

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**IMPLEMENTING THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT: A
CASE STUDY OF FET HISTORY EDUCATORS IN THE UMLAZI
DISTRICT, KWAZULU-NATAL**

By

GENGATHAREN PILLAY

8319426

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of**

Doctor of Public Administration

School of Public Administration and Development Management

Faculty of Management Studies

Supervisor: Professor Y. Penceliah

2012

DECLARATION

I, Gengatharen Pillay declare that:

- (i) The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise stated, is my own original work.
- (ii) This thesis has not previously been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This thesis does not contain other persons data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- (iv) This thesis does not contain other persons writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - (a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced;
 - (b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.
- (v) Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am the author, co-author or editor, I have indicated in detail which part of the publication was actually written by myself alone and have fully referenced such publications.
- (vi) This thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the thesis and in the reference section.

Gengatharen Pillay

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation and gratitude is tendered to the following people and organisations in the completion of this thesis:

- Professor Yogi Penceliah for her invaluable guidance, encouragement and penetrating criticisms . all of which have contributed to enhancing the quality of this thesis.
- The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education for granting permission to conduct this study.
- The FET History educators in the Umlazi District for their valuable input.
- FET History Curriculum Specialists and colleagues from other Districts in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education for agreeing to participate in the research and for their constant support and encouragement.
- Mr Deepak Singh, Specialist Statistician from the Durban University of Technology for his kind assistance in analysing the data.
- Dr Saths Govender for his expertise in meticulously editing this entire thesis.
- Dr Logie Govender for his constructive and critical comments.
- The library staff from the Edgewood and Westville campuses for their unstinting help in sourcing materials.
- The doctoral class, especially Dr Devan Singh, for his constant support, motivation and friendship throughout my studies.

DEDICATION

To my mother Aniamma and my late dad Subrayan, both of you have endured great hardship and struggle. This has served as a constant inspiration and imbued me with a sense of determination to accomplish this study. To my brothers, sister, aunts and uncles for their incessant love, care and encouragement. My son, Lasanthan for his unwavering love, support and words of encouragement during this enduring journey of learning. My wife, Saloshini, a special word of gratitude for your, valuable input, care and patience in assiduously guiding the progress of my thesis.

ABSTRACT

The study focused on education within a public administration paradigm. It highlights the development of curriculum policy in South Africa after 1994 by detailing the theories and models used in analysing public policy. Specific reference is made to the implementation of education policy, *inter alia*, the National Curriculum Statement: A case study of FET History in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

An attempt at transforming South Africa's education policy post-1994 came with the implementation of the policy model known as Curriculum 2005 (C2005), which was officially launched on 24 March 1997. The principles of C2005 signalled a new era for education policy-making and implementation in South Africa.

During the implementation of the C2005 policy, there was a groundswell of disconcert among educators regarding the complexities and the concomitant difficulties in effecting the new modes of assessment. In 1999, former Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, embarked on a listening campaign out of which emerged his '*Call to Action*'. A Review Committee was subsequently appointed to investigate the structure and design of C2005. It recommended a policy shift referred to as the Revised National Curriculum Statements (RNCS) for the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education Training (FET) phases. In 2006, the interim policy referred to as Report 550, was replaced with the new policy known as the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for the FET phase. The essence of the NCS emphasised the development of a high level of knowledge and skills for all learners. The training of educators and implementation of the NCS policy occurred between 2006 and 2008 across all public schools in the Republic of South Africa. The first cohort of learners matriculated under the new NCS in 2008 and the results were less than satisfactory, leading to widespread criticism.

Arguably, the implementation of the NCS led to a decline in the percentage pass rates of learners writing the National Senior Certificate examinations

(Grade 12). In 2009, the national pass percentage was 60.6% while in KwaZulu-Natal the pass percentage was 61.1%. Education stakeholders complained about the inadequate subject-specific training and the demanding administrative workload.

The primary aim of this study was to ascertain the levels of efficacy of the implementation of the *NCS* policy with specific reference to FET History in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal. In order to corroborate the hypothesis of this study an empirical investigation was undertaken which consisted of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Data gathered was analysed using the Predictive Analytic Soft Ware (PASW) Statistics version 18.0.

The findings of the research study reveal specific trends and scenarios. Generally, FET History educators and Curriculum Specialists from the Umlazi District and from other districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal, indicate the *NCS* was not effectively implemented because of the following key reasons:

- All role players were not adequately consulted.
- The FET training workshops lacked depth, were inadequate and often poorly co-ordinated.
- There were far too many and often-contradictory policy documents which led to an increased administrative burden on FET educators.
- The lack of effective monitoring and evaluation of the *NCS* implementation across the grades in the FET band.
- Inadequate provision of relevant resource materials such as textbooks, and where available, these were not effectively used.
- Content overload, especially in Grade 12.
- Ambiguous and unattainable assessment requirements.
- Insufficient and poorly trained Curriculum Specialists. The job description of Curriculum Specialists needs urgent and swift clarification.

Based on these findings several detailed and practical recommendations were suggested. In addition, a curriculum implementation model has been developed to assist FET History educators specifically with any further curriculum-related matters.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	i
DECLARATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
ABSTRACT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xviii
LIST OF FIGURES	xxii
LIST OF TABLES	xxiv
LIST OF ANNEXURES	xxvi
CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Clarifying key concepts	2
1.2.1 Policy and public policy	2
1.2.2 Implementation	3
1.2.3 Curriculum	3
1.3 Frame of reference	5
1.4 The locus of the study	5
1.5 Vision, mission and goals of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education	8
1.5.1 Vision	8
1.5.2 Mission	8
1.5.3 Goals	8
1.6 Rationale for the study	9
1.7 Broad problems and issues to be investigated	16
1.7.1 Problem statement	16
1.7.2 Aim of the study	17
1.7.3 Objectives of the study	17
1.7.4 Key questions for the study	18
1.8 Overview of the research methodology	18

1.9. Limitations of the study	20
1.10 Structure of the Thesis	21
1.11 Conclusion	23
CHAPTER TWO: SOUTH AFRICA'S NATIONAL CURRICULUM WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	24
2.1 Introduction	24
2.2 The <i>Constitution of the Republic of South Africa</i> and the focus on Public Administration	24
2.3 South Africa's Education Policy Making Paradigms	28
2.3.1 South Africa's education policy before the 1990s	28
2.3.2 South Africa's education policy after the 1990s	30
2.4 Education policy changes after 1994	35
2.4.1 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)	37
2.4.2 Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR)	39
2.4.3 Legislative Framework: Education Policy Proposals	40
2.4.3.1 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)	42
2.4.3.2 <i>National Education Policy Act</i> (NEPA) (No. 27 of 1996)	47
2.4.3.2.1 Consultation on national education policy	49
2.4.3.2.2 Monitoring and evaluation of education under NEPA	50
2.5 The focus of education in the <i>Constitution of the Republic of South Africa</i>	51
2.6 Curriculum 2005: Lifelong learning for the twenty-first century	52
2.6.1 Towards a definition: Curriculum 2005 and Outcomes- Based Education (OBE)	57
2.6.1.1 Curriculum 2005	57
2.6.1.2 Outcomes-Based Education (OBE)	58
2.6.2 Implementing C2005 policy	58
2.6.3 Other challenges associated with the implementation of C2005	59

2.7 Minister of Education Asmal's Call to Action	63
2.7.1 C2005 Review Committee	65
2.7.2 Recommendations of the Review Committee	66
2.7.3 Post Review committee: The Revised National Curriculum Statement (<i>RNCS</i>)	68
2.7.4 History in the Revised National Curriculum Statement	69
2.8 The National Curriculum Statement (<i>NCS</i>) for FET Schools	71
2.8.1 Background	71
2.8.2 Implementing C2005 after 2002	74
2.8.3 Principles of the <i>NCS</i>	75
2.8.4 Structure and design features of the <i>NCS</i>	75
2.8.4.1 Subject choice selection and requirements for the awarding of the National Senior Certificate	77
2.9 Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: FET	78
2.9.1 Training for the <i>NCS</i>	79
2.9.1.1 Training of Curriculum Specialists by the National Department of Education National Department of Education	79
2.9.1.2 Implementing the <i>NCS</i> in the province of KwaZulu-Natal	81
2.9.1.3 Critiquing the implementation of the <i>NCS</i>	82
2.10 Conclusion	89
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES OF PUBLIC POLICY	91
3.1 Introduction	91
3.2 Conceptualising Policy and Public Policy	91
3.3 Theories on Policy Making	94
3.4 Models to analyse Public Policy	96
3.5 Models for analysing functional policy stages or phases	98
3.5.1 Alternate public policy models	106

3.6 Policy Models used in South Africa	107
3.6.1 Policy model used to transform South Africa's system of education	107
3.6.1.1 Step 1 - Problem recognition and issue identification	109
3.6.1.2 Step 2 - Agenda setting	110
3.6.1.2.1 Factors influencing agenda setting	113
3.6.1.2.2 Key role players in policy agenda setting	113
3.6.1.3 Step 3 - Policy formulation or design	114
3.6.1.4 Step 4 - Policy adoption	116
3.6.1.5 Step 5 - Policy implementation	117
3.6.1.5.1 Variables used for policy implementation:	121
The 5-C Protocol	
(i) Content	121
(ii) Context	122
(iii) Commitment	122
(iv) Capacity	123
(v) Clients and coalitions	126
3.6.1.6 Step 6 - Policy evaluation	128
3.6.1.6.1 Understanding policy evaluation	128
3.6.1.6.2 The purpose of policy evaluation	130
3.6.1.6.3 Focal areas of policy evaluation	131
3.6.1.6.4 Decision to evaluate	132
3.6.1.6.5 Evaluation design	133
3.6.1.6.6 Requirements for effective policy evaluation	134
3.6.1.6.7 Responsibility for policy evaluation	135
3.6.1.6.8 Constraints facing the policy evaluation process	136
3.6.1.6.9 Using the policy evaluation results	138
3.7 Conclusion	140

CHAPTER FOUR: REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS IN CURRICULUM POLICY DEVELOPMENT	142
4.1. Introduction	142
4.2 Reasons for curriculum change	143
4.3 Regional Curriculum Trends: Focus on Sub-Saharan Africa	145
4.3.1 Impact of policy decisions	146
4.3.2 Political change with reference to:	147
4.3.2.1 Mozambique	147
4.3.2.2 Namibia	148
4.3.3 Modernisation of the curriculum with reference to:	148
4.3.3.1 Mozambique	149
4.3.3.2 Namibia	153
4.4 International Curriculum Trends	159
4.4.1 Political change	160
4.4.2 Curriculum overload	161
4.4.3 Contribution to a first rate and equitable system of education	162
4.4.4 Modernisation of the curriculum	163
4.4.4.1 Content innovation	164
4.4.4.2 Assessment	169
4.5 Curriculum implementation	173
4.5.1 Teacher training and professional development	173
4.5.2 Resource materials	174
4.6 Monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum	176
4.7 Conclusion	177
CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	179
5.1 Introduction	179
5.2 The locality of the study: Umlazi District	179
5.3 The research paradigm: mixed method approach	180
5.3.1 The quantitative approach	182
5.3.2 The qualitative approach	185

5.3.3	Triangulation	187
5.3.4	Using case study methodology	188
5.3.4.1	Advantages of the case study method	192
5.3.4.2	Disadvantages of the case study method	192
5.4	The sampling process	193
5.4.1	The research sample	193
5.4.2	The target population	195
5.4.3	Determining the sample frame	197
5.4.4	The sample size	198
5.4.5	The sampling technique	198
5.5	Data Collection	200
5.5.1	Data collection methods	200
5.5.2	Ethical consideration in the collection of data	202
5.5.3	Quantitative data collection techniques	204
5.5.3.1	The questionnaire	204
5.5.3.2	Advantages of using questionnaires	208
5.5.3.3	Disadvantages of using questionnaires	209
5.5.3.4	Administration of the final questionnaire	210
5.5.3.5	Limitations of using questionnaires	211
5.5.4	Qualitative data collection techniques	212
5.5.4.1	The semi-structured interview	212
5.5.4.2	Limitations of the semi-structured interview	214
5.5.5	Other data collection techniques	215
5.5.6	Data analysis	215
5.6	Conclusion	218

PART B

6.7 Qualitative Results: Focus Group of FET History Curriculum Specialists from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education	293
6.8 Conclusion	320
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	322
7.1 Introduction	322
7.2 Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations	323
7.2.1 Lack of consultation	323
Conclusions	323
Recommendations	327
7.2.2 NCS FET History training workshops: lack of depth	328
Conclusions	328
Recommendations	330
7.2.3 Too many documents and administrative burden	334
Conclusions	334
Recommendations	336
7.2.4 Design features versus content	337
Conclusions	337
Recommendations	338
7.2.5 Monitoring and Evaluation of the NCS	339
Conclusions	339
Recommendations	341
7.2.6 Resource materials	342
Conclusions	342
Recommendations	344
7.2.7 Streamline content	345
Conclusions	345
Recommendations	345
7.2.8 Assessment	346
Conclusions	346
Recommendations	349

7.2.9 Curriculum Specialists	351
Conclusions	351
Recommendations	352
7.3 Conclusion	353
BIBLIOGRAPHY	357
LIST OF ANNEXURES	383

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE:	Advanced Certificate in Education
ANA:	Annual National Assessment
ANC:	African National Congress
AS:	Assessment Standard
DET:	Department of Education and Training
DoE:	Department of Education
DoBE:	Department of Basic Education
C2005:	Curriculum 2005
CAPS:	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CASS:	Continuous Assessment
CED:	Cape Education Department
COSATU:	Congress of South African Trade Union
EDUPOL:	Education Policy and Systems Change Unit
ELRC:	Education Labour Relations Council
ERS:	Education Renewal Strategy
FET:	Further Education and Training (Schools-Grades 10 to 12)
GEAR:	Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy
GET:	General Education and Training (Grades R to 9)
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product

GNU:	Government of National Unity
GOM:	Government of Mozambique
HEI:	Higher Education Institution
HoA:	House of Assembly
HoD:	House of Delegates
HOD:	Head of Department (Province of KwaZulu-Natal)
HoR:	House of Representatives
HSRC:	Human Sciences and Research Council
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
INCA:	International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework
JSC:	Junior Secondary Curriculum
KZN:	Province of KwaZulu-Natal
KZNDoe:	KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education
LiEP:	Language and Education Policy
LO:	Learning Outcome
LPG:	Learning Programme Guideline
LTSM:	Learner Teacher Support Material
MEC:	Member of the Executive Council
MTEF:	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
NATED:	National Education

NCS:	National Curriculum Statement
NECC:	National Education Crisis Committee
NEPA:	National Education Policy Act
NEPI:	National Education Policy Investigation
NETF:	National Education and Training Forum
NIER:	National Institute for Educational Research
NPC:	National Planning Commission
NSC:	National Senior Certificate
NTB:	National Training Board
NTS:	National Training Board
NTSI:	National Training Strategy Initiative
NQF:	National Qualifications Framework
OBE:	Outcomes-Based Education
PASW:	Predictive Analytics Soft Ware
PCTT:	Provincial Curriculum Training Team
PIRLS:	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA:	Programme for International Student Assessment
PoA:	Programme of Assessment
PRISEC:	Private Sector Education Council
RDP:	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RNCS:	Revised National Curriculum Statement
RSA:	Republic of South Africa
SAG:	Subject Assessment Guidelines

SADTU:	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SAHP:	South African History Project
SAQA:	South African Qualifications Authority
SACMEQ:	Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SBA:	School Based Assessment
SQA:	Scottish Qualifications Authority
SGB:	School Governing Body
SMT:	School Management Team
SSA:	Scottish Survey of Achievement
SWAPO:	South West African Peoples Organisation
TIMSS:	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TIMMS:	Third International Mathematics and Science Study
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WPTPS:	White Paper on Transforming the Public Service
WPTPSD:	White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1:	The geographical distribution of the twelve districts and circuits in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.	7
Figure 2.1:	Flow diagram of the Public Administration Model.	27
Figure 2.2:	The three bands that make up the NQF (1996).	44
Figure 2.3:	The three bands that make up the NQF (2008).	46
Figure 2.4:	A comparative illustration of learners performance in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) Grade 12 examinations from 2008 to 2010 at the National, KwaZulu-Natal Province and Umlazi District level.	86
Figure 3.1:	Flow diagram of the Policy Making Model.	99
Figure 3.2:	The Stage Model.	102
Figure 3.3:	Flow diagram of the Generic Policy Process Model.	105
Figure 3.4:	Flow diagram showing key steps used to initiate education policy changes in a democratic South Africa.	108
Figure 5.1:	Flow diagram indicating the steps in the linear deductive process used in the quantitative approach.	184
Figure 5.2:	Flow diagram showing criteria used in the qualitative research approach.	187
Figure 5.3:	Flow diagram showing the total number of schools in the various circuits in the Umlazi District.	196
Figure 5.4:	An example of banded scales used in the formulation of the questionnaire.	206
Figure 5.5:	An example of the Likert Scale used in the questionnaire.	207
Figure 5.6:	Type of rank order question used in the questionnaire.	207
Figure 5.7:	An example of a closed-ended question used in the questionnaire.	207
Figure 5.8:	An example of an open-ended question used in the questionnaire.	208
Figure 5.9:	An example of a question used in the semi-structured interview.	213
Figure 6.1:	Age distribution of respondents in years.	224
Figure 6.2:	Gender distribution of respondents.	225
Figure 6.3:	Race classification of respondents.	226
Figure 6.4:	Qualification of respondents.	227
Figure 6.5:	Years of experience in teaching History.	233
Figure 6.6:	A graphical representation of responses to Section B of the questionnaire.	243
Figure 6.7:	Representation of question 1.5 from Section B of the questionnaire.	245
Figure 6.8:	Graphical representation of Section C of the questionnaire.	248

Figure 6.9:	Graphical representation of Section D of the questionnaire.	252
Figure 6.10:	Graphical representation of respondent's views to Section D of the questionnaire.	253
Figure 6.11:	Respondents explanations to Question 4.1 in Section E of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).	256
Figure 6.12:	Explanations to Question 4.2 in Section E of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).	257
Figure 6.13:	Graphical representation of responses to Question 4.3 of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).	260
Figure 6.14:	Graphical representation of the three highest frequencies.	265
Figure 6.15:	Graphical representation of the three lowest frequencies.	267
Figure 6.16:	Responses to Question 1 of Annexure G.	293
Figure 6.17:	Illustrates the reasons given by respondents to Question 1.1 of Annexure G.	295
Figure 6.18:	Reasons given by respondents on whether FET History educators were adequately trained to implement the NCS.	298
Figure 6.19:	Responses to whether the FET NCS History training workshops provided were effective.	300
Figure 6.20:	Reasons as to whether FET History training workshops were effective.	301
Figure 6.21:	Correlation between the FET History training programme and learner's results.	304
Figure 6.22:	Responses to whether the training for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in ALL the districts.	305
Figure 6.23:	Reasons as to whether the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in all districts.	307
Figure 6.24:	Respondents views on whether the FET History training programmes were similar across districts.	309
Figure 6.25:	Respondents final comments regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History Curriculum.	318
Figure 7.1:	A proposed model for curriculum implementation.	355

