcome was that the educators recognise the necessity of the programme as part of the curriculum and expected work of educators, as exemplified in the following statement which was expressed by an educator from Monaghan Primary School in the 2003 personal accounts; "*…would also like the Department of Education to officially recognise the programme. Hence, making the OLSET programme a normal part of classroom work rather than just being supplementary.*" This may have occurred

as the programme aligned itself with the national curriculum, an aspect Matlock (2005) sees as a necessity for sustainable development of a programme. Furthermore, this once again illustrates that the assessment aspect of open learning that was previously missing from OLSET's EIA programme is now being somewhat met by the teachers and education authorities approval of the project (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

Another favourable but unexpected outcome was that the attendance rates of the learners improved. Teachers reported that learners were no longer frequently absent as they did not wish to miss the EIA lessons in all four forms of data obtained. Despite this not being an expected outcome in terms of OLSET's objectives, the educational development and open learning literature does acknowledge such an occurrence might happen (Furtwengler, 1996; Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Lodge, 2005; Marland, 1997). By involving students in the learning process they are empowered which results in a positive culture in the school. This culture is related to better school attendance.

However, there is frustration with the radio lessons due to broadcast issues. These are best illustrated by providing the direct quotes of the educators: *"Sometimes the programmes on the radio go back to lessons they have already done. It's confusing because we don't know where they are"* was reported to be occurring by an educator at Rabasotho Combined School in the 2003 personal accounts; a teacher from Masakhe Primary School in the 2001 personal accounts also commented *"what has also been problematic is the break of broadcast without warning"*. Furthermore, a teacher from Amahlaya Primary School in the 2003 questionnaires suggested that "*eliminate advertisement and do not play the programme during holidays"*. In the 2001 questionnaires, a teacher also commented that there were *"problems with broadcast as the advertisements would detract the learners"*.

These demonstrate the important role the environment plays in school development sustainability and, in this particular case, the effectiveness of the EIA programme (Geen, 2005). Hence the importance of regularly scheduled broadcasting needs to be re-emphasised to the different radio stations. Monitoring of the programme by the OLSET radio producers at head office also needs to be more stringently done in order to notice such errors. Contact with the relevant radio stations

needs to take place in order to correct errors that may occur and negatively impact on the effectiveness of the programme and ultimately its development and sustainability.

7.2. Conclusion

Despite certain of the themes containing contradictory and negative views of the EIA programme, the majority of the themes in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts indicated that all of OLSET's objectives are being met – as depicted in Figure 20. The programme is providing equal access to quality education and improvement of education quality, especially in relation to skills development. Aspects of educational development, as well as the three levels of empowerment in Zimmerman's (2000) model, were evident in these areas of OLSET's work (as discussed above).

The EIA programme seems to be providing educational development opportunities for teachers and learners, which is also empowering as new knowledge is obtained. Language and literacy have also been improved in the target audience of the programme. The data also suggest that materials are being provided to the teachers. However, the quantity, quality and timeously delivery of the material were questioned by the teachers in both 2001 and 2003. In 2001, this may have been caused by a lack of funding, while in 2003, there appears to have been DfID procurement problems (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

In addition, the analyses indicate that the skills of the teachers are developing in terms of the type of INSET being provided by OLSET. These positive results are similar to what previous distance education INSET programmes have reported (Perraton, 2000; Robinson, 1997). The type of support being provided by the programme would thus appear to be appropriate. However, it should be noted that the frequency of the teacher support groups was questioned. The lack of teacher support groups could possibly be due to a lack of staff; an inherent problem in NGOs who tend to give priority to providing services and not staffing issues (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The support that was provided to the teachers did, however, have an empowering effect, as was postulated to occur as a result of applying open learning principles correctly (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). Various groups were formulated and worked together to

achieve objectives, which could promote programme development and sustainability, as well as empowerment.

Unexpected outcomes of the programme were that the value of the programme was recognised and the attendance rates of the learners increased. This latter aspect demonstrates how involving students in the learning process empowers them, which in turn results in attendance rates increasing (Furtwengler, 1996; Lodge, 2005). Furthermore, this data would suggest a link between open learning and empowerment (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). In addition, the data indicate that broadcasting mistakes are having adverse effects on the use of the EIA lessons. The importance of environmental aspects in effective delivery of educational programmes was thus highlighted (Geen, 2005). The data also indicated a number of tensions around the programme's funding and the effects of lack of funds on resources supplied to the schools. Despite evidence of strong advocacy for the programme's model of implementation at school level, funding and long-term sustainability remain for the most part unresolved. This reflects the dependence of educational NGO's on finance provided by donors (Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

Overall, it can be said that the EIA programme is operating reasonably effectively, although some recommendations can be made and some changes are required (see Chapter 9). On this basis, it can be claimed that the type of open learning principles being applied in the implementation of EIA has been able to provide a framework for improvement of teaching practice, reaching many schools, classrooms, teachers and learners in both urban and rural areas of South Africa, and influencing the quality of daily instruction at relatively low cost (Bosch, 1996, 1997; Creed & Joynes, 2004; Dock & Helwig, 1999; Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Perraton, 1999; 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000; Pillay, 1990). Furthermore, the findings reported here support many of the results obtained in previous evaluations of the programme (Hunter et al., 1998; Potter, 2002; Potter & Naidoo, 2006).

From the analyses as well as the literature, it is evident that the theories of open learning and educational development are based on assumptions that are similar to theories of empowerment, and are also associated with each other. A complete picture of how the programme operates and

the changes it has induced in its target audience is thus enhanced by drawing on educational development, open learning and empowerment theory. The next chapter addresses results obtained from the data relevant to the second research question, namely whether any evidence of empowerment occurring through EIA implementation could be found. The analyses also examined whether there is evidence that educational development outcomes have proceeded empowerment among teachers and principals as programme beneficiaries.

Chapter 8: The empowerment of the targeted communities of teachers and learners

8.1. Research question two

Are the teachers and learners of the English in Action (EIA) programme being empowered through taking part in the EIA programme and, if so, how is this taking place?