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1:	National Senior Certificate 2008 Examination results on the new <i>National Curriculum Statement (NCS)</i> for the province of KwaZulu-Natal.	12
Table 1.2:	Reading and Mathematics mean score as obtained by various countries in the SACMEQ II Grade 6 tests.	14
Table 2.1:	Annual education budget (in rands) spent on children from different racial groups for the period 1953 to 1983.	29
Table 2.2:	A comparative table outlining a few of COSATU's and the ANC's education policy proposals during the early 1990s.	32
Table 2.3 :	Distribution of resources among various race groups under the apartheid government, 1993.	37
Table 2.4:	Comparison between the old and new model of learning.	53
Table 2.5:	Subjects in the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General).	76
Table 2.6:	Subject choices and the minimum requirements to obtain the National Senior Certificate.	77
Table 2.7:	Mathematics and Science results among selected countries.	84
Table 4.1:	A comparative study of a broad range of secondary school subjects that are studied by learners in selected countries.	167
Table 4.2:	The age at which learners write National Public Examinations in selected countries.	171
Table 4.3:	Control and supply of school textbooks in selected countries.	175
Table 5.1:	Quantitative and Qualitative assumptions.	181
Table 6.1:	Reliability co-efficient regarding FET History educators responses.	221
Table 6.2:	Cross-tabulation of race, gender and age classification.	228
Table 6.3:	Cross-tabulation of the post held at school, type of school and the circuit in which the school is situated.	230
Table 6.4:	Communalities in Section B of the questionnaire.	235
Table 6.5:	Communalities in Section C of the questionnaire.	236
Table 6.6:	Communalities in Section C of the questionnaire.	236
Table 6.7:	Average scores for the communalities as per the various sections in the questionnaire.	238
Table 6.8:	Factor analysis of Section B of the questionnaire.	239
Table 6.9:	Factor analysis of Section C of the questionnaire.	240
Table 6.10:	Factor analysis of Section D of the questionnaire.	241
Table 6.11:	Section analysis of Section B of the questionnaire.	242
Table 6.12:	Section analysis of Section C of the questionnaire.	247

Table 6.13:	Section analysis of Section D of the questionnaire.	251
Table 6.14:	Frequency and cumulative percentages to Question 4.1.	255
Table 6.15:	Frequency and cumulative percentages of the success and failure of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	263
Table 6.16:	Frequency and cumulative percentages on the effectiveness of the FET History training workshops.	269
Table 6.17:	Most common reasons for effective FET History training workshops.	270
Table 6.18:	Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards that are used to assess learners historical knowledge in Grade 12.	273
Table 6.19:	Recommendations regarding the successful implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	274
Table 6.20:	Prescribed History Grade 12 for content for Papers 1 and 2 for the period 2009 to 2012.	275
Table 6.21:	Strategies for the successful implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	279
Table 6.22:	Suggestions on how to improve the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	282
Table 6.23:	Proposals on how various education stakeholders can be empowered to successfully implement the <i>NCS</i> .	284
Table 6.24:	Pearson Chi-Square test results.	287
Table 6.25:	Annual assessment requirements for Grade 12 History.	303
Table 6.26:	Recommendations and strategies that respondents enlisted regarding the successful implementation of the FET History <i>NCS</i> .	312
Table 6.27:	Suggestions made by respondents regarding how various stakeholders can assist with the implementation of <i>the NCS</i> .	315
Table 7.1:	Various levels and skills that are used to assess Grade 12 source- based questions.	348
Table 7.2:	Level of questions that are used to assess Grade12 extended writing.	349
Table 7.3:	Levels of questions, historical skills and percentage distribution for source-based questions.	350
Table 7.4:	Levels of questions for essays.	351

LIST OF ANNEXURES

Annexure A:	Letter of request to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education for permission to conduct research	383
Annexure B:	Letter of approval granted by the Head of Department of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to conduct research	385
Annexure C:	Letter of consent from the University of KwaZulu-Natal: Higher Degrees Ethics Committee to conduct research	387
Annexure D:	Consent to participate in the research	388
Annexure E:	Letter of confidentiality	389
Annexure F:	Questionnaire to FET History Educators	390
Annexure G:	Questionnaire to FET History Curriculum Specialists	399
Annexure H:	Language clearance certificate	401

CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Chapter focuses on the broad overview of the study contextualised within the public administration perspective. It focuses on policy formulation and implementation in one of South Africa's largest public service institutions, the Department of Basic Education (DBE). Education policy transformation was driven and shaped by the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996).

During the period of colonial and apartheid rule, several restrictive education policy legislation were introduced, the most notorious being the *Bantu Education Act*¹ of 1953. This was done to subjugate and marginalise Black South Africans to a life of subservience as mainly unskilled workers. In the light of this, one of the major points of contention and debate during South Africa's period of negotiations in the early 1990s was how to transform the system of education, so that it serves all South African children equally in an environment free of discrimination.

Therefore, the study focuses on the various processes involved in legislating the *National Education Policy Act No 27 of 1996*, and the subsequent implementation of South Africa's national curriculum, also known as Curriculum 2005, with specific reference to FET History in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal, which demographically, is respectively one of the largest districts and provinces in the Republic of South Africa.

In addition, the Chapter provides an elaboration of the definitions of key concepts, the locus of study, the rationale for conducting the research, the broad problems to be investigated, an overview of the research methodology,

¹ This Act provided a separate education system for Africans, which was meant to equip children with basic knowledge for the unskilled labour market. This ensured that they occupied an inferior position in society.

as well as the limitations of the study. Last the Chapter delineates the structure of the thesis.

1.2 CLARIFYING KEY CONCEPTS

The study uses several concepts and terms, which need clarification and are elaborated, as indicated below:

1.2.1 Policy and public policy

Although Chapter Three gives a detailed elaboration of terms related to policy and public policy, a short definition will suffice here. Policy and public policy invariably are formulated, adopted and pursued by government to overcome a specific or perceived public problem. In this regard Doyle² (2002: 165) definition of public policy is valid, which states that it is a:

... declaration of a course of action that is taken by government to achieve societal aims and objectives. Policy provides a comprehensive framework for action and is thus goal oriented.

Therefore, it can be agreed that public policy can be regarded as a statement of action by government, with the explicit intention of improving the public's welfare. In this regard, in 1994, the newly elected democratic government in South Africa decided to formulate and adopt an education policy that was geared to overcome years of inferior education that Black² South Africans received. As a result, it was decided to implement the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), an education policy that aimed to equip South African children with requisite skills to become life-long learners.

² According to the *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act of 2003*, Black people is used as generic term which includes Africans, Coloureds and Indians

1.2.2 Implementation

According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary the term implementation is to carry out, or to put into effect a definite plan or procedure. Hayes (2001: 1) contends that implementation can be seen as a deliberate and sequential set of activities that is directed towards putting an authorised policy into effect in order to address a recognised policy problem.

Public policy implementation consists of an organised set of activities that are directed by government in order to achieve specific goals and objectives as articulated in authorised policy statements (Hayes, 2001: 1).

According to Thompson (1996: 681) implementation refers to the performance of an obligation or a decision to put a plan into effect. However, for the purposes of this research implementation refers to effecting a public policy, which in this case is South Africa's education policy (National Curriculum Statement).

1.2.3 Curriculum

There are several definitions of the term curriculum and this depends to a large extent on the context in which it is used. For the purposes of this study appropriate definitions of curriculum are elaborated upon.

According to McKay and Romm (1992: 23), the proponents of People's Education viewed curriculum as:

... a construction that relates to the way in which education practices are organised through an ongoing experiment both in the classroom and in wider society.

In 1994 the African National Congress (ANC) discussion document '*A policy framework for education and training*' defined curriculum as follows:

The curriculum is understood to be more than teaching and learning activities that take place in learning institutions... [it should contribute to] the development of learners who are prepared for the world of work and for active participation in the process of social and economic development (ANC, 1994: 10).

In documents that were first released in 1995 by the National Department of Education, the first entitled '*A Curriculum Framework for General and Further Education and Training*' and the second referred to as '*Lifelong learning through a National Qualifications Framework*' released in 1996, both define the Curriculum Framework as:

A set of principles and guidelines which provides both a philosophical base and an organisational structure for curriculum development initiatives at all levels, be they nationally, provincially, community or school-based (DoE, 1995: 2).

Curriculum was defined as:

... a term which includes all aspects of teaching and learning such as the intended outcomes of learning programmes, assessment, methodology (DoE, 1995: 2).

Johnson (1967: 130) interrogates the popular definitions of curriculum and asserts that it should include a series of structured, intended learning outcomes. He further notes that curriculum prescribes or, to a certain extent, anticipates the results of instruction. However, it does not prescribe the means, which includes the activities, materials, or even the instructional content, that is to be used in achieving the results.

Therefore, an inclusive definition of curriculum should ideally be viewed as a composite whole, which included the learner, the teacher³, teaching and learning methodologies, anticipated and unanticipated experiences, outputs and outcomes possible within a learning institution. This definition of curriculum encapsulates the broad principles as espoused in the *NCS*.

1.3 FRAME OF REFERENCE

The formulation and implementation of public policy, in this case education policy, is an essential part of the study. The reasons for the new education policy and the responsibility of various role players in ensuring that the policy is effectively implemented are critical.

This also serves to militate against any challenges that may arise during the implementation phase of policy. All of these critical aspects take place within the context of public administration. Since the Department of Education is a public institution, it functions within the scope of Public Administration. Hence, all activities related to policy, for example, formulation, adoption, implementation, monitoring and evaluation are considered within the framework of public administration. In this regard, the implementation of South Africa's *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* occurs within the context of the guidelines as proffered in the public administration paradigm (Botes & Roux, 1996: 258).

1.4 THE LOCUS OF THE STUDY

South Africa is located in the southern tip of the African continent. After becoming a constitutional democracy in 1994, South Africa was demarcated into nine provinces. The 2001 census revealed that South Africa had a population of 44, 8 million people. It was made up as follows, 79% African, 9.5% White, 8.9% Coloured and 2.7% Indian (Census, 2004: 4). Almost 54% of the population lived in urban areas and KwaZulu-Natal had the largest

³ The word teacher and educator is used interchangeably throughout the thesis. After 1994, the Department of Education in South Africa used the word educator and teacher interchangeably to refer to an individual who had the requisite qualifications to teach children at schools.

concentration of South Africa's population with 10.5 million people of which 2.7 million are children (Province of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, Strategic Plan: 2010/11-2014/15: 1-2).

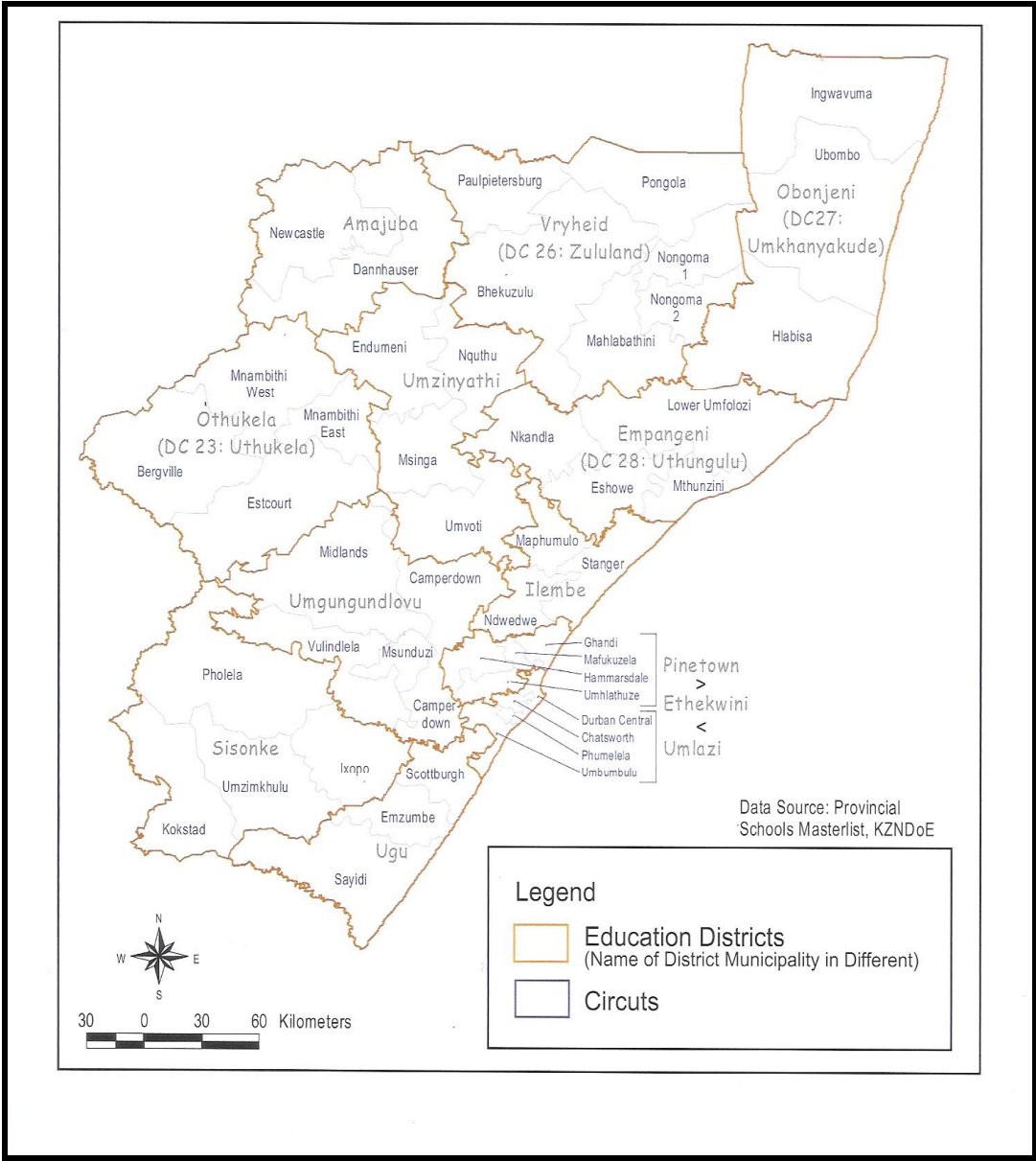
The research study was undertaken in the Umlazi District, which is situated in the southern part of the province of KwaZulu-Natal in the Republic of South Africa.

The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education has 6160 schools (5939 of which are public schools), staffed by 88744 teachers who are responsible for approximately 2.8 million learners with a budget for 2010/2011 of R29 billion. This makes KwaZulu-Natal's Department of Education the largest in the Republic of South Africa (KZN Education Summit, 2011: 1). Owing to the vastness of the province and the need to effectively manage and administer basic education, the Department of Basic Education was divided into three clusters. These are made up of the Coastal, Midlands and Northern clusters (KZN Education Summit, 2011: 1). Each cluster consists of four districts, namely, the Coastal cluster (ILembe, Pinetown, Ugu and Umlazi Districts), the Midlands cluster (Sisonke, Umgungundlovu, Othukela, and Umzinyathi Districts) and the Northern cluster (Empangeni, Obonjeni, Amajuba and Vryheid Districts). The cluster General Manager is responsible for the overall management of the four districts within the cluster. Refer to Figure 1.1, which shows the twelve districts in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

The districts under the jurisdiction of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education have been demarcated according to municipal district boundaries. Within the province of KwaZulu-Natal there are ten municipal districts. However, due to the large population and vastness of the Durban Metropolitan area, it has been divided into two districts, namely Umlazi and Pinetown. To further streamline management of these districts, they have been divided into circuits of approximately 200 schools, which are further divided into wards comprising approximately 35 schools. Each district is managed by a District Director (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education,

Annual Performance Plan 2008/09: 30). Of the twelve districts in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, the Umlazi District has the largest concentration of schools and learners in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Presently, the district has a total of 174 high schools of which 142 schools offer History as a subject in the FET phase.

Figure 1.1: The geographical distribution of the twelve districts and circuits in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.



Source: KZNDoE-Strategic Plan, 2010/11-2014/15 (2010: iii).

Approximately 21000 learners were enrolled to write the 2011 National Senior Certificate examinations, making it the largest learner enrolment amongst all the districts within KwaZulu-Natal and the rest of South Africa. The Umlazi District is made up of four circuits, namely Durban Central, Chatsworth, Phumelele and Umbumbulu. Refer to Figure 1.1. This district consists of schools from rural, urban and township⁴ areas (Strategic Plan 2010/11-2014/15 - KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, 2010: 19). In addition, it must be noted that the study was conducted in the Umlazi District in which the researcher is employed as the FET History Curriculum Specialist. Further elaboration on the location of the study is undertaken in Chapter Five.

1.5 VISION, MISSION AND GOALS OF THE KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

In order for the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to deliver quality education it has incorporated the following vision, mission and goals into its strategic plan for the province.

1.5.1 Vision

The vision of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is ~~to~~ ensure a well-educated and highly skilled citizenry' (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, (Strategic Plan 2010/11 . 2014/15: 9).

1.5.2 Mission

The mission of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is ~~to~~ provide equitable access to quality education for the people of KwaZulu-Natalq (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, Strategic Plan 2010/11 2014/15: 9).

⁴ Townships were established by the apartheid government under the *Group Areas Act of 1950*. This Act involved the relocation of hundreds of thousands of Black South Africans from their homes and businesses which were situated close to ~~White~~suburbs and near cities to various townships on the the outskirts of cities. This was apartheid spatial planning.

1.5.3 Goals

The goals and objectives of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education were to ensure that all children have access to good quality education. An elaboration of these goals and objectives are as follows:

- Broaden access to education and provide resources;
- Improve school functionality and educational outcome at all levels;
- Develop human resource capacity and enhance skills;
- Develop schools into centres of community focus, care and support
- Ensure good corporate governance, management and an efficient administration; and
- Promote national identity and social cohesion (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Strategic Plan 2010/11 2014/15: 42-43).

It is evident from the above that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education has a specific mission, vision and goals so that it can strive to provide quality education for all school-going children as mandated by *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996).

1.6 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The study was undertaken to ascertain the efficacy of the implementation of the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* policy with specific reference to FET History in post-apartheid South Africa. With the ushering in of a constitutional democracy in 1994, the transformation of South Africa's system of education was one of the key priorities of the newly elected Government of National Unity (GNU). After decades of institutionalised racial discrimination, the GNU had to dismantle the divisive system of apartheid education in an endeavour to usher in a united nation with a shared vision.

The cornerstone of a country's democracy is its constitution and the promulgation of *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996) gave impetus for the transformation and development of a new national curriculum in South Africa. According to the Preamble in *The Constitution* the aims were to:

- Heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights.
- Improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person.
- Lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law; and
- Build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations (1996: 13).

The Constitution of RSA (1996: 14) also states, everyone has the right to further education which the State, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible

In keeping with the values as outlined in *The Constitution of RSA*, the study focuses on the various steps that were taken until the time when the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* for Further Education and Training (FET) for Grades 10-12 was introduced. The *NCS* replaced *A Resume of Instructional Programmes in Schools, Report 550*⁵ (2001/08) as the new policy on curriculum and qualifications in the FET phase for Grades 10 to 12 in 2003. (DoE, 2003: 3). The *NCS* purported to instil core life skills in learners such as communication, critical thinking, activity and information management, group and community work, and evaluation skills (DoE, 2003: 17).

⁵ *Report 550* was the interim core syllabus that was drawn up in order to cleanse the old syllabus of any racist and sexist undertones after the end of apartheid. It was replaced by the *NCS* (2003) in 2006.

In 2006, the interim syllabus defined by *Report 550*, was replaced in Grade 10 of the FET phase by the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)*. The *NCS* policy documentation was released at the beginning of 2005 with the training of Grade 10 and 11 educators being completed by the end of 2006. The class of Grade 12 in 2007 marked the last group of learners that matriculated under *Report 550*. The training of educators for Grade 12 was concluded only towards the end of the first term of 2008, the same year that the first cohort of learners matriculated under the new *NCS*. An in-depth discussion of this aspect is undertaken in Chapter Two.

Since the implementation of the *NCS* for FET (Grades 10-12) across all public schools in the Republic of South Africa, there has been widespread criticism. For example, according to the *Natal Mercury* (22 February 2010), the following were some of the criticisms:

- In 1999 almost 12 313 899 learners enrolled for Grade 1, however, in 2010 only 579 384 wrote the Grade 12 National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations.
- The declining university endorsement rates. In 2009 the number of learners in KwaZulu-Natal who qualified to enter universities was 18%.
- Educators and stakeholders complained about the inadequate and mediocre subject-specific training and support offered by the Department of Education.
- Educators complained that the *NCS* with its subject and administrative workload was more demanding.
- Educators experienced a serious gap in their content knowledge and failed to grasp the new content as prescribed by the *NCS*. South African learners who participated in internationally benchmarked numeracy and literacy tests fared dismally. For example, the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) published in 2003, shows that South Africa fared the worst out of 46 countries. These tests also showed

the top 20% of schools in South Africa are out-performed by their Kenyan counterparts.

- A decline in the percentage pass rates of learners writing the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations (Grade 12). For example, in 2008, the national pass percentage was 62.6% while in KwaZulu-Natal the pass percentage was 57.78%. Table 1.1 below gives the composite results for KwaZulu-Natal in the 2008 NSC examinations.

Table 1.1: National Senior Certificate 2008 Examination results on the new *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* for the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

CANDIDATES	2008
Number of candidates who wrote.	142 756
Number of candidates who passed.	82487
Number of candidates who passed for entry into Bachelor's Degree.	26179
Number of candidates who passed for entry into Diploma.	30331
Number of candidates who passed for entry into Higher Certificate.	25936
Percentage passed that could study for a Bachelor's Degree.	18.33%
Percentage passed that could study for a Diploma.	21.24%
Percentage passed that could study for a Higher Certificate.	18.16%
Total passed Percentage.	57.78%

Source: Adapted from KZNDoe- Report on 2008 NSC Examination Results (2008: 15).

The generally unsatisfactory performance of Grade 12 learners in this first National Senior Certificate Examination based on the new *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* for FET was a huge concern amongst all education stakeholders. The overall pass percentage of almost 58% of which only 18% of the candidates were eligible for university entrance suggests that the *NCS* as a new curriculum policy was not effectively implemented and monitored by both the National and Provincial Departments of Education.

In addition, the performance of South African learners in the Reading and Mathematics tests that were conducted by the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) in 2007, generally reveals poor performance. Incidentally, SACMEQ consists of a consortium of fifteen ministries of Education from both the Southern and East African region namely, Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania (Mainland), Tanzania (Zanzibar), Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These fifteen countries have decided to work together in an endeavour to share their expertise and experiences. This was done so that the capacity of both education policy makers and planners is developed and enhanced. SACMEQ also works in liaison with researchers from UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) with the explicit aim of developing scientific methods to monitor, evaluate, and in the long term, improve the quality of schooling and help develop the research and technical capacity of educational policy-makers and planners (Moloi & Strauss, 2005: 12). Between 1995 and 2005 SACMEQ completed two major education policy research projects namely SACMEQ I and II. In 2007 SACMEQ began its third project that was completed in 2010. The data from this investigation reveals the mean scores obtained by learners for Reading and Mathematics from the fourteen participating countries in Table 1.2 that follows.

Table 1.2: Reading and Mathematics mean score as obtained by various countries in the SACMEQ II Grade 6 tests.

No.	READING		MATHEMATICS	
	Countries	Mean Score	Countries	Mean Score
1	Seychelles	582.0	Mauritius	584.6
2	Kenya	546.5	Kenya	563.3
3	Tanzania	545.9	Seychelles	554.3
4	Mauritius	536.4	Mozambique	530.0
5	Swaziland	529.6	Tanzania	522.4
6	Botswana	521.1	Swaziland	516.5
7	Mozambique	516.7	Botswana	512.9
8	South Africa	493.3	Uganda	506.3
9	Uganda	482.4	South Africa	486.3
10	Zanzibar	478.2	Zanzibar	478.1
11	Lesotho	451.2	Lesotho	447.2
12	Namibia	448.8	Zambia	435.2
13	Zambia	440.1	Malawi	432.9
14	Malawi	428.9	Namibia	430.9
	AVERAGE	500	AVERAGE	500

Source: Indicators on the SACMEQ website (www.sacmeq.org/indicate.htm).

The information from the above table indicates that the results of South African learners in Reading and Mathematics as compared to neighbouring countries, for example, Mozambique and Swaziland, was woefully poor. Furthermore, South African learners were also outperformed by eight of the countries in the region and all of these countries have significantly poorer economies than South Africa. A case in point is Swaziland, which has a far poorer economy than South Africa, yet, performed considerably better than South Africa (Van der Berg, 2005: 63).

Jonathan Jansen (2005: 71) an education expert and current Vice-Chancellor of the Free State University accurately summed up the situation in the following manner:

Despite significant national investment in education and formal equalisation of education expenditure across provinces and population groups, educational outcomes are not only hugely unequal across schools, but also far below standard in comparison with other middle or even far lower income countries as we see in the discussion of SACMEQ11.

Indeed, South Africa is by far the richest country on the African continent and spends the largest proportion of its budget on education. For instance, in 2003, South Africa had 11.7 million students and 354 201 teachers spread over 27 458 schools in the nine provinces. In that year, government spent R69.1 billion on education (including higher education), amounting to almost 6 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and more than double the 1994 education budget of R31.8 billion (National Treasury 2004: 39). In 2004/5, education expenditure grew to R76.6 billion with a planned increase to R83.7 billion in 2007/8, a real average annual increase of 3.0% over the current Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) period (Wildeman, 2005: 1, 13).

However, despite spending the largest proportion of its budget on education the majority of South African learners still perform far worse than their peers from most other African countries in benchmarked tests such as SACMEQ. In addition, the performance of learners in the 2008 Grade 12 National Senior Certificate examinations was generally poor.

The above-mentioned factors motivated the researcher to undertake the study in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal. Furthermore, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (2009: 22), contends that the subject History in the FET band, is one of the ten most popular subjects (out of 24 optional subjects) that are generally taken by learners in the province of KwaZulu-Natal and in the Umlazi District specifically, hence a study on the implementation of the *NCS* by FET History educators becomes essential. Moreover, the findings from the study would provide FET History curriculum specialists, developers and implementers empirical insights into the complex challenges that confront educators regarding the implementation of *NCS*. Also, it would potentially enhance the teaching practice of History educators, which would contribute to an improvement in the overall Grade 12 pass rate.

1.7 BROAD PROBLEMS AND ISSUES TO BE INVESTIGATED

1.7.1 Problem Statement

According to Tuckman (1987:20) a problem statement consists of the following characteristics:

- Indicates the relationship between two or more variables.
- Elucidates the problem lucidly and unambiguously.
- Outlines the processes used to gather salient data to answer specific questions.
- Ought not to present a moral or ethical position.

Against this theoretical underpinning of a problem statement, it is evident that after 1994, the democratic government in South Africa developed a specific

education policy, which became known as the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* to address the education imbalances that were imposed by the apartheid government. Although this was a bold initiative by the National Department of Education, the systemic problem that education stakeholders faced across South Africa was the implementation of the *NCS*. Hence, the problem statement for the study is:

The challenges confronting FET History educators in the implementation of the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

The researcher endeavoured to ascertain the attitudes of education stakeholders with regard to the implementation of the *NCS* by referring to the 5-C protocol. Briefly, the 5-C protocol consists of content, context, commitment, clients and coalitions, which play a significant role in shaping the direction that policy implementation, may take (Brynard, 2010: 197).

1.7.2 Aim of the study

The primary aim of the study was to establish the extent to which the *NCS* was effectively implemented by FET History educators.

1.7.3 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- Ascertain whether FET History educators received adequate training and support to implement the *NCS*.
- Determine whether the training that FET History educators received equipped them to cascade the *NCS* at school level.
- Investigate whether the *NCS* FET History was being consistently implemented at all schools across the district.

- Ascertain whether there is a correlation between the FET History training programme and the learners' results.
- Compare the implementation of the *NCS* FET History among districts in KwaZulu-Natal.
- Develop a model for the effective delivery of the *NCS* for FET History educators.

1.7.4 Key questions for the study

The under-mentioned key questions were addressed in the study:

- Were FET History educators adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*?
- Was there consistency in how the *NCS* FET History was being implemented by educators at all schools across the district?
- Were the FET History training workshops provided by the Department of Education effective in helping educators to implement the *NCS*?
- Is there a correlation between the FET History training programme and learner results?
- Is the FET History curriculum being implemented more effectively in the Umlazi District than in other districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal?
- Are there sound models for the implementation of the FET History curriculum?

1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology for the study is discussed in-depth in Chapter Five. However, an overview of the reasons for choosing a specific methodology is elaborated below.

The researcher was cognisant of the fact that to undertake sound research, it is imperative that an appropriate research methodology is developed which is well suited to the area of study. This would ensure that the objectives of the research would be attained. In this regard Brynard and Hanekom (1997:25) outline details regarding research strategy, which include the following:

- Specify the methods used to collect data.
- Outline the various techniques used for data collection.
- Explain the various strategies that are used during the research.
- Classify and list the target population.

Regarding this research study, the initial collection of data included the consultation of literature, for example, books, journal articles, parliamentary legislation, periodicals, newspaper articles, documents and departmental circulars. McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 25) assert that a literature survey is usually a critique of the status of the knowledge on a carefully defined educational topic; in this case the strategy involved the collection of data regarding the formulation, adoption and implementation of the *NCS* in the FET band.

The focus of the study was to ascertain the extent to which the *NCS FET History* was being effectively implemented at schools in the Umlazi District. Therefore, in addition to the literature review, both the quantitative and qualitative approaches were also used as research methods. The quantitative method was employed to get a representative view while the qualitative method was used to get an in-depth understanding of the implementation process and was also used to corroborate and verify the quantitative data. The use of a variety of data collection methods enabled the researcher to get a better understanding of both the breadth and depth of the focus area of the study (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998: 34). Creswell (1994: 175) supports the triangulation of data, which seeks to converge results in a single study.

The study also used the case study approach in order to obtain information from FET History educators in the Umlazi District. According to Garbers (1996: 288), case studies are referred to as contextual research where a comprehensive description and explanation of a specific phenomenon or trend within the context of a specific environment is studied. Therefore, the reason for using the case study approach was to ascertain the applicability of the phenomenon in a real life situation. As a result, what is learned from one set of processes and interactions can then be applied to similar processes and interactions elsewhere. In this regard a study on the implementation of *NCS* on FET History educators in the Umlazi District as a case study can be replicated in other districts within KwaZulu-Natal as well as in other provinces within the Republic of South Africa.

1.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations have been identified:

- This research is confined mainly to the implementation of *NCS* on FET History educators in the Umlazi District, in KwaZulu-Natal, although reference to other districts within the province is made in order to draw comparisons.
- The researcher is the FET History Curriculum Specialist in the Umlazi District. Ethical considerations ensured that the services of a colleague from Head Office⁶ (Pietermaritzburg) was sought to administer the questionnaire. This ensured that educators were not influenced or intimidated by the researcher when filling the questionnaire.
- Currently, there is limited literature available from a public administration perspective regarding curriculum policies and practices in post democratic South Africa.

⁶ The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is managed and supported by Head Office, which is situated in the province's capital city Pietermaritzburg. All twelve districts report to Head Office.

- Some of the participants had limited time to complete the questionnaire. However, the researcher distributed a larger number of questionnaires, which ensured that more than the target sample was reached. Therefore, in keeping with the principles of research, participants were not coerced to fill in questionnaires or grant interviews (Cohen *et al*, 2001: 245).

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The study focuses on the implementation of public policy. The following is a brief summation of each of the seven chapters that make up the study:

Chapter One: Overview of the study

The Chapter discusses the structure of the study. It begins with a definition of key concepts and thereafter provides a frame of reference, which serves to introduce the research topic within the ambit of the public administration paradigm. The location of the study, which is undertaken against the backdrop of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education with specific reference to the Umlazi District, is subsequently discussed. In addition, an explanation for the rationale of the study, problem statement, aims of the study, objectives and key questions to be asked are elaborated upon. An overview of the research design, methodology and limitations of the study is also discussed.

Chapter Two: South Africa's National Curriculum Statement (NCS) within the context of Public Administration

Chapter Two examines South Africa's post-apartheid transformation of education policy within the context of public administration. In addition, the various legislative and policy mandates that are associated with South Africa's National Curriculum Statement (NCS) are deliberated upon. A chronological account of education policy making from the *Bantu Education Act of 1953* to the implementation of the FET: NCS in 2006 is discussed. The implementation and evaluation of the NCS among FET History educators in the Umlazi District is also undertaken.

Chapter Three: Theoretical and conceptual perspectives of public policy

The Chapter deals primarily with the conceptual and theoretical perspectives that underpin policy and public policy. A detailed discussion of policy and public policy and the associated theories as well as models used to analyse public policy, with specific reference to South Africa's education policy after 1994 is undertaken. In addition, both the implementation and evaluation of South Africa's national curriculum policy using the 5-C protocol variables are examined. The 5-C protocol is discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three of this study.

Chapter Four: Regional and international trends in curriculum policy development

The Chapter undertakes a comparative analysis of curriculum and assessment policy trends in both developing and developed countries. The intention was to draw parallels among South Africa's national curriculum and assessment policy with countries in sub-Saharan Africa and other international countries in an endeavour to ascertain whether South Africa conforms to, or deviates from international trends.

Chapter Five: Research methodology

Chapter Five explores, in detail, the research methodology employed in the study. In addition, issues related to the location of the research, the research paradigm, the quantitative and qualitative approaches, triangulation and the case study method were also discussed. Examples of data collection methods and the statistical tools and techniques used for analysis and a discussion thereof are also outlined in this Chapter.

Chapter Six: Presentation and analysis of data

The Chapter analyses and interprets the data obtained from both the quantitative and qualitative instruments that were used in the study. The data was analysed and interpreted by the process of triangulating both the quantitative and qualitative data using the Predictive Analytics Soft Ware (PASW) Statistics version 18.0. The results are presented in the form of graphs, tables, cross tabulations and other diagrammatic representations.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter Seven presents conclusions drawn from the study and suggests recommendations that may be used for either future research or practical application. Emanating from the results of the study not only one specific recommendation was proposed. A model for future curriculum policy formulation, adoption, implementation and evaluation was developed. The cumulative impact of the adoption of this model would lead to effective curriculum policy delivery.

1.11 CONCLUSION

The Chapter provided a broad overview of the study. It also highlighted the definition of the key concepts and the frame of reference that was used in the study. This played a pivotal role in assisting the researcher to focus on the topic at hand, which was the implementation of post-apartheid South Africa's national curriculum policy. In addition, the locus, rationale, problems to be investigated, the research methodology as well as the limitations of the study were also elucidated. Finally, an overview of the structure of the thesis is given.

The subsequent Chapter focuses on South Africa's national curriculum within the context of public administration.

CHAPTER TWO

SOUTH AFRICA'S NATIONAL CURRICULUM WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The central thrust of the Chapter is South Africa's education policy within the context of a public administration paradigm. A discussion of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996), and its integral link to public administration and education is undertaken. The various legislative and policy mandates related to South Africa's national curriculum are also deliberated upon.

In addition, the chapter traverses the state of education from the promulgation of the *Bantu Education Act* in 1953; the formation and role of the National Education Crisis Committee (NECC); the commissioning of National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI); the formulation of Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) and the ANC's education policy proposals; the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA); the *National Education Policy Act* (NEPA); Curriculum 2005 (C2005); the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS): GET and it culminates with the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS): FET (2006). Moreover, the various reasons for the conception of C2005 and associated curriculum review and modification processes are elaborated upon. The implementation process and evaluation of the NCS, especially among FET History educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal, is also discussed.

2.2 THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA AND THE FOCUS ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

After 1994 serious deliberations among various stakeholders ensured the finalisation of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996). It was promulgated on 11 October 1996 by *Act 108 of 1996*. The *Constitution of RSA*, hailed as the most progressive constitution amongst all the nations of the world, enshrined a set of principles on how South Africa should be

governed. It is the highest law of the country and ensures that the rights of all citizens are protected and promoted. Section 3 (2) of the *Constitution of RSA* states that:

All citizens are .

- (a) equally entitled to the rights, privileges and benefits of citizenship; and
- (b) equally subject to the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

This means that all citizens will enjoy equal rights and benefits. The custodians responsible for ensuring that the rights of citizens are promoted are the public servants. Public servants are those that are employed by the state and are required to conduct themselves in an exemplary manner, according to the *Batho Pele* principles (*White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery 1997*).