In the previous chapter, the first question of whether the EIA programme was effective and efficient was addressed. The second question posed by the study dealt with whether implementation of the EIA programme could, as a by-product of its primary aims, empower those participating in it, namely the learners, teachers and principals/HODs**.** This chapter will thus focus on those results addressing the second question, by concentrating on exploring indications of empowerment occurring as a result of the EIA programme at the individual level and, to a lesser degree, at the organisational and community levels - as pointed out in Figures 10, 11 and 12. All conclusions are based only on the educator's responses and classroom observations.

The chapter will first present evidence as to if and how the teachers and learners using the EIA programme were empowered through their usage of the programme. Discussion will then be undertaken as to whether there are indications that there is directionality in the association (i.e. whether open learning contributes to educational development which in turn contributes to empowerment). Evidence used to answer this question was drawn from the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts, 2001 and 2003 questionnaires and the 2003 observations.

It is important to note that the findings of this chapter build on to the findings of the previous chapter, as many elements of the effective functioning of the programme (and thus classified under the educational development cluster) contained aspects relevant to empowerment processes as well. In particular, three of the outcomes identified as relevant to addressing the effectiveness of the EIA programme also provided direct evidence related to the second question of empowerment. These outcomes, namely 'opportunities', 'skills development' and 'working in unison', were discussed in detail in Chapter Seven using educational development, open learning

and empowerment theory to make sense of the results obtained, and thus are not repeated in the discussion below.

8.1.1. Themes relevant to the short-term outcome of abilities

The intrapersonal component of psychological empowerment refers to how individuals think about themselves (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). It includes domain-specific perceived control (beliefs about one's ability to exert influence in different spheres of life) and self-efficacy, motivation to control, and perceived competence and mastery (Kolb & Stuart, 2005; Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). People who are psychologically empowered at the interpersonal level are not expected to be socially isolated, experience powerlessness, normlessness and helplessness (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). Certain of the users of the EIA programme showed such empowered characteristics.

An educator in the 2003 personal accounts from Mtuba Primary School stated "*teaching the language is now enjoyable to me as my learners are excelling*". The teachers in the 2001 personal accounts reported that the EIA programme has helped the educators "*provoke their critical thinking when planning and preparing a lesson*", as stated by principal 6. Spreitzer (1995) argues that psychological empowerment in the workplace includes a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact of control. To demonstrate competence one needs to believe in one's own capability to perform work activities with skill. The teachers have clearly demonstrated this. The second quote also demonstrates how the teaching skills of the educators have improved due to the INSET at a distance provide by OLSET (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hofmeyr, 1991; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Perraton, 2000; Robinson, 1997; Stoll, 1992). The teachers in the questionnaires did not report on their own competencies but rather on the abilities their learners had developed.

One example of the abilities of their learners that the teachers reported on in the 2003 questionnaires was *"they show critical awareness of language usage"*, as commented on by an educator working at Bekekayo Intermediate School. The learners' abilities also improved, as exemplified in the following quote "*the learners are now able to listen with comprehension, able to formulate sentences, able to relate to what they have learnt and their concentration levels have*

also increased", which was stated by principal 19 in the 2001 personal accounts. In the 2003 personal accounts, the foundation phase HOD of Marhulana Primary School commented *"OLSET's project does help learners improve language skills"*, while teacher 57 in the 2001 questionnaires perceived her learners to be *"able to express themselves"*. In the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts, teachers from Qwalasela and Enqoleni respectively also commented on this. Thus, learners using the EIA programme seem to have developed basic literacy, numeracy and the ability to apply basic skills to new problems (Lockheed et al., 1991). This development of skills can be explained via educational development and open learning theory but also links directly to a process of empowerment of the learners.

The teachers also described the English competence of the learners frequently. In the 2003 questionnaires, the typical responses were exemplified by that of principal 17 *"good pronunciation of words and sentences*". In the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 81 stated the *"learners can pronounce correctly"*. Similar positions were expressed by participants in the 2001 personal accounts. Furthermore, in the 2003 personal accounts principal 38 commented that the learners *"gain more vocabulary and their pronunciation is promoted"*. As this was also one of OLSET's (1995; 2007) objectives, the link between educational development and open learning theory and empowerment principles is once more made clear. Increased use of English is explored further under the outcome of 'English vs mother-tongue usage' below.

In addition to developing skills and competence, the programme appears to cater for the different learners' abilities, as is called for in open learning (Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992). However, this was only mentioned once in the 2001 personal accounts. An educator from Siphakmile School commented that the programme "*accommodates all groups of learners as they have different abilities*". Despite this theme having arisen only once, it is important as it signifies that the programme is not only catering for the divide between rural and urban schools in South Africa but also for different learners within the same classroom (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990). Thus, equitable access to education is being demonstrated. This should result in educational change and hence development and consequent opportunities for empowerment (Lockheed et al., 1991).

It also seems that teachers and learners are being motivated by using the EIA programme, as reported in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts and questionnaires. As discussed under the outcome of skills development, this indicates interpersonal psychological empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000). Furthermore, for a distance education programme to be successful the users of the programme need to be motivated (Guy, 1999). "*The learners are motivated*" was a comment that an educator from Msebe Primary School wrote in the 2003 personal accounts that directly exemplifies this.

Maton and Salem (1995), Prestby et al. (1990) and Speer et al., (1995) found that the organisational features of empowering community settings included peer-based support systems. It is suggested that the EIA programme may offer both the teachers and the learners the opportunity to socialise by improving their ability to communicate, as the following principal in the 2001 personal accounts testified "*the programme enables learners to communicate easily*". Evidence that this increased ability to communicate was resulting from participation in the EIA programme was provided in the 2001 and 2003 personal accounts, as well as in the 2003 questionnaires. Further discussion of related points about communication was provided under the outcomes of 'opportunities', 'skills development' and 'working in unison'.

8.1.2. Medium-term outcomes

8.1.2.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of action

Zimmerman (2000) views empowerment as a process - a mechanism by which individuals, organisations and communities gain mastery over their own lives by having an active role. Psychological empowerment includes learning about controlling agents and acting to influence those agents (Zimmerman, 1995). Furthermore, psychological empowerment is not an individual or an intra-psychic phenomenon; rather it includes beliefs that goals can be achieved, awareness about resources and awareness of factors that hinder or enhance one's efforts to achieve those goals. Psychological empowerment therefore manifests itself in different perceptions, skills and behaviours for different people (Dalton et al., 2001).