Specific reference as to how public servants should undertake their core responsibilities and duties is made in Chapter 10, Section 195 of the *Constitution of the RSA*. It focuses on the basic values and principles governing public administration, and asserts that:

1. Public Administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the *Constitution of RSA (1996)*, which includes the following:
 - (a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.
 - (b) Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted.
 - (c) Public administration must be development-oriented.
 - (d) Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias.
 - (e) People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making.
 - (f) Public administration must be accountable.
 - (g) Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.

- (h) Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated.
 - (i) Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.
- (2) The above principles apply to-
- (a) administration in every sphere of government;
 - (b) organs of state; and
 - (c) public enterprises.
- (3) National legislation must ensure the promotion of the values and principles listed in subsection (1).
- (4) The appointment in public administration of a number of persons on policy considerations is not precluded, but national legislation must regulate these appointments in the public service.
- (5) Legislation regulating public administration may differentiate between different sectors, administrations or institutions.
- (6) The nature and functions of different sectors, administrations or institutions of public administration are relevant factors to be taken into account in legislation regulating public administration.

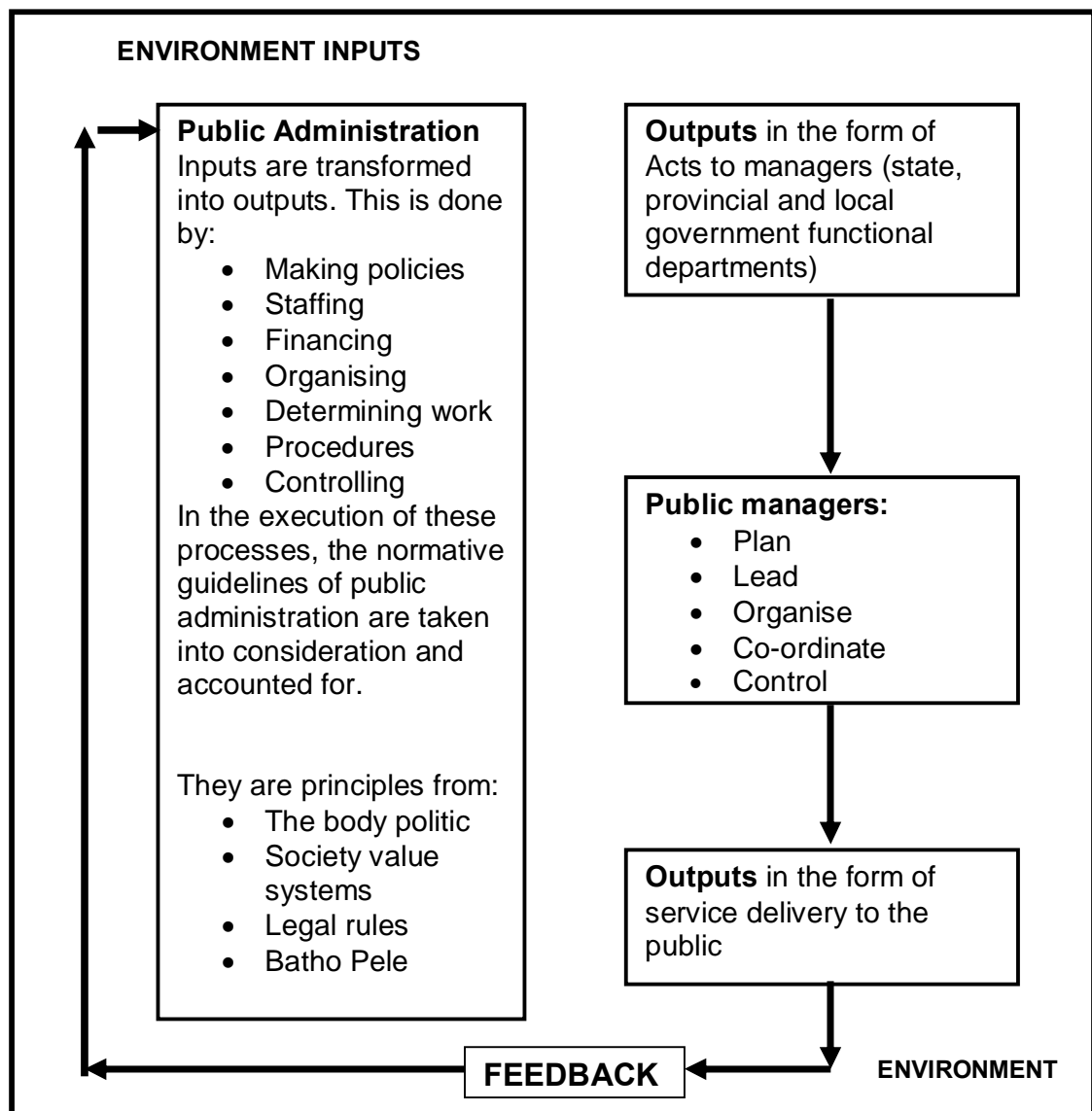
The above mentioned principles as espoused in the *Constitution of RSA*, is similar to the definition purported by Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:2). They define public administration as ~~that~~ that system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate government policy, and the efficient execution of formulated policy (Fox, Schwella and Wissink, 1991: 2).

It is evident from these precepts of public administration that public servants, including those responsible for education are obliged to adhere to the basic values and principles governing effective public administration. Hence, it becomes mandatory for all those employed in the public sector, including education, to ensure that they uphold, respect and promote the democratic

values and principles as outlined in the *Constitution of RSA*. Since the democratic government of South Africa considers education to be a key national priority, from 1994 onwards, it has allocated the largest proportion of the National Budget to the Department of Education. In the light of this, it was anticipated that quality education would be provided to the public.

Figure 2.1 outlines the meaning of public administration and how public servants (for example educators) in the execution of their public duties often interact with environmental factors that influence the outcome.

Figure 2.1: Flow diagram of the Public Administration Model.



Source: Adapted from Du Toit *et al.* (2002: 6).

2.3 SOUTH AFRICA'S EDUCATION POLICY MAKING PARADIGMS

Before an elaboration of how the *Constitution of RSA* prioritises education, a brief background of the evolution of education policy making before 1994 is undertaken.

2.3.1 South Africa's education policy before the 1990s

After the passing of the *Bantu Education Act* in 1953 (*Act 47 of 1953*) the provision of education for African South Africans was poor, fragmented and simply inferior (Pampallis, 1991: 184). This separate system of education for Africans was administered by the Native Affairs Department, which was specifically designed so that African children would acquire rudimentary skills that were suitable for the unskilled labour market. All other schooling including mission education was banned. This ideology was in concert with Dr HF Verwoerd (Minister of Native Affairs) thinking, who stated:

There is no place [for the Bantu] in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour... Until now he has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his own community and misled him by showing him the green pastures of European society in which he was not allowed to graze (Verwoerd, 1954).

In accordance with the policy of apartheid, separate departments of education were also established for Coloureds and Indians in 1963 and 1967 respectively. Emanating from Verwoerd's policy for apartheid education, the National Party government also developed a specific funding model on how much money was to be disbursed to children from the various race groups (Christie, 1985: 98). The *per capita* expenditure on education in South Africa for the period 1953 - 1983 for the specific racial groups was as follows:

Table 2.1: Annual education budget (in rands) spent on children from different racial groups for the period 1953 to 1983.

YEAR	AFRICAN	COLOURED	INDIAN	WHITE
1953-54	R17	R40	R40	R128
1969-70	17	73	81	282
1975-76	42	140	190	591
1977-78	54	185	276	657
1980-81	139	253	513	913
1982-83	146	498	711	1211

Source: Christie (1985: 98).

The statistics in Table 2.1 show that the National Party government consistently spent the least amount of money on the African child whilst the White child received the maximum funding for education during the period 1953 to 1983. Both Indian and Coloured children received proportionately more than an African child and proportionately less than a White child.

The disparity in the apartheid government's funding model affected the quality of education that children from the four racial groups received. This in turn impacted on school infrastructure, teacher-pupil ratios and teachers' salaries. This influenced school attendance practices, ultimately impacting on the children's pass rates especially at the Grade 12 level (Asmal and James, 2002: 120).

The dissatisfaction with the quality of education that Black South Africans received was evident in the culture of protest, which began with the students embarking on the Soweto uprisings of 1976. The tempo of protests increased in the 1980s. In 1985, the National Education Crisis (later Co-ordinating) Committee (NECC) was established to co-ordinate and lead the struggles around education in communities around the country. The NECC developed the phenomenon of '*Peoples Education*', which was regarded as the pedagogic alternative to *Bantu Education*.

According to Levin (1991: 3) Eric Molo, the first General Secretary of the NECC stated that Peoples Education advocated the following:

- The democratisation of education through the participation of a cross-section of the community in decision-making on the content, quality, and governance of education,
- The negation of apartheid in education by making education relevant to the democratic struggles of the people,
- The achievement of a high level of education for everyone,
- The development of a critical consciousness,
- The bridging of the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical life,
- The closing of the chasm between natural science and the humanities, and between mental and manual labour, with an emphasis on worker education.

Some of these ideas became firmly entrenched in South Africa's post-democratic curriculum policy.

2.3.2 South Africa's education policy after the 1990s

1990 was a significant year for South Africa since several decisive changes were ushered in. For example, FW de Klerk, former leader of the National Party, was coerced by the events associated with the end of the Cold War, which prompted him to deliver the seminal State of the Nation address on 2 February 1990 (Bloch, 2009: 55). He decided to release leading political prisoners, like Nelson Mandela and urban liberation organisations. Whilst political negotiations got under way for a non-racial democratic South Africa, there were simultaneous developments for the formulation of alternate policies for education and training (Kraak, 2002: 149). This was spurred on by the ongoing crisis that the Black South African schooling system faced as a result of over a century of colonial and apartheid rule and indeed the racist control of the system of education. The quality of education provided for Black South African children, according to Christie, was based on the premise of providing cheap labour for the development of capitalism (Christie in Gultig *et al*, 2002: 131). In fact, during this period most Black children went

to schools that were dilapidated, had limited resources such as a scarcity of libraries, textbooks and laboratories. In addition, schools were staffed with a number of unqualified and under-qualified educators and untrained managers; there was also an institutional culture of defiance and resistance by Black South Africans to the provision of inferior education by the apartheid regime (Pampallis in DoE, 2005: 8).

Arguably, the major contributing factor for this state of affairs in most Black South African schools was the apartheid state's centralised curriculum policy planning and implementation. Indeed, this curriculum was authoritarian, discriminatory, Eurocentric as well as extremely prescriptive (Chisholm, 1994: 149-150).

In 1991, the NECC commissioned the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) to interrogate education policy options for a post-democratic South Africa. It conducted its work under the aegis of 'People's Education' a mobilising ideal that embodied the broad principles of democracy, non-racism and non-sexism (NEPI, 1993: vii). After twenty months of investigations and consultations with more than 300 participants, thirteen reports were published in December 1992. The NEPI reports concluded that education and training policy options should contain four systemic features. These included articulation, differentiation, finance and organisation (NEPI, 1993: 3).

Education policies were also developed by other role players, such as the National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa (NUMSA), which launched its 'Vocational Training Project' in July 1990. It developed a policy on industrial training in order to counteract the National Party's reform measures. This initiative by NUMSA became the focal point of the African National Congress (ANC) and its alliance partner the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU's) attempt to develop future education and training policy (Kraak in Jansen *et al*, 1999: 32-33). The growing debate on education policy, led to a set of policy principles being adopted at COSATU's Fourth National Congress in July 1991 and at the ANC's National Policy Conference in May

1992 (Chisholm, 2003: 16-17). These education policy principles are highlighted in the table below:

Table 2.2: A comparative table outlining a few of COSATU's and the ANC's education policy proposals during the early 1990s.

COSATU'S PROPOSALS	ANC'S PROPOSALS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education and training initiatives need to be linked to programmes for economic transformation and industrial restructuring. Training should ensure employment security. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We believe that education and training is a basic human right and that all individuals should have access to lifelong education and training.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There must be clear links and bridges between formal education, industrial training systems and other education and training systems, e.g. for youth and the unemployed. Formal education must be free and compulsory to the highest level the economy can afford. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ANC is committed to the establishment of nationally integrated system of education and training. All sector-specific training... will take place within the national framework to ensure that skills acquired are nationally recognised, portable and contribute to career-pathing.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training opportunities should be available for all workers-not just artisans. Employers and the state have a duty to train. Training should lay the basis for nationally recognised career paths. Training should be modular and competency-based within the national framework which co-ordinates industry - related programmes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education and training policies will be integrated within the framework for economic transformation. The ANC believes that the state has the central responsibility for the provision of education and training...

Source: COSATU, (1991: 4) & ANC, (1992: 54-60).

Education policy proposals were also developed by the private sector. It was led by the Private Sector Education Council (PRISEC). It called for more vocational and entrepreneurial education, which was based on the economy's demand for labour rather than formal academic education. Supporting these policy standpoints was the influential Education Policy and Systems Change Unit (EDUPOL), which represented the interests of big business and corporations. EDUPOL's standpoint focused on the role that business played in education reform. They also argued that the state should play a pivotal role in educational governance and teacher education (Jansen, 1999: 5).

The National Party government also put forward its proposal on how it envisaged education policy in South Africa. It initially published the Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) in two versions and subsequently proposed a specific curriculum policy document referred to as *A New Curriculum Model for South Africa* (CUMSA). In essence, this document advocated the rationalisation of the number and variety of school syllabuses, the development of core learning areas, and an emphasis on vocational education (Jansen, 1999: 5).

The most influential policy proposal to shape South Africa's future system of education came from the National Training Board (NTB). In the early 1990s the NTB lost its influence among some of the unions because of its failure to consult. Later after securing backing from progressive trade unions such as COSATU and other education and training providers, it produced a significant education policy document referred to as the *National Training Strategy Initiative (NTSI)*. It formally proposed the creation of an integrated system of education focusing primarily on the shape that South Africa's curriculum and assessment policy should take. The NTSI stated that the South African system of education needed a paradigm shift from thinking about education and training as separate entities to thinking about learning as a lifelong process (NTB, 1994: 2).

The NTSI put forward the following strategies:

- A National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as the nucleus of the strategy, allowing for a multiplicity of qualifications drawn from a range of education and training pathways.
- A government structure which would champion the objectives of the NTSI; develop partnerships between the state, business, labour and other stakeholders; link up with similar structures in the economy and labour market; ensure that the delivery of education and training is of an acceptable standard; ensure articulation between schooling and other levels of learning; accredit and certificate learners; and finally assess the performance of the system as a whole. Governance structures recommended the inclusion of a single Ministry of Education and Training, a representative multipartite forum for the formulation of national education and training policy, a single National Qualifications Authority and the inclusion of statutory councils in each education and training band.
- A set of financial incentives to drive investments in education and training.
- And, finally, a National Economic Development Plan to link education and training to socio-economic planning and development (NTB, 1994: 11-12, 19).

This policy outlined a strategy for the labour and training sector but also included schools into its framework of thinking. The subsequent National Qualifications Framework (NQF) implied that there is a link between education qualifications and training qualifications within an integrated system of education.

The key architects of the ANC/COSATU education and training policy proposal document were Adrienne Bird and Gail Elliot. They developed a document, based on the British and Australian 'outcomes' model. It focuses on an integrated system of education on specified competencies with a single qualification structure for South Africa (Kraak in Jansen 1999: 32). This was

subsequently referred to *A Framework for Lifelong Learning* (1993). It proffered a modular system of education for learners who were required to complete core as well as optional modules. These were to be selected from a prescribed list of academic and vocational modules. This would depend on whether learning would be undertaken at school, an industrial training facility or even *via* correspondence. This system focused heavily on the learners' demonstration of competence in terms of specific criteria set down by the relevant training or education authority. Consequently, assessment was based on criterion referenced rather than the traditional norm-referenced system (Kraak in Jansen, 40: 1999).

The NQF became the focal point of the proposed education and training policy. Young (1996: 24) argued that it would have far-reaching consequences in the following respects:

- First, the traditional divide after matriculation between academic and vocational will be circumvented. By doing this it was hoped that the social divide between the elite academic institutions versus the inferior vocational institutions would be done away with.
- Second, the proposed changes meant that admission to tertiary institutions would allow more students to study, which previously was not possible. Invariably this meant that educational resources would be available and accessed by previously marginalised students.

2.4 EDUCATION POLICY CHANGES AFTER 1994

After the first democratic elections in 1994, the ANC government was confronted with an education crisis and a legacy left behind by apartheid education policy makers. The subsequent challenges that confronted the new government were:

- The structural legacy of apartheid, in which, nineteen racially fragmented departments of education operated in South Africa.

- Several certification bodies in the formal education sector and the lack of an overarching quality assurer. There were nine different examining bodies in the formal school education sector, administering about 90 examinations per year, across the various subjects that were offered. This was indicative of the unnecessary duplication and the wasteful expenditure.
- The lack of a suitable qualification authority in the non-formal sector meant that skills acquired could not be easily transferable between employers and industries. This resulted in the articulation between the formal and the non-formal training system being inadequate and inefficient.
- An inadequate teacher training system, especially in so called Black colleges of education.
- Unqualified and underqualified teachers.
- Chronic under-funding of Black schools (refer to Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Distribution of resources among various race groups under the apartheid government, 1993.

RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION	AFRICANS	COLOUREDS	INDIANS	WHITE
Teacher-pupil ratio	1: 41	1: 25	1: 21	1: 16
Underqualified teachers: %age	87	43	4	2
Pupil funding in rands	750	2100	2600	3600
Matric pass rate: %age	14	30	84	85

Source: Adapted from Kahn (1993: 14).

The information in the above table confirms the unequal distribution of resources among children in the various racial groups. This ultimately impacted on the matric pass percentage that an African child obtained (14%) as compared to a White child (85%). The vast differences in the matric pass percentage rate had dire negative consequences for the vast number of African children, while White children continued to benefit from the unequal system of education.

2.4.1 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

After triumphing in the 1994 elections, the ANC was confronted with a series of challenges, education being one of them.

Nelson Mandela leader of the ANC stated the following at the victory celebration on 2 May 1994:

We have emerged as the majority party on the basis of the programme, which is contained in the Reconstruction and Development book. That is going to be the cornerstone, the foundation, upon which the Government of National Unity (GNU) is going to be based. I appeal to all leaders who are going to serve in this government to honour this programme (Bond et al, 2000: 3).

Subsequently, the GNU produced a *White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Government's Strategy for Fundamental Change* on 15 November 1994. The RDP was a socialist policy that attempted to eradicate the legacy of apartheid and build a truly non-racial democratic South Africa (*Sunday Times*, 19/05/2002). The following is an excerpt from the *White Paper* elaborating on *What is the Reconstruction and Development Programme?*

Basically the RDP was a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress. It sought to mobilise all South Africans and the country's resources towards the eradication of the effects of apartheid.

According to the *White Paper on RDP*, its goal was to build a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future and it represented a bold vision for the fundamental transformation of South Africa by:

- Developing strong and stable democratic institutions.
- Ensuring representivity and participation.
- Ensuring that South Africa becomes a fully democratic, non-racial and non-sexist society.
- Creating a sustainable and environmentally friendly growth and development path (24 November 1994: 7).

The RDP was a bold initiative by the GNU to overcome years of socio-economic challenges imposed by the apartheid government. In order to meet the expectations of the RDP, South Africa's economy had to grow at a rate of 6% per annum. However, the economy was sluggish and did not grow at the envisaged rate and this in turn impacted negatively on the RDP. In effect, the RDP fell short of its expectations (Munslow *et al*, 1997: 47).

In addition, the welfare orientation of the RDP did not imbue confidence among investors and international financial institutions. Of great concern to the GNU was the huge financial debt left behind by the apartheid government, the fall of communism and the ascendancy of neo-liberalism globally. These factors prompted the GNU to abandon the RDP. This compounded the various social challenges left behind by years of apartheid that required urgent attention. In order to ensure the sustenance of socio-economic progress, the GNU decided to borrow money from the Bretton Woods institutions such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). Several pre-conditions had to be met by the GNU before the IMF granted loans. These included:

- A reduction in state spending and budget deficit.
- A reduction in corporate taxes.
- Relaxation of foreign exchange controls.
- A control of inflation.
- Promotion of privatisation.
- Encouragement of wage restraint (Office of the President, 1996: 23).

2.4.2 Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR)

In response to the global macro-economic policy framework, the GNU had to abandon its socialist economic and social transformation goals as espoused in the RDP for neo-liberal Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) policies in June 1996. Chisholm *et al* (1999: 390) asserted that South Africa should embark on a form of self-imposed structural adjustment

The goals of the GEAR package of policies included:

- A competitive fast-growing economy which sought to create sufficient jobs for all work-seekers,
- A redistribution of income and opportunities in favour of the poor,
- A society in which sound health, education and other services are available to all and
- An environment in which homes are secure and places of work are productive (www.polity.org.za/polity/govdocs/policy/growth.html, 14 June 1996:1).

GEAR policies were designed to achieve high rates of economic growth, the expansion of the private sector, to improve output and employment, achieve fiscal reform and encourage trade and investment. GEAR rested on the assumption that the expansion of the private sector would have a substantial impact on the economy, whilst the role of the state would largely be a facilitative one.

GEAR proposed fiscal restraint and reduced social spending. This had a severe negative impact on services such as education. Chisholm (1997: 23) argues that budgetary allocation for education was not increased but spending could only be based on economic growth. Therefore, the task of both the national and provincial departments of education to manage their limited resources became increasingly difficult.

2.4.3 Legislative Framework: Education Policy Proposals

When Sibusiso Bhengu became Minister of Education in 1994, he was confronted initially with a collapsed system of education and later faced stringent financial constraints imposed by GEAR. In spite of this, he had to design appropriate policies that could deal with high levels of illiteracy, dysfunctional schools and universities and most importantly, to develop a credible curriculum that could promote unity and common citizenship and

destiny of all South Africans irrespective of race, class, gender or ethnic background (ANC, 1994: 68).

To maintain a semblance of legitimacy after the 1994 elections the Department of Education (DoE) embarked on its first national curriculum policy initiative. Minister Bengu established a curriculum committee, which was responsible for purging the school syllabi and textbooks of sexist and racist content so that it could be ready for implementation in the following school year (Tikly *et al* in Chisholm *et al*, 2003: 114). For example, the old History syllabus was offensive and lacked content on the history of Black South Africans and therefore it was considered that this state of affairs could not be allowed to continue in a democratic South Africa (Seleti, 1997: 11). To solicit public participation, a one-page advertisement was placed in most national newspapers calling for submissions on the proposed curriculum changes (*Star*, 23/8/1994).

Hence, the process involved a cursory review and cleansing of the apartheid syllabi with the explicit task of:

- Removing any sexist and racist content,
- To eliminate inaccuracies in subject content and
- To establish a common core curriculum (Jansen, 1999).

After the cleansing of the old apartheid syllabi was complete the new curriculum was referred to as the Interim Core Syllabus which was to be used in Grade 10, 11 and 12 classrooms from 1995.

The Ministry of Education produced its first White Paper called the *White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa: First Steps to Develop a New System, February 1995*. This was a historic policy document because it was for the first time that government authorised the idea of an integrated education and training system.

The preamble noted the following:

Successful modern economies and societies require the elimination of artificial hierarchies, in social organisation, in the organisation and management of work, and in the way in which learning is organised. They require citizens with a strong foundation of general education, the desire and ability to continue to learn, to adapt to and develop new knowledge, skills and technologies, to move flexibly between occupations, to take responsibility for personal performance, to set and achieve high standards, and to work cooperatively. In response to such structural changes in social and economic organisations and technological development, integrated approaches towards education and training are now a major international trend in curriculum development and the reform of qualification structures... [The] Ministry of Education is convinced that this approach is a prerequisite for successful human resource development and it is thus capable of making a significant contribution to the reconstruction and development of our society and economy (DoE, 1995a: 15).

Accordingly, matters pertaining to the integration of education and training in the South African context are inextricably linked to developments taking place in the rest of the world. It became crucial that South Africa develops a system of education and training that could meet local as well as international requirements (Hartshorne, 1998: 105-23).

2.4.3.1 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)

In 1995 the Minister of Education appointed a task team to develop a document on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The motivation for the establishment of a statutory body was to streamline the requirements for assessment and the attainment of qualifications. Moreover, it was anticipated that the framework would give guidance on descriptions of

standards, course guidelines and credits. In essence, the main aim of the NQF was to provide information on the standardisation of qualifications in terms of unit standards (Musker, 1997: 85).

It became incumbent on South Africa to urgently develop a NQF in order to bring about a semblance of uniformity and structure to its erstwhile fractured system of education.

In February 1996, a discussion document was released by the National Department of Education titled *Lifelong Learning through a National Qualifications Framework*. The recommendations regarding the structure of the NQF is reflected in the figure hereafter.

Figure 2.2: The three bands that make up the NQF (1996).

NQF LEVEL	BAND	TYPES OF QUALIFICATIONS AND CERTIFICATES	LOCATIONS OF LEARNING FOR UNITS AND QUALIFICATIONS			
8	Higher Education and Training Band	Doctorates Further research degrees	Tertiary/Research/Professional institutions			
7		Higher degrees Professional qualifications	Tertiary/Research/Professional institutions			
6		First degrees Occupational certificates	Universities/Technikons/Colleges/ Private institutions/Professional institutions/Workplace			
5		Diplomas Occupational certificates	Universities/Technikons/Colleges/ Private institutions/Professional institutions/Workplace			
4	Further Education Training Certificate					
3	Further Education and Training Band	School/College/ Trade certificates Mix of units from all	Formal high schools (private & state schools)	Technical/ Community/ Police/ Nursing/ Private colleges	RDP & labour market schemes/ Industry training boards/ Unions/work place, etc.	
2		School/College / Trade certificates Mix of units from all				
1	General Education and Training Certificate					
	General Education and Training Band	Grade 9 / Std 7 ABET Level 4 (10 years)	Formal schools (urban/ rural/ farm/ special schools)	Occupational/ Work-based training/RDP/ Labour market schemes/ Upliftment programmes/ Community programmes	NGOs/ Churches/ Night schools/ ABET programmes/ Private providers/ Industry training boards/ Union/ Workplace, etc.	
		Grade 7 / Std 5 ABET Level 3 (8 years)				
		Grade 5 / Std 3 ABET Level 3 (6 years)				
		Grade 3 / Std 1 ABET Level 1 (3 years)				
		1 Year Reception				

Source: Report of the Ministerial Committee for Development Work on the NQF (1996: 3).

It is evident from the above table that the Committee recommended that South Africa should adopt an eight-level framework with three identified bands. These bands catered for the General Education and Training Band (for Grades R to 9), the Further Education and Training Band (for Grades 10 to 12) and the Higher Education and Training Band (for post-matric studies at universities or colleges).

The Committee also recommended the establishment of a South African Qualification Authority Board, which was intended to be formed on 31 March 1996. In response the national Department of Education motivated for the enactment of the *South African Qualifications Authority Act (SAQA) [Act No. 58]* in October 1995. This provided for the creation of a single national South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) whose foremost responsibility was to ensure the development and implementation of the NQF, as well as to set up the necessary governance structures (Mokgalane *et al* in Chisholm *et al*, 2003: 247).

SAQA and the NQF were decisive steps taken by the Department of Education to bring about integration of the various education and training sub-systems (Louw and Du Toit, 2000: 14). Young (1996: 24) argues that:

The NQF is an inclusive system that provides ladders for everyone to move along. It replaces an exclusive system based on the idea that only a limited proportion of any cohort has the ability to become 'qualified'.

This is in keeping with the objectives of the NQF, which are to:

- Create an integrated national framework for learning achievements,
- Facilitate access to, mobility and progression within the education system and career paths,
- Improve the standard of teaching and learning,
- Address problems created by the old system of education and employability of learners on completion and

- Contribute to the human resources development and economic development of the country (*South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995, 1995: 2*).

A substantial amount of work was done in transforming South Africa's system of education since the building blocks of the NQF and SAQA were put into place.

However, the NQF levels have since changed. The new ministry of Higher Education decided to repeal the *South African Qualifications Authority Act, of 1995* and replaced it with *National Qualifications Act 67 of 2008*. The table below outlines the new NQF levels.

Figure 2.3: The three bands that make up the NQF (2008).

NQF LEVEL	BAND	TYPES OF QUALIFICATIONS AND CERTIFICATES
8	HIGHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING	Post-doctoral research degrees Doctorates Master degrees
7		Professional Qualifications Honours degrees
6		National first degrees Higher diplomas
5		National diplomas National certificates
FURTHER EDUCATION TRAINING CERTIFICATE		
4	FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING	National certificates
3		
2		
GENERAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING CERTIFICATE		
1	GENERAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND	Grade 9
		ABET Level 4 National certificates

Source: Level descriptors on the SAQA website ([www. saqa.org.za](http://www.saq.org.za)).

2.4.3.2 National Education Policy Act (NEPA) (No. 27 of 1996)

The objectives of *National Education Policy Act, 1996* (NEPA) (No. 27 of 1996) were to provide for: -

- (a) the determination of national education policy by the Minister in accordance with certain principles;
- (b) the consultations to be undertaken prior to the determination of policy, and the establishment of certain bodies for the purpose of consultation;
- (c) the publication and implementation of the national education policy;
- (d) the monitoring and evaluation of education.

NEPA also aimed to promote the spirit of co-operative governance between the national and provincial authorities. The promulgation of NEPA was significant because it provided the opportunity for the formulation of a national curriculum in both the general and further education and training policies, for example in areas such as curriculum, assessment and quality assurance. It embodied the principles of co-operative governance between the National and Provincial departments of education *via* structures like the Council of Education Ministers (CEM) and Heads of Education Departments Committee (HEDCOM).

To a large extent, NEPA derived its impetus from the principles of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996). Section 4 (a) of NEPA gives a lucid prescription of its objectives and makes provision for:

- (a) the advancement and protection of the fundamental rights of every person guaranteed in terms of Chapter 3 of the Constitution, and in terms of international conventions ratified by Parliament, and in particular the right-
 - (i) of every person to be protected against unfair discrimination within or by an education department or education institution on any ground whatsoever;
 - (ii) of every person to basic education and equal access to education institutions;

- (iii) of a parent or guardian in respect of the education of his or her child or ward;
 - (iv) of every child in respect of his or her education;
 - (v) of every student to be instructed in the language of his or her choice where this is reasonably practicable;
 - (vi) of every person to the freedoms of conscience, religion, thought, belief, opinion, expression and association within education institutions;
 - (vii) of every person to establish, where practicable, education institutions based on a common language, culture or religion, as long as there is no discrimination on the ground of race;
 - (viii) of every person to use the language and participate in the cultural life of his or her choice within an education institution;
- (b) enabling the education system to contribute to the full personal development of each student, and to the moral, social, cultural, political and economic development of the nation at large, including the advancement of democracy, human rights and the peaceful resolution of disputes;
 - (c) achieving equitable education opportunities and the redress of past inequality in education provision, including the promotion of gender equality and the advancement of the status of women;
 - (d) endeavouring to ensure that no person is denied the opportunity to receive an education to the maximum of his or her ability as a result of physical disability;
 - (e) providing opportunities for and encouraging lifelong learning;
 - (f) achieving an integrated approach to education and training within a national qualifications framework;
 - (g) cultivating skills, disciplines and capacities necessary for reconstruction and development;
 - (h) recognising the aptitudes, abilities, interests, prior knowledge and experience of students;

- (i) encouraging independent and critical thought;
- (j) promoting a culture of respect for teaching and learning in education institutions;
- (k) promoting enquiry, research and the advancement of knowledge;
- (l) enhancing the quality of education and educational innovation through systematic research and development on education, monitoring and evaluating education provision and performance, and training educators and education managers;
- (m) ensuring broad public participation in the development of education policy and the representation of stakeholders in the governance of all aspects of the education system;
- (n) achieving the cost-effective use of education resources and sustainable implementation of education services;
- (o) achieving close co-operation between the national and provincial governments on matters relating to education, including the development of capacity in the departments of education, and the effective management of the national education system.

It is apparent that NEPA ensured that the fundamental human rights of all school-going children were protected as per the precepts contained in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)*.

2.4.3.2.1 Consultation on national education policy

According to Section 5 of NEPA, the National Minister of Education has the prerogative to determine the nature of the policy that needs to be pursued. This occurs after rigorous consultation with the relevant stakeholders. Ideally these stakeholders should include the following:

- (a) the Council;
- (b) national organisations representing college rectors as the Minister may recognise for this purpose;
- (c) the organised teaching profession;
- (d) such national organisations representing parents as the Minister may recognise for this purpose;

- (e) such national organisations representing students as the Minister may recognise for this purpose;
- (f) such other national stakeholder bodies as the Minister may recognise for this purpose.

In addition, the Minister of Education may use his discretion to invite whomever he deems fit to advise on the form the national education policy may take. However, before policy is introduced to Parliament and is published in the *Government Gazette*, according to Section 3 of NEPA, the Minister of Education needs to consult with the following:

- (a) the Council [of Education Ministers], in respect of education at education institutions; and
- (b) all the parties in the Education Labour Relations Council established by Section 6 of the *Education Labour Relations Act, 1993 (Act 146 of 1993)*, in respect of any matter within the objectives of that Act.

Consequently, the Minister needs to consult broadly with all stakeholders before education policy is implemented. Consultation would invariably ensure that education policy would be effectively and efficiently implemented.

2.4.3.2.2 Monitoring and evaluation of education under NEPA

The critical aspects of policy-making are associated with formulation, implementation and most importantly, the evaluation process. In this regard, a transparent instrument has been devised in NEPA under Section 8, which clearly states the following should be done:

The Minister shall direct that the standards of education provision, delivery and performance throughout the Republic be monitored and evaluated by the Department annually or at other specified intervals, with the object of assessing progress in complying with the provisions of the Constitution and with the national education policy, particularly as determined in terms of Section 3 (3).

2.5 THE FOCUS OF EDUCATION IN THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

According to *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996) the imperatives regarding education for all South Africans are made abundantly clear. This is spelt out in (Section 29) which states:

- (1) Everyone has the right -
 - (a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and
 - (b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible
- (2) Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account-
 - (a) equity,
 - (b) practicability and
 - (c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

In the light of this constitutional mandate, education policy in South Africa had to be crafted to meet the stipulations of the *Constitution of RSA*. Hanekom (1987: 21) notes that government is also obligated to implement policies.

Policies have specific objectives and government allocates resources to ensure policies are effectively implemented (Schwella *et al*, 1996: 24).

Initially the key area of focus was to develop a new curriculum to meet the demands of all teachers and learners in a democratic South Africa. After years of curriculum policy proposals the national Department of Education decided to launch Curriculum 2005.

2.6 CURRICULUM 2005: LIFELONG LEARNING FOR THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY

Curriculum 2005 (hereafter referred to as C2005) was officially launched by Minister Bhengu on 24 March 1997 with great fanfare outside the parliament buildings in Cape Town. The announcement was made with the release of 2005 balloons in the colours of the new South African flag (Jansen, 1999: 145).

The principles of C2005 signalled a significant shift from those that underpinned apartheid education (Fataar, 2001: 21). It was a new era for education policy making and implementation in South Africa. C2005 was introduced for the General Education and Training (GET) band, which covered Grade 1 to Grade 9 in January 1998 (Taylor & Vinjevoold, 1999: 23).

Clearly a key priority in new curriculum policy was based on the philosophy of equity. In view of the country's history and legacy of inequality, it was important that the state's resources were deployed according to the principle of equity, so that they could be used to provide essentially the same quality of learning opportunities for all citizens (Department of Education, 1997: v).

Another important aspect of C2005 was its emphasis on learners. It focused essentially on the learner-centered approach to the teaching and learning process. This was a significant shift from the traditional content-based transmission mode of teaching and learning. The following comparative table gives an insight of the apartheid model of learning as compared to the new outcomes-based model of learning which was proposed by the former Minister of Education, Bhengu (DoE, 1997a: 30).

Table 2.4: Comparison between the old and new model of learning.

ASPECTS	OLD TRANSMISSION MODEL OF LEARNING	NEW C2005 OUTCOMES-BASED MODEL OF LEARNING
THE LEARNER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive learners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active learners
ASSESSMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Graded • Exam-driven • Exclusionary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuous assessment; • Learners are assessed on an ongoing basis
ROLE OF TEACHER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-centred • Textbook bound 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learner-centred; teacher as facilitator; teacher constantly using group work and team work
CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Syllabus seen as rigid and non-negotiable • Emphasis on what teacher hopes to achieve 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning programmes seen as guides that allow teachers to be innovative and creative in designing programmes • Emphasis on outcomes-what the learner becomes and understands
TIME FRAMES AND LEARNER PACING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content placed into rigid time frames 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible time frames allow learners to work at their own pace

Source: Department of Education (1997a: 6-7).

At a glance the proposed C2005 outcomes-based model of learning seemed user-friendly and learner-centred as opposed to old transmission model of learning. However, the implementation of C2005 at the classroom level posed severe challenges for educators (a detailed analysis follows).

A central feature of C2005 was its association with the constitutional principles of democratisation, equity and social justice. It also advocated a radical change to what is considered 'worthwhile' school knowledge. C2005 also included a commitment to learner-centredness, relevance, integration, progression, redress, creative and critical thinking, flexibility, credibility,

quality assurance, nation building and non-discrimination in human resource development (Lubisi *et al*, 1997: 23).