In order to be psychological empowered at the interactional level of psychological empowerment, people must be aware of their own behavioural choices. By learning their own options, they are

able to exert control over their environment. The ability to mobilise resources is thus an essential part of this component of psychological empowerment, as it suggests environmental mastery. This, in turn, provides a link between perceived control and taking action to exert control (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

The behavioural component of psychological empowerment refers to actions taken to influence outcomes directly (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). Theorists who concentrate only on the behavioural perspective, such as Balcazar (1993), state that empowerment comes about as result of environmental variables, for example, access to resources. These resources may be material or may involve social resources, for example, knowledge, peer helping or less tangible resources (Dalton et al., 2001). Empowerment thus involves identifying, gaining access to and using these resources.

One can thus infer that the current outcome of 'action' would need to occur at the psychological level of empowerment with components from the behavioural and interactional levels. Furthermore, it can be inferred that different skills and behaviours would indicate empowerment for different people. Bearing this in mind, certain of the teachers using the EIA programme could be regarded as manifesting such traits.

The respondents demonstrated instances of having minimal resources that were used to maximum capacity. Principal 23 in the 2003 personal accounts commented "*although we had problems at the beginning as the programme did not have sufficient funds to sustain the programme, we did not despair but ran the programme with the little resources we had*". In the 2001 personal accounts, the HOD of the foundation phase at Mdlazi Primary School reported "*she* (the OLSET coordinator) *gave me the radio the cassettes and the workbooks the radio didn't work, I bought the radio cassette because I felt I was getting late*". In the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 37 stated that she *"find*(s) *material for reading and written work"*.

Linked to resource mobilisation is involvement of the community. The nuances of community involvement are best explained via an extended quote from a principal at KwaMaquza Lower Primary School provided in the 2001 personal accounts "*our grade one teacher was on sick leave*

and listened to the radio at home. She knew that it would help her class and learned the songs before she returned to school. Thereafter, she requested her neighbours to listen to the radio daily whilst she was at school. When she returned home they told her what had happened and she was able to teach her class what she had learned from them." The nuances in this comment also provide support for how the environment helps to sustain development in an open learning educational programme (Geen, 2005; Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992). The environment of the majority of the sample in this study was that of rural schools, which are usually impoverished. Hence, it is commendable that the most of the participants in this study are using what little resources they have and involving the community in the learning process.

In the 2003 questionnaires, there was only one instance of the proactive nature of the learners in the EIA lessons. An educator from Realeboga Pre-School stated "*I sometimes tell them words and ask for explanation and they said it without my translation*". Thus by involving the learners in the radio lessons the students' skills were being developed and they were therefore being empowered (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hopkins et al., 1994). Despite there only being one such instance in all the data collected, the researcher felt that this demonstrated how certain of the learners were also being empowered in terms of their own behaviour or reactions to the radio lessons as a result of the open learning method being used (Furtwengler, 1996; Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Lodge, 2005; Marland, 1997).

8.1.2.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of independence

As previously discussed, a critical awareness of one's environment implies an understanding of the required resources, how to acquire them and the skills to use them (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). It also indicates educational development (Hopkins et al., 1994; Lockheed et al., 1991; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Williams, 2005).

It has already been established that the educators are being equipped with the skills to use the OLSET resources and they have demonstrated an ability to do so. The ability to mobilise resources is thus an essential part of the interactional component of psychological empowerment, as it suggests environmental mastery (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). As discussed in the previous

outcome, there is an element of resource mobilisation among those using the EIA programme. However, the teachers do appear to be somewhat dependent on OLSET, as exemplified in the following instances that arose in the 2001 personal accounts and 2001 and 2003 questionnaires. In the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts, a teacher from St. Peter Claver Primary school made statements that expressed a tendency to be dependent on OLSET - *" I sometimes do not have the apparatus the radio request"*, while teacher 32 in the 2001 questionnaires felt that the programme did not provide enough *"material for reading and written work"*. In the 2003 questionnaires, the teachers requested that OLSET provide them with assessment standards. In the 2001 personal accounts, a teacher from Goland Primary School stated, "*I would like OLSET to develop workbooks where children can write numbers, words and colouring"*. These suggest an inability to work with the resources that teachers do have in a proactive manner by extending or developing further materials or activities on the basis of those already provided. It appears as if some of the teachers are highly dependent on OLSET to provide them fully with all resources. It may also indicate that the distance education INSET OLSET is providing is not addressing the needs of the teachers in a sufficient manner (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hofmeyr, 1991; Hofmeyr & Hall, 1995; Review Committee on Curriculum, 2005; Robinson, 1997).

Similarly, the educators appear to be dependent on OLSET to provide them with curriculum outlines and so forth, although OLSET has provided teacher support to train teachers on OBE instruction and curriculum design. This dependency, however, appears to be situational, as the majority of the dependent statements were found in teachers from rural schools that have limited access to mobilising resources and training (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1983). It must further be noted that the majority of the teachers and principals used in this study were from rural schools. Hence this problem may have been exacerbated in this study due the nature of the sample obtained. Nonetheless, it could thus be inferred that the needs of the teachers in the rural schools have not yet been fully met despite strong efforts to address the urban-rural divide (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990). OLSET may thus need to readdress its objectives in order to give priority to rural schools.

8.1.2.3. Themes relevant to the outcome of participation in the community

Principal 1 in the 2001 personal accounts commented that "*being with OLSET signifies that we have a participative role in the community"*. In the 2001 questionnaires teacher 60 stated *"indirectly the whole community learns with this programme*". These responses indicate empowerment at the community level. Empowerment at the community level refers to individuals working in unison in an organised manner in order to improve linkages among community organisations and agencies that help maintain their quality of life (also relevant to the outcome of 'action') (Zimmerman, 2000).

8.1.2.4. Themes relevant to the outcome of power sharing

The next outcome to arise relative to empowerment was that of sharing of power. This theme is closely linked to participation as individuals that participate in decision-making should be sharing power as well.

Within the classroom context there is a sense of power being shared as *"it* [the EIA programme] *involves the learners and the educator*", as reported by a teacher from Monaghan Farm School in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires. In addition, principal 19 in the 2003 questionnaires reported that the "*learners become involved in the process"*. In the 2001 questionnaires, teacher 69 commented "*children ask the educator questions…*". As argued previously, learners' involvement in the lessons thus aids empowerment (Furtwengler, 1996; Hartshorne, 1978; Lodge, 2005). Furthermore, skills development for both the educators and students was demonstrated. This is further emphasised by the fact that communication occurred between the different stakeholders. The communicative opportunity that the EIA lessons provided teachers and learners with was explored in more detail in Chapter Seven.