The preamble of C2005 focused on the critical and developmental outcomes, which were derived from the principles of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996).

The *critical outcomes* anticipate that learners will be able to

- Identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking.
- Work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community.
- Organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively.
- Collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information.
- Communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes.
- Use science and technology effectively and critically show responsibility towards the environment and the health of others.
- Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation (DoE, 2003a: 2).

The above mentioned critical outcomes that underpinned C2005 required that learners were able to criticise, evaluate, analyse, synthesise, produce and apply their knowledge rather than recall and regurgitate information.

The *developmental outcomes* expect learners who are able to:

- Reflect on and explore a variety of strategies to learn more effectively.
- Participate as responsible citizens in the life of local, national, and global communities.
- Be culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts.
- Explore education and career opportunities.
- Develop entrepreneurial opportunities (DoE, 2003a: 2).

The DoE envisaged that the above-mentioned developmental outcomes will help learners to develop personally and also lead to the social and economic development of the country at large (DoE, 1997b: 15).

It is in this context that the above-mentioned critical and developmental outcomes were recognised as a starting point for the development of specific outcomes for each phase and learning area in C2005. In addition, C2005 reversed the extensive traditional reliance on individual-based subjects and put forward a school curriculum that focused on integrated knowledge referred to as a Learning Area. There were eight Learning Areas (Communication, Literacy and Languages; Human and Social Sciences; Numeracy and Mathematical Sciences; Natural and Physical Sciences; Economic and Management Sciences; Technology; Arts, Culture, and Artistic Crafts; and Life Orientation). All the Learning Areas had a total of 66 specific outcomes for the nine years of the General Education and Training phase [GET] (DoE, 1997b: 21). These outcomes were intended to assist teachers to organise their resources to assist with their teaching.

According to the Department of Education (1997b: 29),

South Africa has embarked on transformational OBE. This involves the most radical form of an integrated curriculum. ... This ... implies that not only are we integrating across disciplines into Learning Areas but we are integrating across all 8 Learning Areas in all Educational activities. ... the outcome of this form of integration will be a profound transferability of knowledge in real life.

Chisholm (in Daniel *et al*, 2003: 272) contends that, instead of teaching to the test, teachers would facilitate learning according to the pace and interests of each learner in the new system.

C2005 advanced three levels of knowledge integration. These included the following:

- First, so called traditional school subjects were replaced by eight integrated Learning Areas. For example, Biology, Physical Science, Geography and General Science were 'merged' into Natural Sciences, History and Geography were 'merged' into Human and Social Sciences and so on.
- Second, integration occurred across the eight Learning Areas. This ensured that each of the Learning Areas was studied under five themes or 'phase organisers' which were prescribed by policy. These included personal development and empowerment; culture and society (including citizenship); communication; environment; and, economy and development.
- Third, the desired outcome of this form of integration, which if promoted by suitable learning activities, was 'a profound transferability of knowledge to real life' (DoE, 1997b: 32).

As a result, the emphasis now fell less on subject content and values and more on the use of curriculum design tools such as phase organisers, programme organisers, range statements, performance indicators

expected levels of performance and assessment criteria. Teachers had to use this new terminology to construct learning programmes and prepare lessons based on outcomes.

The introduction of the new terminology that was associated with C2005 led to confusion and frustration among teachers in general. Jansen & Sayed (2001: 42) claim that despite the hype associated with education policy formulation and implementation there was a substantial gap between actual policy (official government declaration of intent) and practice (the actual interaction of teachers and learners in a classroom) and in reality very little had changed in most South African schools (for more details refer to 2.6.3).

2.6.1 Towards a definition: Curriculum 2005 and Outcomes-Based Education (OBE)

2.6.1.1 Curriculum 2005

Several policy documents on the new curriculum refer interchangeably to Curriculum 2005 (C2005) and OBE (C2005 Review Report, 2000: 5). This has caused untold confusion among departmental officials, Curriculum Specialists, learning area facilitators, teachers and even seasoned academics who on an ongoing basis tend to view C2005 and OBE as one and the same thing. Arguably, this has been viewed as one of the key factors that have led to misunderstanding and misconception as to the implementation of C2005. It is in this context that the researcher considers it necessary to convey an informed understanding about the relationship between C2005 and OBE.

C2005 premises itself on an outcomes-based educational philosophy. As mentioned earlier these outcomes emanate from the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996). It outlines the kind of citizen that the education system should produce in a post-apartheid society. In addition, C2005 is defined as a planned process and strategy of curriculum change, which is underpinned by aspects such as redress, access and equity. In order to achieve these innovative methodologies such as learner-centredness, teachers as facilitators, relevance, contextualised knowledge

and cooperative learning are used. Christie (2002: 174) notes that C2005 emphasised learning by doing problem-solving, skills development, and continuous assessment, and allows greater space for teacher involvement in curriculum construction. Therefore, it can be surmised that there is a distinction between C2005 and OBE. C2005 outlines the content that has to be dealt with in each subject in each grade, while OBE is an education approach, in other words the methodology that is used to teach; in fact it is one of the many methods that may be used during teaching.

2.6.1.2 Outcomes-Based Education (OBE)

The Department of Education defines outcomes-based education (OBE) as the approach used to deliver the critical outcomes as defined in the NQF. The objectives of OBE can be viewed as aiming to create an integrated national framework for learning achievements, the facilitation of access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths as well as the enhancement of the quality of education and training. (Curriculum 2005 Review Report, 2000: 5). Killen (1996: 5) suggests that OBE is an approach that requires teachers and learners to focus their attention and efforts while implementing C2005 policy.

2.6.2 Implementing Curriculum 2005 policy

The implementation of C2005 in most South African schools was both complex and demanding. There was a mismatch between the intention of C2005 and its actual implementation. Both teachers and other education role players were often critical of the new curriculum for the following reasons:

- The curriculum was poorly planned and over-hastily introduced into schools.
- Teachers who were the custodians of the curriculum were not actually involved in the development of curriculum policy.
- Teachers were insufficiently prepared for the outcomes-based pedagogy and continuous assessment.

- Emergency training and materials was provided to all provinces so that implementation could start on the same footing. In reality this was not the case as resources were minimal and inadequate.
- In the light of this the DoE decided to pull back its plan to implement C2005 simultaneously in Grades 1,4, and 7 in 1998. Owing to a lack of capacity, implementation of C2005 only took place in Grade 1.
- The official report-back from provinces showed that approximately half of the primary schools in some provinces, including those with the most number of rural schools, had failed to implement C2005 (Vally & Spreen, 1998: 32).

2.6.3 Other challenges associated with the implementation of Curriculum 2005

With time, the intricacies of implementing C2005 among education role players began to emerge. Jansen presented a short paper at the University of Durban-Westville in May 1997 on 'Why OBE Will Fail' (Jansen, 1999: 146-147). It was characterised by a scathing criticism of C2005. He argued that the language used to craft the curriculum was too complex, confusing and at times contradictory. For example, he noted that for a teacher to understand and make sense of OBE the teacher would:

Not only come to terms with the more than fifty different concepts and labels but also keep track of the changes in meanings and priorities afforded to these different labels over time. For example, to understand the concept of 'outcomes' requires understanding of competencies, unit standards, learning programmes, curriculum, assessment criteria, range statements, equivalence, articulation, bands, levels, phases, curriculum frameworks and their relationship to South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), National Standards Bodies (NSB's), Standard Generating Bodies (SGBs), Education and Training Qualification Agencies (ETQA's); and reconcile the twelve

SAQA fields with the eight learning areas with the eight phases and the fields of study; and on and on... – I still find the maze of jargon and tortured definitions intimidating. For this reason alone, the language of OBE and its associated structures is simply too complex and inaccessible for most teachers to give these policies meaning through their classroom practices (Jansen, 1999: 147).

Jansen (1999:148) further notes the manner in which the majority of teachers were restricted in their participation around the new curriculum policy. A small elite group of teachers, often expert and White, have driven the Learning Area Committees and other structures in which OBE has been developed (Jansen, 1999: 150).

The language used in C2005 was more suited to well-prepared teachers, who are more likely to be found in historically White than historically Black schools. It is apparent that the C2005 was not targeted at conditions in the majority of South African classrooms (Christie, 2002: 172-173).

The content of C2005 did not address crucial issues for most South African schools, such as racism, sexism, and Africanisation (Greenstein, 1997; Jansen, 1997). On the whole, Jansen argues that the C2005 would have had more success in well-resourced schools with well-qualified teachers and better-prepared students. He notes that:

OBE will further undermine the already weak culture of teaching and learning in South African schools by escalating the administrative burden of change at the very time that rationalisation further limits the human resource capacity for managing such change (Jansen, 1997: 37).

As the implementation of C2005 gained momentum, it became apparent that an overwhelming majority of teachers simply did not have access to information on the new curriculum, or even had an understanding of it.

Teachers were not properly workshopped and given ample time to conceptualise and make sense of the new curriculum policy. Teachers were referred to as implementers but support from the department of education was uneven, fragmented and in most instances simply non-existent (Vally & Spreen, 1998: 32).

The management of OBE brought about an increased administrative burden on teachers. A new component introduced with C2005 was Continuous Assessment (CASS). In this regard, teachers would have to reorganise their curriculum, increase the amount of time allocated for monitoring individual student progress against outcomes, administer appropriate forms of assessment and maintain comprehensive records (Jansen, 1999: 151).

This became a huge burden on teachers to manage extra administrative duties over and above their responsibility of teaching a new curriculum. Indeed, when OBE was implemented in other countries it failed because of a lack of support regarding release time, aide support, smaller class sizes... (Brady, 1996: 13). South Africa experienced a similar scenario. Furthermore, because of the neo-liberal economic policy of GEAR, which imposed fiscal restraint and reduced social spending, this meant that the budget for education did not increase, although the budget for 1997/98 amounted to 20% of South Africa's overall budget. The structural adjustment programme of the IMF had a huge impact on South Africa's system of education. It culminated in the right-sizing exercise, which education departments had to embark on. Government introduced a policy of norms and standards for class sizes as a means of redistributing teachers and to serve as a cost cutting exercise (Christie, 2002: 181). The aim was to redeploy teachers and ultimately offer surplus teachers voluntary severance packages. According to Weiler (1983: 49) this poorly planned cost-cutting exercise incurred costs of over a billion rand for voluntary severance packages, yet initial projections suggested it would cost a mere six million rands.

Christie (2002: 181) also noted that this cost cutting exercise led to:

- A drain in skills and experience as numbers of well-qualified teachers took the opportunity to leave teaching.
- Difficulties in shedding temporary teachers.
- Conflict with teacher unions across the political spectrum.
- Anxiety among many teachers and schools.

After two years, the government realised its mistake and decided to halt the process to set national standards on class sizes.

Another factor, which hampered the implementation of C2005, was the extreme shortages of resource materials, including textbooks and other related teacher and learner support materials.

C2005 also generated an enormous amount of public interest by the following newspapers:

- *Sunday Times* columnist Stephen Mulholland, who claimed that OBE had failed in many countries worldwide and its introduction in South Africa, would lead to the dumbing down of school children (Jansen *et al*, 1999: 11).
- Education reporter Philippa Garson from the left leaning *Mail & Guardian* reported on a regular basis on the inherent flaws of C2005 (Daniel *et al*, 2003: 273-274).

Additional criticisms came from the Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD), which made a succinct synopsis of some of the difficulties associated with implementing C2005:

- A highly complex curriculum,
- Inadequate co-ordination and management,

- Limited capacity regarding personnel and finance,
- Ineffective and deficient teacher training; and
- Insufficient curriculum development and preparation (CEPD: 2000, 32).

Gradually, there was also a groundswell of disconcert among educators in general who were struggling to interpret the terminology of the new curriculum (Greenstein: 1999: 13). A complex new terminology compounded by complicated design features left teachers confused and de-motivated to implement the new curriculum. In addition, teachers faced serious difficulties in operationalising the new modes of assessment.

Conversely, the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) was firmly in favour of C2005 and its outcomes based approach to teaching and learning, since much of it was rooted in the founding documents of the NQF.

2.7 MINISTER KADER ASMAL'S 'CALL TO ACTION'

In 1999 Professor Kader Asmal was appointed as Minister of Education in South Africa. On assuming his post he was confronted with the following challenges:

- There was an overwhelming public outcry and intense dissatisfaction from teachers, learners, parents and other related stakeholders regarding the implementation of C2005.
- South Africa's poor learner achievement in internationally benchmarked tests.

Former Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal immediately responded by embarking on a listening campaign out of which emerged his '*Call to Action*'¹, and *Tiriso* (working together) framework of principles, which later formed the strategic vision on how to achieve the educational goals of the DoE (Chisholm, 2004: 2).

¹ The Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, launched a bold programme in 1999 referred to as *Call to Action*, which outlined the Ministry's priorities for the next five years.

In his 'Call to Action' speech on 27 July 1999, Professor Asmal stated that he:

Recognised the damage done over the decades by an approach to education that was essentially authoritarian and allowed little or no room for the development of critical capacity or the power of independent thought and inquiry. OBE is an approach that embraces the capacity of learners to think for themselves, to learn from the environment, and to respond to wise guidance by teachers who value creativity and self motivated learning (Asmal, 1999).

In addition, research findings conducted by the DoE, under the aegis of the President's Education Initiative (PEI) indicated that learner achievement in most South African schools remained extremely dismal. The PEI Report further indicated that there was a distinct link between poor learners' performance and the implementation of C2005 (Taylor & Vinjevold: 1999: 34). It was against this background that the PEI Report was highly critical of C2005 in general and the lack of the use of textbooks and the use of the outcomes-based approach specifically. The PEI Report further concluded that the introduction of C2005 actually worsened learner performance rather than improving it (Chisholm in Daniel *et al*, 2003: 275).

Several other studies were conducted to measure the efficacy of C2005 and reached similar conclusions, arguing that teaching and learning in South African schools was not up to the required standard. A case in point was the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) that was conducted in 1998. South Africa's performance was well below the international and continental mean for both Mathematics and Science. According to the TIMSS Report there were a number of contributing factors to South Africa's dismal performance.

With regard to Mathematics and Science in C2005, it noted that South Africa:

Revealed several similarities with curricula internationally... one of the exceptions was the lack of major emphasis in Science on knowing basic Science facts and understanding Science concepts. While most countries placed a major emphasis on this in the curricula documents, South Africa did not (Howie, 2001: 39).

Although the DoE wanted educators and learners to implement the ambitious policy of C2005, the reality was that this was simply not happening especially, in under-resourced primary schools. The TIMSS and the DoE's Education for All (Assessment) research revealed concrete evidence that the average score that learners obtained was far below their counterparts in sub-Saharan and international classrooms. Additional research undertaken by academics and within the DoE demonstrated that C2005 and its concomitant implementation faced severe constraints and limitations (Khumalo *et al*, 1999: 6).

Consequently, Minister Kader Asmal decided to appoint a committee to review C2005 in February 2000, which was chaired by Linda Chisholm. It consisted of a wide range of stakeholders but was not representative of constituencies and teacher unions were not included. The Review Committee was fairly independent from the views and approaches dominant within the bureaucracy and teacher unions.

2.7.1 Curriculum 2005 Review Committee

The task of the Review Committee was to investigate the structure and design of the curriculum, the level of understanding of the curriculum, how implementation could be strengthened, and what needed to be done about implementation envisaged for 2001. The area of focus was the General Education and Training Band (GET), which included Grades R to 9. After conducting several meetings and interviews with various stakeholders (such as teachers, principals, departmental officials, core facilitators, publishers), to

review existing C2005 research reports, and peruse public submissions, a comprehensive report was prepared after three months.

The Report was presented to Minister Asmal in May 2000. A flurry of media reports inaccurately stated that OBE was to be thrown out. SADTU, a key supporter of the basic thrust of C2005 as well as senior leaders within the ANC and high-ranking departmental officials were equally perturbed by the envisaged changes to the curriculum. Chisholm (in Daniels, 2003: 277) claims that the entire report that was presented to Minister Asmal has not been published to this day. The Review Committee compiled the version that is presently available. The recommendations of the Review Committee were anticipated because of the negative press that C2005 received from academics like Jansen (1999: 152), educators and the public at large.

2.7.2 Recommendations of the Review Committee

The Review Committee recommended that the revision of C2005 should be implemented between 2000 and 2002/3 within the framework of the Revised National Curriculum Statements for the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education Training (FET) bands.

According to Chisholm (in Daniel: 2003: 277), the report accentuated ~~the~~ the values of a society striving towards social justice, equity and development through the development of creative, critical and problem-solving individuals lies at the heart of this curriculum. It also stressed the anti-discriminatory and human rights-based orientation of the curriculum (Chisholm *et al*, 2000: vi-viii).

In the main the report noted that there was still substantial support for the over-arching principles of C2005 and the OBE approach to it, which brought about a fresh approach to teaching and learning.

However, the actual implementation of C2005 was still, to a large extent, a challenge because of the following:

- A distorted curriculum design and structure.
- A mismatch between the curriculum and assessment policy.
- Insufficient orientation.
- Training and development of teachers.
- Learner support materials were variable in quality, mostly unavailable and not rigorously used in the classroom.
- Policy overload and limited transfer of learning into the classrooms.
- Shortage of qualified personnel and resources to implement and support C2005.
- Inadequate recognition that curriculum was the core business of education departments (Chisholm *et al*, 2000: vi).

In an effort to address the above-mentioned concerns the Review Committee recommended the following:

- A revised curriculum structure.
- Focus on improved teacher-training programmes on C2005.
- Provision of user-friendly learner-support materials.
- The establishment of curriculum directorates in both the national and provincial departments of education, with specific job description regarding curriculum management and delivery.
- It proposed the reduction of the number of learning areas in the GET band from eight to six and that more time should be allocated to the Languages and Mathematics.

- The new learning areas included (Languages, Mathematics, Science and Technology, Social Sciences (History and Geography), Arts and Culture and Life Orientation.
- It was also recommended that a revised streamlined National Curriculum Statement be developed for Early Childhood Development (ECD), General Education and Training (GET), Further Education and Training (FET) and Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET).
- Certain design features should be retained and the others dropped. For example, it should retain the twelve critical outcomes and drop the 66 specific outcomes, assessment criteria, phase and programme organisers, range statements, performance indicators, and expected levels of performance (Chisholm *et al*, 2000: vii).

The Final Report was presented to the Council of Education Ministers (CEM) and Cabinet in June and July 2000, respectively. Both bodies accepted the recommendations put forward by the Review Committee in the report.

Finally, the Review Committee noted that if the design of C2005 required an overhaul so too did the implementation process. The Committee noted that what was actually needed was a revised and streamlined outcomes-based curriculum framework which promoted integration and conceptual coherence within a human rights approach which paid special attention to anti-discriminatory, anti-racist, anti-sexist and special needs issues (2000: 2). In an effort to complement this new curriculum, a national teacher strategy was needed to equip teachers with the requisite skills so that implementation could take place as effectively and efficiently as possible (Chisholm in Daniel *et al*, 2003: 279).

2.7.3 Post review committee: The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS)

In October 2000, Minister Asmal appointed ministerial Project Committees to revise the curriculum for Grades 1 to 9. A broad spectrum of stakeholders was invited to develop this draft curriculum. It included departmental officials, educators, subject specialists, NGOs, representatives from the various

teacher unions and others. In developing the curriculum due cognisance was given to issues pertaining to implementation, human rights and inclusivity as well the inclusion of indigenous knowledge systems and the environment across learning areas in the curriculum (Chisholm, 2003: 4). Based on the founding principles of the critical and developmental outcomes the Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement emphasised a rights-based approach to nation building and accessibility of the curriculum (DoE, 2002: 4). The Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement was also made available in all eleven official languages.

2.7.4 History in the Revised National Curriculum Statement

As Minister of Education, Kader Asmal was enthusiastic and passionate about the future of history teaching and the values underlying South Africa's system of education. While the Curriculum 2005 Review Committee was conducting its work, in early 2000, Minister Asmal appointed Wilmot James, Executive Director of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) to lead a team that was to produce a working document on *Values, education and democracy* (Chisholm, 2003: 274). A report was produced in mid-2000 which recommended the formation of a think tank made up of archaeologists and historians which was to advise Minister Asmal on how to strengthen and improve the teaching and learning of History in South African schools (Chisholm, 2004: 179).

Subsequently, Minister Asmal launched the History and Archaeology Panel of the Values in Education initiative on 12 September 2000. Professor Njabulo Ndebele, former Vice-Chancellor from the University of Cape Town, chaired it. The main objective of this particular panel was to embark on an in-depth critique of the teaching and learning of History in South African schools and to make salient suggestions and recommendations on how to improve the situation. On 4 December 2000 the panel submitted the History and Archaeology Report and it noted that the learning of History was essential:

A study of the past can serve a range of important and enriching social, political, cultural and environmental functions. Its general potential is particularly pronounced in our own society, which is consciously undergoing change – in historical terms, we are living in a country, which is presently attempting to remake itself in time. In these conditions, the study of History is especially urgent as it helps to prevent amnesia, checks triumphalism, opposes the manipulative or instrumental use of the past, and provides an educational buffer against a ‘dumbing down’ of our citizens. Accordingly, the study of History encourages civic responsibility and critical thinking, which are key values in a democratic society. The study of how to analyse sources and evidence and the study of differing interpretations and divergent opinions and voices, is a central means of imparting the ability to think in a rigorous manner and to think critically about society (2000a: 10).

The Report also recommended that a National History Commission be established, its main task being to explore ways of strengthening the teaching and learning of History and also to address the crisis on the provision of adequate History resources.

In response Minister Asmal launched the South African History Project (SAHP) in August 2001 and appointed June Bam, a History curriculum specialist as Chief Executive Officer. Minister Asmal declared that History played a crucial role in reminding us that any future is based on a thorough understanding of the role of the past. He further noted that the responsibility of the South African History Project (SAHP) was to play a pro-active role in promoting the status and importance of the teaching and learning of History in schools across the Republic of South Africa. In addition, the SAHP was tasked to revisit the content of South African and African History, placing particular emphasis on untold histories of the previously marginalised and victimised (Chisholm, 2004: 179-180). Concerning History in the Draft

Revised National Curriculum, three options were put forward. First there should be no content, second there should be some content, and third whatever content that was chosen it should preferably be used as a basis to challenge racism and sexism in new and innovative ways.

At the end of June 2001, the Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement was released for public comment. A considerable number of comments were received from the general public as well as from teachers, teacher unions, universities, and officials of provincial education departments. Most of the concerns revolved around religion and it generated a significant amount of controversy. In response the Minister of Education together with departmental officials called a public meeting on 13 November 2001. All public comments were subsequently synthesised into a Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement for the GET phase, which ultimately became policy in April 2002 (DoE, 2002: 1).

2.8 THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT (NCS) FOR FET (SCHOOLS)

2.8.1 Background

The FET curriculum for schools was also fragmented and only served the interests of the minority. With the installation of a democratic government in 1994, Minister Bhengu ensured that a non-racial, non-sexist and democratic system of education was set up. This led to the *White Paper on Education and Training (1995)*, which provided a policy framework for the development of a new curriculum in post-apartheid South Africa. The Minister also initiated the first step by launching an initiative to transform the Further Education and Training curriculum by establishing the National Education and Training Forum (NETF). This forum ensured the cleansing of the FET schools curriculum from its racist and sexist bias. This cleansed curriculum became the Interim Core Syllabus also known as *A Resume of Instructional Programmes in Schools, Report 550 (2001/08)*. This document stipulated the policy on curriculum and qualifications in Grades 10-12 (General: Overview) that all schools in South Africa had to implement (DoE, 2003a: 4).

The *White Paper on Education and Training (1995)* recommended the development of a new curriculum that was based on the principles of access, redress, equity, credibility, quality and efficiency.

In response Minister Bhengu appointed the *National Committee on Further Education*, which developed a framework document for a Further Education and Training curriculum. The Committee produced a report titled, *A Framework for the Transformation of Further Education and Training in South Africa (1997)*. It called for the transformation of the education and training system so as to promote equity, redress, economic competitiveness and quality learning (DoE, 2003a: 4).

The report also proposed that the purpose of the Further Education and Training curriculum was to:

- Deepen the foundation laid by General Education and Training,
- Lay a foundation for specialist learning,
- Prepare learners for further learning,
- Prepare learners for employment,
- Develop citizens with a commitment to democracy,
- Promote the holistic development of learners and
- Contribute to economic and social development (DoE, 2003a: 4).

The report also recommended the transformation of the Further Education and Training system, which should be aligned, to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). It was envisaged that this transformation would streamline the selection of subjects that were being offered as well as the standard setting process. Evidently, the NQF organised careers and curriculum offerings into the following twelve organising fields:

- Agriculture and Nature Conservation,
- Arts and Culture,

- Business, Commerce and Management Studies,
- Communication Studies and Languages,
- Education, Training and Development,
- Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology,
- Human and Social Studies,
- Law, Military Science and Security,
- Health Sciences and Social Services,
- Physical, Mathematical, Computer and Life Sciences,
- Services; and
- Physical Planning and Construction (DoE, 2003a: 4-5).

With regard to the Further Education and Training Certificate (General), not all of the twelve organising fields were applicable. Moreover, for purposes of developing rules of combination for the FETC (General), some of the organising fields were combined to form broader categories of similar subjects.

A process of reviewing and modernising the Grades 10-12 school curriculum had commenced in 1999. The purpose was to:

- Establish new standards (expressed as Learning Outcomes) for Grades 10-12 (General),
- Design Grades 10-12 Learning Programmes aimed at achieving the Learning Outcomes,
- Establish programmes aimed at equipping educators, managers and officials with the skills and knowledge required to implement Learning Programmes effectively and efficiently, and
- Lay the foundation for the introduction of Curriculum 2005 in Grades 10-12 [General] (DoE, 2003a: 5).

To sum up, the aim of the review process was to re-work and re-write the *Interim Core Syllabi* for Grades 10-12 in an integrated manner so that it responded to the Learning Programmes, which endeavoured to broaden access to a range of career opportunities for learners.

It must be pointed out that this process was not fully implemented, but only served as a prelude to the development of the *National Curriculum Statement* Grades 10-12 (General).

The decision to develop the *National Curriculum Statement* for Grades 10-12 (General) was taken by the Council of Education Ministers on 22 October 2001.

2.8.2 Implementing C2005 after 2002

In April 2002, former Minister Asmal decided to revise the FET Curriculum (Grade 10-12). He noted that ~~the~~ curriculum draws on the principles that underpin the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (schools) and keeps firmly to the fundamental principles of outcomes-based education (DoE, 2002: 1).

This curriculum was developed along the same lines as the GET curriculum. After six months of starting with the revision process, the draft curriculum for the FET (schools) was ready for public comment.

The Committee made the following recommendations:

- The original policy had 124 subjects, which translated into 264 examinations encompassing both Higher Grade and Standard Grade. The new policy reduced the total number of subjects to 28, including the 11 official languages (DoE, 2003a: 12).
- Making the learning of either Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy compulsory for all learners in the FET phase.
- The Department of Education proposed that the curriculum be implemented in 2004. In response there was an overwhelming public

outcry about the tight timeframes for the implementation of the FET curriculum. Owing to this, at a meeting of the Council of Education Ministers, which consisted of the National Minister of Education and the nine provincial MECs for education, held in February 2003, it was decided to fix the implementation date for the *NCS* in Grades 10 to 12 to the beginning of 2006 (DoE, 2003a: 16).

2.8.3 Principles of the *NCS*

According to the DoE, the *NCS* Grades 10-12 (General) was based on the following nine key principles:

- Social transformation,
- Outcomes-based education (OBE),
- High knowledge and high skills,
- Integration and applied competence,
- Progression,
- Articulation and portability,
- Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice,
- Valuing indigenous knowledge systems; and
- Credibility, quality and efficiency (DoE: 2003a: 7).

2.8.4 Structure and design features of the *NCS*

The *NCS* Grades 10-12 (General) consisted of the following, an overview document, the Qualifications and Assessment Policy Framework and the Subject Statement. Each of the designated subjects had a Subject Statement. In each subject statement there are four chapters, which are: introduction; key features of the subject; content and, context and assessment. The first Chapter is a generic Chapter, which introduces the National Curriculum Statement and is similar in all subject statements, while the other chapters are specific to the subject area concerned (DoE, 2003a: 7-12).

The following table contains information on the Learning Fields and the related subjects that make up the *NCS Grades 10-12 (General)*, which was amended by former Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor in July 2005.

Table 2.5: Subjects in the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General).

LEARNING FIELDS	SUBJECTS
Languages (Fundamental)	Eleven Official Languages First Additional and Second Additional levels
Arts and Culture	Dance Studies Design Dramatic Arts Music Visual Arts
Human and Social Studies	Geography History Life Orientation Religion Studies
Physical, Mathematical, Computer, Life Sciences	Computer Applications Technology Information Technology Life Sciences Mathematical Literacy Mathematics Physical Sciences
Business, Commerce, Management Studies	Accounting Business Studies Economics
Engineering and Technology	Civil Technology Electrical Technology Engineering Graphics and Design Mechanical Technology
Services	Consumer Studies Hospitality Studies Tourism
Agricultural Science	Agricultural Sciences Agricultural Management Practices Agricultural Technology

Source: DoE (2005a: 23-24).

The above table gives an elucidation of the learning fields and the related subjects that learners may choose in the FET phase. This provides ample

information for the learner to select subjects, appropriately, that suit their chosen career paths.

2.8.4.1 Subject choice selection and requirements for the awarding of the National Senior Certificate

According to the DoE, to qualify for the National Senior Certificate (NSC) all learners must offer seven subjects and meet the minimum requirements for each subject. Table 2.2 below gives information on the seven subjects (four compulsory and three choice) that a learner must study to obtain the National Senior Certificate. This includes two languages (one Home Language and the other First Additional Language), Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy and Life Orientation. Learners may select any other three subjects from the list provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.6: Subject choices and the minimum requirements to obtain the National Senior Certificate.

7 SUBJECTS	MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS
2 Languages (One Language at Home and the other Language at least at 1 st Additional Level	Obtain at least 40% in the required official language on Home Language level Obtain at least 30% in the other required language on at least First Additional Language level
Mathematics OR Mathematical Literacy	Obtain at least 30%
Life Orientation	Obtain at least 40%
3 Choice subjects	Obtain at least 40% in ONE of the choice subjects and at least 30% in remaining TWO choice subjects

Source: DoE (2005a: 6-9).

The NCS was declared policy in November 2003 to bring about curriculum transformation to schools in the Further Education and Training Band (Grade 10-12). The first year of implementation was 2006 in Grade 10, with Grades 11 being implemented in 2007 and the first Grade 12 NCS results being released at the end of 2008.

2.9 IMPLEMENTING THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT: FET

The DoE in 2005 placed full-page advertisements in weekend newspapers. For example, the *Sunday Times* on 24 July 2005 informed South Africans about the implementation of the NCS. The Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor stated that:

DoE will introduce a new curriculum into Grade 10 in 2006, Grade 11 in 2007 and Grade 12 in 2008. The introduction of new curriculum into schools is not a uniquely South African phenomenon. Across the world, developed and developing countries have in recent years, revised their school and higher education curricula to take account of the knowledge and skills required to participate in a globalising 21st Century world. The Curriculum, which will be introduced into South African schools in the next three years, is internationally benchmarked and will require the knowledge and skills to actively participate in, and contribute to, a democratic South African society and economy. The NCS requires extensive reading and extended writing in all subjects. It requires that learners think carefully about what they learn; that they have strong conceptual knowledge and are able to apply this in a variety of situations; that they are critical and curious learners; that they are aware of the social, moral, economic and ethical issues which face South Africans and citizens around the world (Sunday Times, 24 July 2005).

This set the tone for implementation of the *NCS* throughout all nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa. Although the National DoE develops policy, the implementation becomes the responsibility of the provinces. This is evident in Section 104 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, (1996) that stipulates the legislative authority of provinces. According to NEPA (*Schedule 4 of Act 108 of 1996*) one of the *Functional Areas of Concurrent National and Provincial Legislative Competence*, is Education at all levels, excluding tertiary education. Evidently, the implementation of national policy, in this case the *NCS*, becomes the prerogative of Provincial departments of education, where actual delivery is expected to occur.

2.9.1 Training for the *NCS*

In order to ensure the effective implementation of the *NCS* the National DoE invited all provincial Curriculum Specialists in the Republic of South Africa to a training programme.

2.9.1.1 Training of Curriculum Specialists by the National Department of Education

The National Department of Education undertook training of all Curriculum Specialists in the Republic of South Africa in Gauteng in April 2005. An intensive four-day training session was conducted. This was done for all 28 subjects. At the training, which the researcher attended for FET History, the four days were utilised as follows:

- Day 1 - Background to transformation, legislation and policies.
- Day 2 - *NCS* FET History (Working with Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards; How to choose LTSMs; Profiling of History).
- Day 3 - *NCS* FET History (How to do planning, classroom practice).
- Day 4 - *NCS* FET History (Assessment; Developing Learning Programmes; feedback and way forward).

The following documents were also made available at the training session, which was to be cascaded to FET History educators in the nine provinces.

- Overview document-*NCS*.
- Subject specific statements for example, FET History consisted of (Chapter 1: Introducing the *NCS*, Chapter 2: Introducing the subject, Chapter 3: Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards, Content and Contexts and Chapter 4: Assessment.
- Qualifications and Assessment policy framework.
- Language in Education Policy (LiEP).
- The Constitution of South Africa.
- Norms and Standards for Educators.
- HIV-AIDS policy.
- White Paper 6: Inclusive Education.
- White Paper 7: Electronic (e) Education.

Following the National DoE's four-day *NCS* training session that was held for Curriculum Specialists for the various subjects, it was anticipated that the information presented at these training sessions was to be cascaded to all teachers throughout the Republic of South Africa. However, from the researcher's point of view, this was not going to be possible for the following reasons:

- The capacity of the provinces to replicate the training on the *NCS* was simply not possible. For example, Gauteng is a fairly urbanised province, compared to KwaZulu-Natal or Limpopo, which are largely rural.
- The capacity and the number of Curriculum Specialists per province and per district were dissimilar. For example, the Gauteng province has a ratio of one Curriculum Specialist to about 50 educators, while in KwaZulu-Natal, in FET History in the eThekweni Region, where the researcher was posted there was one Curriculum Specialist that serviced approximately 300 educators.

- The *NCS: FET History* contained a number of new themes. Given the time allotted for the training of educators on new content, this was not going to be possible.
- Too little time and resources were set aside to tackle the demands of both content and assessment in the *NCS*.

Despite the above concerns, Curriculum Specialists from the various provinces indicated in the feedback session that they were committed to cascading the information presented at the training workshop to educators in their respective provinces.

2.9.1.2 Implementing the *NCS* in the province of KwaZulu-Natal

The Further Education and Training Directorate in KwaZulu-Natal conducted further planning meetings with the Curriculum Specialists that attended the National DoE four-day training session. This was done so that provincial FET Curriculum Specialists could prepare for the provincial roll out of the *NCS* to all Grade 10 educators in KwaZulu-Natal.

The Provincial FET Directorate took a decision to include relevant stakeholders, such as teacher union representatives and expert educators, in the preparation for the roll out of the Grade 10 curriculum. This was known as the Provincial Curriculum Training Team (PCTT), which consisted of a minimum of three people, including the Curriculum Specialist, expert educator and a union representative. The training of educators spanned from July to September 2005. Training was undertaken over four-days and it involved the cascade model in the replication of training on the *NCS* from the national, provincial and district level. The quality of training across districts was uneven. Since many of the facilitators trained at the top of the cascade model consequently they were insufficiently trained and equipped to replicate the information on the *NCS* to educators in their respective districts.

After perusing the evaluation questionnaires that educators completed after the workshop, most of the FET History educators in the eThekweni Region

stated that they were satisfied with the quality of *NCS* documents and presentations of the various facilitators during the four-day training session.

The National DoE held similar *NCS* FET training sessions in 2006 and 2007 for Grades 11 and 12 respectively. These were attended by the various provincial Curriculum Specialists. The cascade model was again used to transmit information regarding curriculum related policy matters. As per protocol, the FET Curriculum Directorate in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education was obliged to implement the national FET curriculum policy. As a result, training workshops for all FET educators were subsequently organised in 2006 for Grade 11 and in 2007 for Grade 12. Several curriculum support workshops were held for FET educators. This was done in an effort to strengthen teachers' content and assessment knowledge of the *NCS*.

2.9.1.3 Critiquing the implementation of the *NCS*

Despite the implementation of the FET *NCS* in all schools throughout the Republic of South Africa, many education stakeholders were not satisfied with the new curriculum. The current Minister of Basic Education, Angela Motshekga noted that Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) was launched with the best of intentions but it had major shortcomings. Minister Motshekga identified the following shortcomings, which were reported in *The Times* (7 July 2010):

- It was a weak and superficial curriculum that was unrealistic and lacking in specific objectives;
- The assumption that learners had access to research facilities such as telephones, the Internet, libraries and newspapers was indeed ambitious; and
- OBE was opened to a variety of interpretations and teachers had no clarity about what was required of them.