Some of the teachers also felt empowered within themselves, as evidenced in the following statement from the 2001 personal accounts made by a teacher working at Joe Solomon Primary School *"…providing high quality teaching and learning materials which empower both pupils and teachers*". In the 2003 questionnaires, an educator from Malusi Omuhle Combined Primary added to this by saying "*suggestions* (are made) *the actual management of the activity is left to the educator to determine"*. Hence the EIA programme appeared to provide educational

developmental avenues in its INSET that seemed to create opportunities for the teachers to feel empowered and to pass this on, in turn, to the learners.

One key example of this appeared to be the INSET and support provided by OLSET. The Teacher Support Groups (TSG) were described by a coordinator in the 2003 personal accounts as an opportunity for *"ideas* (to be) *shared, lesson demonstrations are done, solutions to problems encountered during the implementation of the programme are also sought*". From this, it can be deduced that sharing of power is taking place during the TSG as the teachers were allowed opportunities to voice their own understandings and opinions and develop from others. Again, this empowerment may not be occurring as evenly as ideal, given the earlier finding that TSGs were not being run frequently and some of the regional coordinators stopped running the TSGs altogether as they had limited time to conduct normal workshops. Nonetheless, as determined under the theme of 'teacher support', some level of INSET was provided to the teachers, who found it very useful.

Further evidence of power sharing was seen in that the different stakeholders worked together in unison, as discussed under that theme in Chapter Seven. By working together in unison, participants shared their knowledge with each other and thereby learnt new skills from each other. This shared knowledge creation seemed to suggest that there was no sense of one teacher demonstrating power over another. Furthermore, OLSET's objective (Leigh, 1995; OLSET, 1995; 2007) of creating such partnerships should aid in ensuring sustained development of the programme (Geen, 2005).

From these examples, it is assumed that at the psychological level of empowerment, empowerment was being achieved via equal participation, skills development and resource usage for at least some participants in the EIA programme. All of these themes have been explored in individual sections.

8.1.3. Themes relevant to the short- and medium-term outcome of external factors

Since empowerment is linked to external forces that act on the individual, it is sensible to regard the external environment as an important theme in the process empowerment (Shearer & Reed,

2004). Furthermore, an empowered individual is able to exert control over his/her environment if he/she understands his/her own surroundings (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). This does seem to be occurring through the EIA programme, as evident in the following example provided by an educator in the 2003 personal accounts *"despite a lack of electricity, the OLSET project is doing well at Reagile Primary School because batteries are provided to the school"*. A coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts also reported that teachers comment "*it makes preparation easier and materials are provided by OLSET in line with the 2005 Curriculum"*. These quotes also exemplify the fact that teachers appreciated the resources OLSET provided. In the 2003 questionnaires, an educator from Welani Primary School testified that the materials "*are a big evidence in teaching"*. Principal 4 in the 2001 questionnaires acknowledged that the EIA programme is a *"good resource"*.

Despite the appreciation shown, the teachers still had the ability to recognise that the radios that OLSET provided them with did not appear to be of a good quality in all the qualitative data collected, as discussed under the outcome of 'material provision'. Thus, a critical awareness of the resources provided was demonstrated. A critical awareness of the environment also includes an understanding of causal agent/s. For example, in the 2003 questionnaires principal 14 responded that OLSET "*provides effective resource material which stimulates learning"*. Principal 8 in the 2001 questionnaires recognised that *"teachers have less work*" since using the EIA programme. In the 2001 personal accounts, a teacher from Ifafa Junior Primary School stated, "*the colours used attract learners*". A coordinator in the 2003 personal accounts added "*the teachers say that the materials make their teaching easy and effective. Learners love and enjoy the programme"*.

Another causal agent teachers recognised across all forms of the qualitative data obtained was their lack of proper training, an aspect OLSET seeks to address directly through the EIA programme. Furthermore, a teacher in the 2001 personal accounts from Goland Primary School also recognised "*most of the children's parents being illiterate and unemployed, thus children hardly receive any educational support from their parents"*. This suggests that certain of the teachers were aware of their external environments, i.e. the economic and socio-political contexts of their learners' lives, and how these aided or hindered in the educational process (Geen, 2005;

Torimiro et al., 2004). The ability to mobilise resources was also evident as discussed under the outcome of 'action'.

Thus it would appear that the users of the EIA programme were empowered in terms of their external environment. However, there were a few contradictions of this provided in the data. Two principals in the 2001 questionnaires stated that the radio and audiotapes were easily stolen yet they did not express views on how they would to try to rectify this problem. Furthermore, the principal of Monaghan Farm School in the 2003 personal accounts described *"In order to get to the school one has to cross a lazy river to get to the school. One problem is that the river that children have to cross poses a major challenge with regards to the OLSET programme. The principal related how the school has lost three learners to the river. In the rainy season, the river becomes a dangerous monster and as a result, the school has decided to close on rainy days. Consequently, learners miss out on lessons in the OLSET programme whenever it rains."* From this account, one can see that the individual had a critical awareness of the surroundings and causal agents within it. However resources available were not used, as the school could have asked the community to help solve the problem instead of simply closing (Geen, 2005). The closure of the school deprived children of an education, which hindered development (Lockheed et al., 1991).

Therefore, despite some individuals appearing to be empowered on this level, there is a clear sense that other respondents were not. This is in accordance with empowerment theory, which states that empowerment changes depend on the population and context (Zimmerman, 2000). Linked to this idea of gaining mastery over one's environment is an outcome that emerged directly from the data as opposed to the theoretical framework, that of the OLSET material being used in various areas of learning or 'multiuse of OLSET resources'.

8.1.4. Outcomes that arose from the data

8.1.4.1. Themes relevant to the outcome of multiuse of OLSET resources

It was made abundantly clear by the participants in the 2001 and 2003 questionnaires that teachers were using the OLSET material in other areas of learning, as evident in the following two accounts. An educator from Nhlonipho Primary School reported *"...when doing life skills I*

use the rural poster in places we live...", while *" ...I use the posters to make sentences relevant with the pictures on the poster"* was stated by an educator from Malusi Omuhle Primary School.

This suggests that some of the teachers were using the available resources to meet their needs and those of the national curriculum. Linked to the previous discussion of the external environment theme, this may suggest that these teachers were becoming empowered as they developed the ability to mobilise resources to gain mastery over their environment (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000). It is troubling, though, that other teachers appeared to be so dependent on the OLSET materials that they did not seek resources from other available sources or develop creative ways to utilise those resources that they did have. This suggests that were the EIA programme to stop functioning, these teachers would almost certainly not be able to mobilise alternative resources. This links to the theme of dependency explored under the 'independence' outcome.

8.1.4.2. Themes relevant to the outcome of participation

The outcome of participation is the second outcome that arose directly from the data and not from theoretical principles. Participation is closely linked to the matter of participation in the community, in that the same inherent action is taking place. Participation, however, refers to an individual taking part in one action but not necessarily engaging at the community level (as in the 'participation in the community' outcome). Despite this, one could view the 'participation' in this case as occurring at the community level as the learners were reported to be participating as groups in the EIA lessons (Zimmerman, 2000). Furthermore, as argued by Furtwengler (1996), Goldman and Newman (1998), Hopkins et al. (1994) and Lodge (2005), by involving students in the learning process, empowerment becomes an inevitable result. In addition, empowerment has been found to occur in previous research where open learning methods were used (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997).

This outcome does not refer to collective action undertaken to mobilise resources at the community level but rather to the opportunity each individual has to allow his or her own view to be heard. It also refers to the individual's involvement in improving his or her skills and that of the group by working in unison. In the 2003 questionnaires, an educator from Bhekaphambili Primary School referred to "*learners are active and attentive throughout the lesson*". In both the

2001 and 2003 personal accounts, as well as in the 2001 questionnaires, teachers also commented on how the learners were active participants in the radio lessons. A teacher from Reagile Primary School commented in both the 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts on how *"all pupils co-operate well, actively involved"*. In addition, a teacher from Ingaqa Primary school stated in the 2001 questionnaires and personal accounts that her students *"actively participate in the lesson by dancing and listening actively"*. Active student participation is viewed by Hartshorne (1978) as a vital aspect of educational development.

8.1.5. English versus mother-tongue usage

In order for the EIA programme to have been effective in developing the educators' English skills, the teachers would have had to develop the capacity to teach more frequently in English as opposed to mother-tongue. Connected to this is the notion that the learners would need to understand more English and require less help understanding using mother-tongue. This would also indicate a sense of empowerment, as command of a language that would ensure competitiveness nationally and internationally would be developed and thus a gain in mastery over their own lives and futures would be achieved by the participants (Mbeki 2004 a; 2004b; Zimmerman, 1995; 2000)

The statistical data confirmed that more English was being employed in the classrooms, based on evidence from the observations of the Gauteng classrooms investigated. It was found that there was a statistically significant difference between English and mother-tongue usage, with English as the language most frequently used ($X^2 = 186.58$, $df = 35$, $p < .0001$). This finding was also reported by teachers in the questionnaires and personal accounts. Hence, this finding was supported by all the data.

This finding supports evidence from the thematic data that skills development takes place if the second language is introduced gradually, as is the case in the OLSET programme (Cummins, 1979; de Klerk, 1995; Department of Education, 2002; Hawes, 1979; Langhan, 1992; Leigh, 1995; MacDonald, 1990; Ramirez et al., 1991). Furthermore, it provides tentative evidence that OLSET is using a model of transitional bilingual education (Lara-Alecio et al., 2004; Valverde & Armendariz, 1999). However, only thirty-six classroom observations were conducted therefore a

more extensive set of observations directly examining this issue would need to be made prior to drawing definite conclusions.

8.2. Conclusion

As seen in Figure 21, through implementing the EIA programme opportunities for teacher learning and communication were being offered, and were perceived by teachers to be empowering as new knowledge was being gained. This was expressed by a teacher from Bekekayo Intermediate School in the 2003 questionnaires *"...the series incorporates opportunities for children to listen, speak, read and write in English"*. In addition, the support offered was seen as empowering as confidence was created and the sharing of ideas and power encouraged. For example, the Teacher Support Groups (TSG) were described by a coordinator in the 2003 personal accounts as opportunities for *"ideas* (to be) *shared, lesson demonstrations are done, solutions to problems encountered during the implementation of the programme are also sought*". Participation in the lessons, as principal 19 in the 2003 questionnaires reported "*learners become involved in the process"*, and the collaboration of different stakeholders further encouraged the sharing of power among different groups. For example, in the 2001 personal accounts an educator from Ithongasi Public Primary School commented "*there is mutualism between the radio lesson and the educator*". In addition, an educator working at Kwandabezinhle Primary School observed that there was "*mutual assistance between teachers and learners*". The teachers themselves also felt that in the TSGs they were able to work effectively in teams. The support provided by OLSET was reported by many teachers and principals as helping to motivate the teachers.

Furthermore, despite the teachers and learners having no direct influence in the decision-making at OLSET, they still appeared to be empowered as they had direct influence in the radio lessons and, to an extent, in the school, as they were able to persuade school management to continue to use EIA (Edwards et al., 2002). This is in line with literature which suggests that an empowered teacher is viewed as a professional, thus the teachers require improved status, increased knowledge and access to decision-making (Edwards et al., 2002; Maeroff, 1989; Stone, 1995). As already concluded, the teachers did develop new skills and knowledge and a different decision-making status in different contexts through the INSET OLSET provided. To an extent, it could

thus be argued that the teachers' statuses were being acknowledged, as they became perceived as able to contribute in the community. However, not all of the educators' needs in the rural areas were addressed, for example, most of the teachers from rural areas requested more resources and curriculum design from OLSET, which suggests a dependence on OLSET and thus a lack of empowerment on their part.

Certain teachers did develop the notion that one can engage critically with one's external environment though. For example, they seemed able to perceive the negative effects of the parents' lack of educational background, which could indicate that these teachers have gained mastery over their lives and their external environments, and are thus being empowered. The teachers and principals also demonstrated an awareness of their and their learners' levels of competence, and were able to recognise the limitations that their poor training had on their teaching ability.

Empowering learners requires the same conditions as those required for empowering teachers i.e. children need to be respected in order to obtain self-esteem and they need to be active participants in the learning process (Goldman & Newman, 1998; Hartshorne, 1978; Hopkins et al., 1994; Lodge, 2005; Stone, 1995; Timpson, 1988). Within the discussions presented in Chapters Seven and Eight, it was made clear that the children became active learners in the radio-lessons, which aided classroom relationships; that they were sharing power with the teachers; and that they were being motivated, so much so that their rates of absenteeism had decreased. Interactive radio instruction and distance education strives for these effects (Bosch, 1996, 1997; Creed & Joynes, 2004; Perraton, 1982; 1993; 1998; 1999; 2000; Perraton & Creed, 2000). Furthermore, using the observation schedule, it was concluded that in the thirty-six classrooms observed, English was being used significantly more frequently than mother-tongue by both the teachers and learners. This finding suggests that in these classrooms the skill of English usage was being mastered, which also suggests that empowerment of teachers to teach English and empowerment of the learners to speak English was being achieved (Zimmerman, 2000).

Various stakeholders i.e. SABC, parents and community organisations, were also seen to be involved in aiding the schools. This demonstrated community involvement in mobilising

resources, however, not all teachers demonstrated the ability to work with the resources they had and to obtain other resources to aid their teaching. A few other themes of concern were also raised based on the discussions presented in Chapters Seven and Eight. These themes included dependence, staffing issues at OLSET which had an impact on the number of teacher support groups held, differing critical engagement with the available resources, and the quantity, quality and delivery of OLSET resources. The latter two themes, in particular, have been argued to be as a result of OLSET having problems in 2001 with funding and in 2003 with the DfID procurement. This indicates how heavily the programme is dependent on funding to carry out its set objectives effectively, as well as to create opportunities for participants to become empowered.

In terms of skills and abilities, empowerment produced by the EIA programme could thus be seen as occurring at three levels for certain of those taking part in it (Lockheed et al., 1991; Zimmerman, 2000). At the individual level of empowerment, a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts demonstrated how the teachers' skills had developed and that they subsequently had new abilities "*Many have developed the capacity to relate the OLSET materials and methodology in a wider context and apply it effectively to the entire OBE curriculum*". At the organisational level, by having the EIA programme within schools the school governing bodies provided opportunities for individuals to develop their skills and abilities. Furthermore, across all four forms of the data, the teachers themselves reported that the self-confidence of learners and teachers, as well as their abilities, improved, which thus seems to suggest an effect at the community level of empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000). It is inherent within empowerment theory, though, that empowerment differs between different individuals and context (Zimmerman, 2000). Therefore what is an issue for one individual in one context many not be an issue for another individual in another context. This implies that while the EIA programme does create an environment suitable for empowerment processes to occur, not necessarily every individual or community will be able to take advantage of that opportunity. It is worth bearing in mind that achievement of 'empowerment' within those participating in the EIA programme thus rests to a certain degree with those participating themselves as opposed to necessarily being developed by the programme itself. Empowerment, by its very nature, depends on the willingness of individuals and communities to themselves engage with the processes – the best that OLSET

can achieve is to ensure that the conditions and resources suitable for creating empowerment are provided, which to a large degree is clear from the data gathered about the implementation of the EIA programme. Recommendations aimed at addressing these issues are provided in the synopsis in the next chapter.

It can thus be concluded that the EIA programme is not only performing effectively according to its set objectives but also according to its underlying theory of educational development and open learning. In order to explore fully the changes that have resulted in the target audience of the EIA programme it is helpful to draw on educational development, open learning and empowerment theory. From the discussions presented in Chapters Seven and Eight, it can be deduced that educational development, such as skills development, has occurred. The correct application of open learning, conditions are created in which educational change can take place. As a result of meeting short- and medium-term outcomes in educational change, empowerment processes can, and in some cases did, take place (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997). The evaluation model posed as basis for this study is thus empirically supported, where open learning principles have been effectively applied, educational development has taken place and empowerment is evident. Conversely, in the data from those schools where educational development and open learning had not been effective (such as INSET in rural schools) empowerment processes at the individual level were also clearly compromised.

Chapter 9: Synopsis, implications, recommendations and limitations

9.1. Introduction

Having thus discussed the underlying theory, methods, results and interpretations of the data, this chapter will present a brief synopsis of the research. As well as concluding comments, implications and recommendations for OLSET and for future research and some of the limitations of this study.

9.2. Synopsis

This study has focused on the perceptions of a sample of teachers and principals using the EIA programme to establish whether the programme was achieving its outcomes and whether, as a by-product of implementing the programme, those taking part in it were being empowered, based on analyses of the data collected through questionnaires, personal accounts and classroom observations obtained in 2001 and 2003. The data obtained was analysed using thematic content analysis, and the themes triangulated by examining the responses of teachers across two years of the programme's operation as well as across the data from the various sources. Based on themes identified in the data, it was possible to gain insight into teachers' perceptions of the programme and, in particular, teachers' and principals' awareness of issues relating to the programme's implementation, its value to the respondents and certain issues relating to its service quality.

On the basis of the analysis, it was possible to draw conclusions as to whether the programme was meeting its objectives with respect to supporting teachers and learners at school and classroom levels, as well as in providing in-service training for teachers. There were also recurrent outcomes in the data such as skills development on the part of the educators and learners, which provided clear indications that empowerment had taken place. For example, principal 28 in the 2001 personal accounts stated that "*skills such as listening, speaking, imitation, singing, sentence making are really enhanced through fun, play, movement and sharing*".

Outcomes emerging from the data suggested that OLSET's mission statements, as well as its objectives based on open learning assumptions, were for the most part being met, although

certain failures of the EIA programme were also identified. The quantity, quality and delivery of the OLSET materials were recurrently questioned by the teachers – problems in relation to this could perhaps be due to funding shortages (2001) and DfID procurement processes (2003) (Potter & Naidoo, 2006). The infrequency of the valued teacher support groups was also raised. This theme could perhaps be attributed to staffing issues, specifically a shortage of programme staff in the field (Potter, 2002). Both of these problems highlighted the dependence of the EIA programme and OLSET, as an NGO, on its donors and the financial resources thus available**.**

The data also indicated that the EIA programme offered many avenues for educational change and empowerment for both the learners and teachers using this programme. However, the gap between rural and urban schools has not yet been fully bridged (Ewing & Setsubi, 1998; Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2005; Pillay, 1990).

Based on the recurrence of outcomes in the data such as abilities, action, independence, external factors, multiuse of OLSET resources, opportunities, participation, participation in the community, power sharing, skills development and working in unison, it would seem that certain of the target audiences of the EIA programme perceived that they had been empowered according to Zimmerman's (2000) model of empowerment. An example of how learners had been empowered was provided by an educator from Bhekaphambili Primary School, who said "*learners are active and attentive throughout the lesson*". An example of how the teachers had been empowered was provided by principal 1 in the 2001 personal accounts, who commented "*being with OLSET signifies that we have a participative role in the community"*.

However, only in the outcomes of abilities and skill development was empowerment seen to be occurring at the psychological, organisational and community levels (Zimmerman, 2000). At the individual level of empowerment, a coordinator in the 2001 personal accounts demonstrated how the teachers' skills have developed and how they now have new abilities "*Many have developed the capacity to relate the OLSET materials and methodology in a wider context and apply it effectively to the entire OBE curriculum*". Organisations that provide opportunities for people to gain control over their lives are empowering organisations (Zimmerman, 2000). These organisations have processes and structures that enhance members' skills and abilities, as well as

providing them with the mutual support required to enact community-level change. An empowering organisation may have little impact on policy, but may provide members with opportunities to develop skills, abilities and a sense of control (Minkler et al., 2001). By having the EIA programme within schools, the school governing bodies are providing opportunities for individuals to gain control over their lives. Furthermore, across all forms of data obtained, the teachers reported that the self-confidence of learners and teachers improved, as well as their abilities, which thus seems to suggest an effect at the community-level of empowerment (Zimmerman, 2000).

At the same time, however, there were indications from the questionnaire responses and personal accounts that certain of the teachers appeared to be dependent on OLSET for resources and curriculum plans. Furthermore, in certain cases schools did not appear to be using community resources, for example, the principal of Monaghan Farm School in the 2003 personal accounts described extensively how the school closed whenever the rains where too severe. There were both positive and negative aspects to the principal's feedback – on the one hand, a critical awareness of the surroundings and causal agents within it was shown, on the other hand, there appeared too little proactive action taken and available resources were not used as the school could have asked the community to help solve the problem instead of simply closing, which deprived children of an education and hindered development (Geen, 2005; Lockheed et al., 1991). One important implication of the divergent outcomes indicated under empowerment was that, at a certain level, empowerment depends on the willingness of the community or individual to be empowered – the EIA programme can provide resources and skills training to its participants but their level of engagement with those depends on them as well. This would suggest that further research is needed, particularly in relation to the lack of empowerment occurring in urban communities, to explore how the programme could more effectively encourage empowerment and independence processes.

9.3. Concluding comments, implications and recommendations

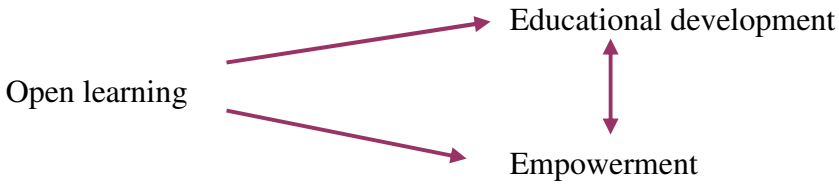
As shown in Figures 20 and 21 respectively, all outcomes identified related to the outcomes of the EIA programme were present in the data except for independence. It was suggested from the data that teachers from rural areas were dependent on OLSET for resources and curriculum

design. Furthermore, in the rural areas there was evidence to suggest that teachers were not able to mobilise resources and to work with what little they had. Due to delivery problems in 2001 and 2003, not all of the teachers and principals reported having received the OLSET materials on time. Teachers also requested more support from OLSET.

It was thus concluded, based on the analyses of a wide range of self-reports of the teachers and learners who were beneficiaries of the programme in 2001 and 2003 that the EIA programme was meeting its objectives with respect to educational development. In addition, side by side with educational development taking place in the schools involved in the programme, it was conclude that empowerment of programme beneficiaries was taking place.

This study has focused on three major clusters of variables, namely the intervention based on principles of open learning, educational development as represented by a series of short- and medium-term outcomes, and empowerment as represented by a series of short- and medium-term outcomes. The evaluation attempted to test a relationship between the intervention and educational development as well as empowerment outcomes as in Figure 11.

The data from teachers' and principles' self reports in both 2001 and 2003 indicate that there has been a relationship between the intervention, educational development and empowerment, and that the relationship has been a directional one as follows:



There has also been indications from the data that the relationship may be a directional one, namely:

Open learning → Educational development → Empowerment

It has not been possible to test this relationship in this study. It is thus suggested that this form a focus of future research, to establish whether open learning has a moderating relationship with

both educational development and empowerment, or whether educational development is a mediator between open learning and empowerment, as this study suggests.

In conclusion, although the data in this study are based on teachers' and principals' self-reports, the themes from the analyses indicate largely positive perceptions of the EIA programme. The fact that the programme is positively viewed by teachers and principals across all seven of the provinces in which it operated in 2001 and 2003 provides evidence of why this programme has succeeded while other similar projects have failed. In addition, themes from the teacher and principal questionnaires, as well personal accounts, were related to Zimmerman's theory (2000) of empowerment. The data indicated the programme has a positive influence in this regard. For example, a teacher working at Joe Solomon Primary School commented that the EIA programme was *"…providing high quality teaching and learning materials which empower both pupils and teachers*".

Furthermore, the analyses supported the notion advanced by Hartshorne (1978) that in order for educational development to be effective, community development needs to be inherent to it. The evidence from this study also supports previous research that has demonstrated that in programmes where open learning is applied well, education development occurs and empowerment also occurs (Howarth & Shardlow, 2000; Marland, 1997).

The evidence from the analyses of the data gathered in 2001 and 2003 would suggest that OLSET has been able to maintain quality service both during financially strained and financially abundant times. Thus, the programme has the potential to offer direction to other similar projects in the developing world. By evaluating the programme based on theory, implications of practice by these participants was obtained, which offers some understanding on the processes taking place, which can also be beneficial to other groups (Brooks, 1971; Fawcett et al., 2003). Examples such as teachers listening independently to the programme to prepare for their teaching also provided support for how the environment helps to sustain development in an open learning educational programme (Geen, 2005; Hodgson, 1993; Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Rowntree, 1992).

This research has thus provided indications of the importance of taking note of teachers' needs in INSET, as well as the importance of external environments in sustaining development and encouraging empowerment. Active involvement of the learners in the programme, as well as skills development through INSET, emerged to have led to empowerment through the EIA's use of open learning theory.

9.3.1 Recommendations for the programme

A number of suggestions were made by the teachers and principals for improvements in the way in which the programme operates. Some of these themes could be resolved by considering the following recommendations. Since power sharing outside the schools appears to be taking place in the TSG, it seems sensible that these meetings should be reintroduced by all regional coordinators. Perhaps the regional coordinators could aim to hold one TSG per district or area once a year and then give teachers the responsibility of organising further TSG throughout the year themselves, thus empowering and reducing practical workload at the same time.

The quality of the radios should also be carefully monitored to avoid the disgruntlement found in this study among the teachers. A form of control of the quality of these radios could be conducted by the OLSET radio producers. Similar, action could be taken by the radio producers to ensure that the radio stations are broadcasting the correct lessons during the school term and with no advertisements during the EIA programme.

Lastly, priority should be placed on ensuring that the INSET provided to rural schools is sufficient to meet the needs of the rural teachers. This could be done by having the educators fill out evaluative forms at the workshops and TSGs and by modifying and improving these regionally, based on the feedback received.

9.3.2 Recommendations for future research

Based on the results of this study, as well as the application of the evaluation model used to structure this investigation, the following recommendations for future research can be made:

- This investigation concentrated on obtaining self-reports of the teachers and principals. Future research could enhance this study by obtaining objective views

through using standardised scales to measure these constructs. This would also enable future researchers to analyse data from a wider range of participants. It would also enable investigation as to whether the evaluation model applied in this investigation is directional.

- A similar investigation to this one could be conducted based on learners self-reports.
- A control cohort could be used to compare teachers and learners using EIA to those who are not. This would provide an indication of benefits (if any) of using EIA. It would also enable testing of the dependent variables in this evaluation (educational development and empowerment) under conditions under which implementation of open learning principles is undertaken, withheld or varied.
- By this means, the independent variables at work in the specific INSET model used by OLSET could be established.
- Research could also be undertaken to establish which bilingual model is being used in the classrooms using the EIA programme.
- Lastly, further explorations of unpredicted but valuable outcomes of implementing the EIA programme, such as empowerment, could be carried out, as well as specific research designed to establish the most effective means of encouraging uptake and independence in those taking part in the programme.

9.4. Limitations of this study

There are a number of limitations in this study. It was difficult to develop the database of schools involved in the EIA programme, for the reason that school-based data from the seven provinces in which the programme was operating was not consistent, and, in certain cases, was unavailable. The database thus had a number of limitations. For example, information on the school setting was not available. Furthermore, from the database it was not possible to distinguish the designation of the teachers i.e. if they were teachers, principals or HODs. This had the effect of limiting the data available to the researcher in drawing the sample on which the study was based. This limitation also applied to the analyses of the data. The researcher was only able to differentiate the school setting in the personal accounts on the basis of the verbal information provided by the teachers involved in the study. This information was thus applied post hoc as

opposed to a priori in the analyses of the personal account responses in both the 2001 and 2003 data.

Limitations also stem from the research design. This investigation used an exploratory design, based on thematic content analysis of the perspectives of a sample of teachers and principals involved in the programme (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). While content analysis can have strengths in being an in-depth, exhaustive and potentially rigorous process (Krippendorf, 1980; McBurney, 1998), it can suffer from sampling and post hoc ergo propter hoc limitations affecting validity, as well as potential reliability problems (Potter, 2004; Ntshoe, 2000).

The researcher has attempted to avoid validity and reliability pitfalls by using in-vivo coding, data triangulation and time triangulation procedures, in which words and phrases from the 2001 questionnaires were first used to develop an initial set of outcomes then further developed in the thematic analysis. A similar procedure was then applied to the 2001 personal accounts. The computer search capacities of the Atlas.ti programme were then used to cross-search and combine the outcomes in these two data sources. The 2003 questionnaires and personal accounts were then each analysed separately. The four data sets were then cross-searched and combined. Furthermore, the researcher was guided by her interpretation of the theory in order to classify various outcomes into short- or medium-term outcomes.

In addition, once the analyses of the verbal data were completed, the researcher used the database in 2003 to select five schools from the Gauteng region, in which thirty-six classroom observations were conducted. The rationale for this was to enable in-depth focus on the teaching practices of a number of teachers involved in the programme as a basis for interpretation and substantiation of trends from the verbal data provided by the larger sample of teachers and principals in 2001 and 2003. The observational data were essentially used to determine the frequency of English and mother-tongue usage. It was postulated that if more English were being used a new skill would been developed by both the teachers and learners and hence empowerment could be indicated.

Despite the triangulation and other steps taken to ensure reliability and validity, there were weaknesses due to sampling limitations as well as the possibility of post hoc ergo propter hoc influence in the interpretive process. The analysis focused on self-reports provided by the teachers and principals, which are also subject to distortion and bias. Since only those that volunteered responded it was interesting to note that despite the inherent power relations inherent in the teacher sand principals responding to people providing them with resources and not wanting to antagonize them a fair amount of negative feedback was obtained.

Due to weaknesses in both sampling and design, the findings from the analyses thus remain exploratory and tentative. While the in-vivo content analytic procedure used enabled teachers' perceptions of the programme to be accurately coded and reported in their own words and also enabled recurring trends in the data to be highlighted, generalizations from this study to the broader universe implementing the EIA programme are not possible.

Despite these limitations, it is hoped that other individuals working in the developing world may find value in this investigation. The researcher has attempted to provide a description of how a programme using simple and widely available radio and print technologies has worked developmentally to provide support for large numbers of teachers and learners in a developing country, and of how large numbers of teachers in a developing country have perceived the programme's value. The strengths and limitations identified both in the functioning of the programme and in the design and implementation of this research thus hopefully provide a useful template for further exploration and utilization of open learning, educational development and empowerment theory.

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APPENDICES