Other criticisms regarding the implementation of the *NCS* were also levelled. For instance, the following appeared in the *Mail and Guardian*, (23 to 29 July 2010):

- The *ØBE* messqhas resulted from education authorities failing to ensure that all schools had the necessary resources, structures and support services, such as properly equipped school libraries, computer laboratories, access to the internet, manageable class sizes and the involvement and guidance of expert and capable district officials.
- In addition, the basic subject-specific teacher training as well as the in-service training of educators that was offered by the DoE was often mediocre and inadequate.
- Learners were required to create content knowledge by themselves through research, exploration and working in groups or pairs and then expected to reproduce what they had discovered while the educator merely acted as a facilitator. In the process reading and writing skills receded.
- Additionally, an assessment policy was simultaneously imposed on educators, which resulted in an unprecedented amount of administrative work, which was demanding. This prevented educators from spending quality time on their primary task, namely teaching learners.

Finally, educators experienced a serious gap in their content knowledge and failed to grasp the new content as prescribed by the *NCS*. South African learners who participated in internationally benchmarked Mathematics and Science education tests fared dismally. The results, which were released by the World Economic Forum Competitiveness Report 2009, surprised many of the developed nations. Among the 133 countries that participated in these tests, South Africa was ranked last with regard to its Maths and Science results. It is important to take cognisance of the fact that countries such as Zimbabwe, which experienced severe political and economic turmoil, performed better than South Africa, which has a more sophisticated economy

and is politically stable. Ultimately the countries that were ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd respectively were Singapore, Finland and Qatar. The following table contains information on selected African countries that participated in these tests.

Table 2.7: Mathematics and Science results among selected countries. South Africa was ranked last at 133.

RANK COUNTRY	RANK COUNTRY	RANK COUNTRY
49 Senegal	81 Botswana	106 Ethiopia
63 Burundi	82 Burkina Faso	107 Uganda
64 Kenya	90 Zambia	108 Mali
65 Mauritius	91 Gambia	110 Chad
66 Ivory Coast	92 Lesotho	120 Namibia
69 Benin	95 Mauritania	122 Mozambique
70 Madagascar	97 Nigeria	128 Tanzania
75 Zimbabwe	100 Ghana	133 South Africa
77 Cameroon	102 Malawi	

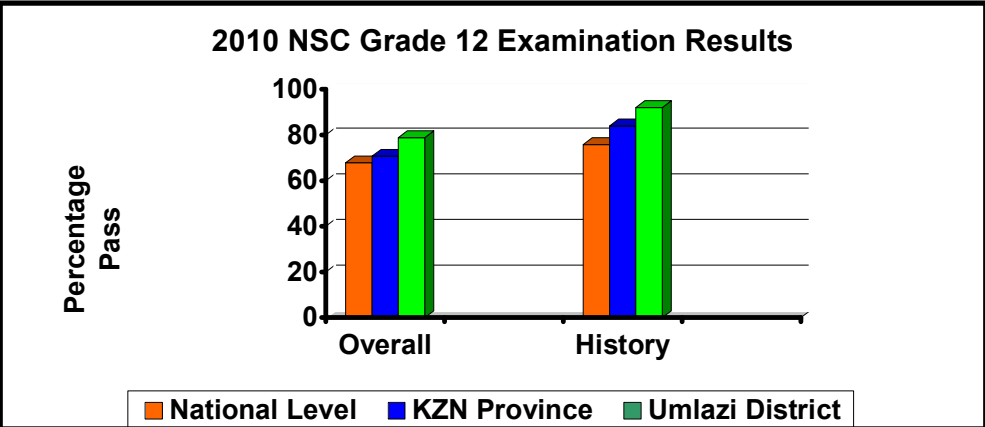
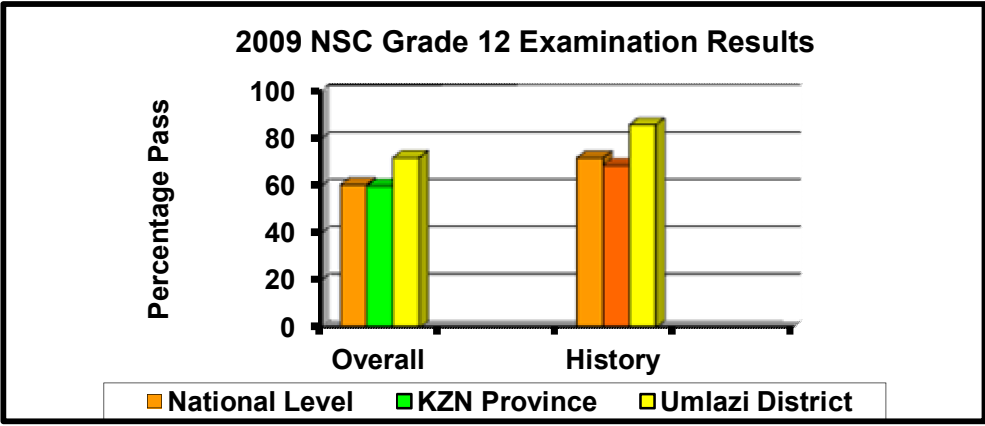
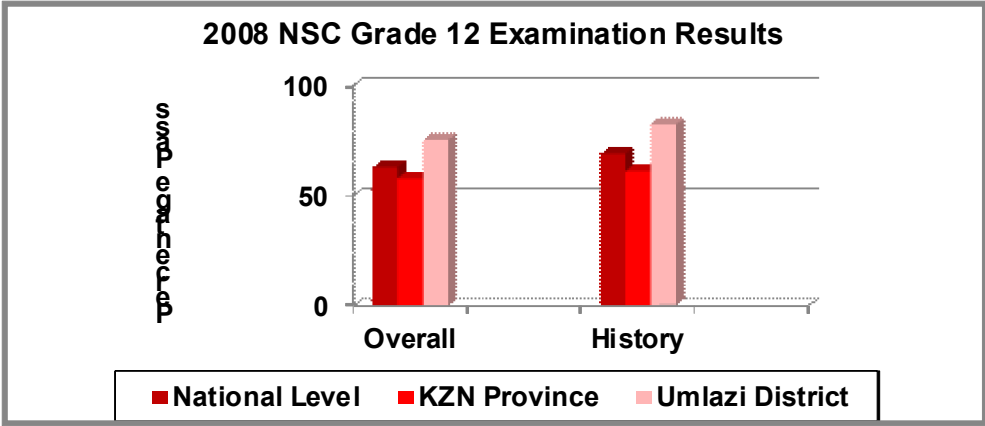
Source: World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report (2009: 23).

Another piece of evidence that suggests that *NCS* was not effectively implemented is the results that learners obtained in the National Senior Certificate examinations. In actual fact the pass requirement for learners to complete the NSC examinations are minimal. In order to obtain a national senior certificate, a learner needs to achieve 40% in three subjects, one of which must be the Home Language, and 30% in the three other choice

subjects. Philani Mgwaba, wrote "How can 30 percent be acceptable?" in the editor's note of the *Sunday Tribune* (16/01/2009) edition. He highlights his dissatisfaction about the low standards of the NSC examinations and further argues that "Try as one might, it's difficult to accept that 30 percent can be regarded as a pass mark for any subject". Therefore, it can be surmised that the pass requirements of NSC examinations is bound to produce learners who would find themselves unemployable.

Figure 2.4 below gives information on the overall pass rates in the NSC examinations from 2008 to 2010; and the overall pass rates in the FET History in the NSC examinations from 2008 to 2010.

Figure 2.4: A comparative illustration of learners performance in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) Grade 12 examinations from 2008 to 2010 at the National, KwaZulu-Natal Province and Umlazi District level.



Source: DBE: Report on the NSC Examination Results (2008/2009: 15, 49, 52, 78, 89 and 2010: 46, 61).

An analysis of Figure 2.4 that in 2008 the National pass percentage was 62.6% while KwaZulu-Natal province obtained 57.6%. This was 5% below the National pass rate. It suggests that the implementation of the *NCS* in the FET phase was not properly undertaken in the province. This may be attributed to educators not being *aufait* with new content focus areas and possibly not receiving appropriate training, support and guidance from respective Curriculum Specialists.

Conversely, the same year, the Umlazi District obtained 75.1 % pass rate. This translates to an increased pass rate of 12.5 % and 17.5% as compared to the National and KwaZulu-Natal province respectively. There may be several reasons for this phenomenon, but the following seem most pertinent:

- The Umlazi District consists of a large number of schools that are located in the urban area of Durban and Chatsworth. The schools are fairly stable regarding the quality of resources, the qualifications and commitment of teachers and parental involvement.
- The Umlazi District Curriculum Specialists have workshopped educators on subject-specific content knowledge and assessment requirements thoroughly. This can be corroborated with the NSC FET History results in the Umlazi District. It stands at 82%, which is higher than the national and provincial pass rates.

A comparison of the National and KwaZulu-Natal pass rates (refer to Figure 2.4) for both 2009 and 2010 shows there is a slight improvement over the 2008 results. The National pass rate for 2010 shows an increase of 7.2% as compared to 2009 while KwaZulu-Natal pass shows an increase of 9.6% as compared to 2009 results. Evidently, the KwaZulu-Natal pass rate was 2.9 % higher than the National pass rate. A similar trend appears with regard to the NSC: FET History results. For example, the Umlazi District pass rate for FET History was 92%, while KwaZulu-Natal pass rate was 84% (refer to Figure 2.4). Both these results were higher than the National pass rate of 75.8%. It would seem that from the time that the *NCS* was implemented in 2006 and from the time of the writing of NSC examination from 2008 to 2010,

there was an incremental improvement in the National, KwaZulu-Natal and Umlazi Districts pass rates (refer to Figure 2.4).

Although there was an augmentation of pass rates across the country the bar had been set quite low. For instance, in the 2010 NSC examination, only 47.4% of the 263034 Grade 12s who wrote the Mathematics examination achieved 30% or more, and 30.9% obtained 40% or more. This indicates that nearly 70% obtained less than 40%, which included only a small number entering university with a pass in Mathematics (*Mail & Guardian*, 1-7 July 2011).

Professor Nan Yeld from the University of Cape Town asserts that the data released by the quality assurance body, Umalusi, reveals that in the 2010 NSC examination the raw mean (before standardisation) for the subject Accounting was 27.8 % and for Mathematics was 23.7%. From these appalling results one can deduce that the quality of teaching and learning of the NCS in most South African schools was far from satisfactory (*Mail & Guardian*, 1-7 July 2011).

Concerns about the quality of education in South African schools were also raised at a recent summit held by Barometer South Africa by Loyiso Nongxa, Vice-Chancellor at Witwatersrand University, who stated:

In the 2010-2011 budget tabled in February, education was awarded R189.5 billion; almost 20% of the budgeted expenditure for the current financial year. About 1.2 million children start Grade 1 every year. Only 600 000 reach matric and just 100 000, about 8% qualify to go to university. Just 5% of the original 1.2 million complete a university degree... This is extremely wasteful and we need to do something about it (Sunday Times, 24/07/ 2011).

It is against this background that the researcher decided to undertake this study in the province of KwaZulu-Natal and specifically in the Umlazi District. As indicated in Chapter One, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is the largest in RSA and the Umlazi District has arguably the largest concentration of learners in both the province of KwaZulu-Natal and in the Republic of South Africa respectively.

Therefore, in undertaking the research in the Umlazi District, the researcher would be able to ascertain the effectiveness of the implementation of the *NCS*. In order to corroborate the findings of the study, a comparison of how the *NCS* was implemented in other districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal was also undertaken.

2.10 CONCLUSION

Owing to the years of segregatory and apartheid education policies the democratic government that came to power in 1994 had to usher in policies that would ensure redress and equity particularly for the previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities. Consequently, there was a dire need to develop and fashion education policy that was inclusive and non-racial in outlook. In line with this, the Ministry of Education produced the *White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa* in February 1995. This was a seminal document as it was the first time that government introduced the idea of an integrated education and training system. Emanating from this, a litany of policy frameworks were developed to ensure that redress was attained. Included amongst these policy initiatives were the NQF, SAQA, C2005, the RNCS and *NCS: FET (General)* for schools.

Against this background, the implementation of the new C2005 policy did not go as anticipated by the Department of Education. There was widespread criticism of C2005 from a wide-range of stakeholders and the public at large. As a result, the C2005 was reviewed so that teachers could understand it, making implementation viable.

The NCS: FET (General) was developed and implemented in schools in 2006 for both Grade 10 teachers and learners. Implementation of the NCS FET was complete in 2008 and learners wrote the first National Senior Certificate (NSC) in the same year. The overall pass rate in the first NSC examinations in 2008 was 62.6 %. This was a decline from the pass rate that learners obtained in the old Senior Certificate examinations. There was a public outcry over these results. Coupled with these poor results, South Africa performed poorly in the internationally benchmarked Mathematics, Science and Literacy tests such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) in 2003 and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) in 2006. South Africa was ranked last among participating countries (*Mail and Guardian*, 8-14 April 2011).

In light of this, the Ministry of Education put measures in place to ensure that the NCS was effectively implemented. The provision of additional training and support materials was given to the nine provinces. This resulted in the overall NSC pass rates improving incrementally in 2009 and 2010.

However, the evaluation of South Africa's NCS needs to be undertaken on an ongoing basis to ensure that the learners get value for money and most of all compete at the same level as our international counterparts.

The next Chapter will focus on the theoretical and conceptual perspectives of public policy.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES OF PUBLIC POLICY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This Chapter focuses primarily on policy and public policy in education. A detailed discussion of policy and public policy and the theories and models used in analysing public policy with specific reference to South Africa's education policy after 1994 is undertaken. Since policy affects all pillars of society in one way or another, an elaboration of the divergent theoretical policies that underpin one of education's fundamental pillars, curriculum, will be discussed. The purported policy model that the Department of Education adopted to transform its national curriculum policy is unpacked in significant detail. The model consists of six steps. An elaboration of these steps is undertaken in this Chapter where Step 1 focuses on problem recognition and issue identification. Step 2 concentrates on the agenda-setting process with specific reference to the factors influencing agenda setting and the key role-players involved. Step 3 provides an elaboration of policy formulation or design and Step 4 focuses on policy adoption. Step 5 deals with policy implementation, the variables used for policy implementation and the 5-C Protocol. Step 6 concentrates on policy evaluation. These steps are discussed with specific reference to the curriculum transformation process that occurred within the South African context post-1994.

3.2. CONCEPTUALISING POLICY AND PUBLIC POLICY

Policy is a divergent concept, consequently there is no universally accepted definition, model or theory of the term. In order to understand the multi-dimensional nature of policy it is important to interrogate some leading policy analysts and academics in the field of Public Administration and Public Policy.

Dunn (1981: 8) asserts that, etymologically, the term policy emanates from the Greek, Sanskrit and Latin. The Greek and Sanskrit origin, *polis* (city-state) and *pur* (city) subsequently developed into the Latin *politia* (state) and later, into the Middle English *policie*, which inadvertently meant the conduct of public affairs or the administration of government (Dunn, 1981: 8).

De Coning in Cloete *et al.* (2010: 3) asserts that policy is a statement of intent. Policy outlines the basic principles that should be pursued in the attainment of specific goals. In other words, policy gives a general interpretation of the values implicit in society, which are usually embodied in the management of specific projects and programmes.

Dye (1984: 4-5) states that policy is a comprehensive framework of and/or interaction. This was the case in South Africa after the 1994 democratic elections. A number of government departments, such as the Department of Education, were involved in rigorous interaction with relevant stakeholders, which resulted in the development of a comprehensive policy framework referred to as Curriculum 2005, which was a bold initiative to overhaul South Africa's system of education.

Baker *et al.* (1975: 12-15) defines policy as a mechanism employed to realise societal goals and to allocate resources. This definition is particularly apt in the South African context because after 1994 the majority of Black South Africans anticipated radical changes especially with regard to education policy. In this regard the democratic government set aside around 21.3 per cent of total government expenditure for education (Cloete & Bunting, 2000: 66).

Ranney (1968: 7) states that policy is a declaration and implementation of intent. Supporting this argument, Hanekom (1987: 7) contends:

Policy-making is the activity preceding the publication of a goal, while a policy statement is the making known, the formal articulation, the declaration of intent or the publication of goal to be pursued. Policy is thus indicative of a goal, a specific purpose, a programme of action that has been decided upon. Public policy is therefore a formally articulated goal that the legislator intends pursuing with society or with a societal group.

Both Peters (1993: 4) and Bates & Eldredge (1980: 12) outline similar views on public policy. For example, they assert that a policy is essentially a statement of intent that provides a guide for decision makers within an organisation charged with the responsibility of operating the organisation as a system.

Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 23-24) succinctly define policy as

A series of patterns of related decisions to which many circumstances and personal, group and organisational influences have contributed. The policy-making process involves many sub processes and may extend over a considerable period of time. The aims or purposes underlying a policy are usually identifiable at a relatively early stage in the process but these may change over time and, in some cases, may be defined only retrospectively. The outcome of policies requires to be studied and, where appropriate, compared and contrasted with the policy makers' intention... policy requires an understanding of behaviour, especially behaviour involving interaction within and among organisational relationships. For a policy to be regarded as a 'public policy' it must to some degree have been generated or at least processed within the framework of governmental procedures, influences and organisations.

It is apparent from the above, that there are various definitions of policy. Each conceptualisation of policy focuses on a specific aspect and highlights a particular perspective. As a result, several important conclusions can be drawn about the reasons that underpin the existence of policy. These include amongst others:

- Policy is formulated because of recurring societal problems or challenges.
- Administrators are in agreement that, in the implementation phase, steps must be taken to help society.
- Clear and tangible steps must be outlined as to how implementation should be undertaken.
- Implementation should be undertaken by government in collaboration with the private sector.
- Policy, ultimately, serves as a guide to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery.

Therefore, it can be deduced from the above that policy can be defined as a focused statement of intent by government to address the specific needs of the public so that there is an improvement in the lives of all its citizens.

3.3 THEORIES ON POLICY MAKING

Theories of policy-making are not static or pre-determined. Hanekom (1987: 8) argues that (public) policies are future orientated, usually aimed at the promotion of the general welfare of society rather than a societal group, and takes place within the framework of legally instituted public bodies such as legislatures or government departments. This perspective on policy is supported by Wildavsky (1979: 16) who notes that public policies are not eternal truths, but rather hypotheses subject to alteration and to the devising of new (and better) ones until these in turn are proved unsatisfactory.

Dunn (1981: 54-56) claims that theories of policy and policy making have also been closely associated with political paradigms (ideologies), in which political values play an important role. Most countries at the turn of the twentieth century were influenced by specific political ideologies. This resulted in policy developers adopting a liberal *laissez-faire* (or classical capitalist) approach. This approach ensured that the state should be concerned about the maintenance of law and order, the protection of society from attacks from outside, the protection of private property and the establishment of conditions conducive to the promotion of free enterprise. Within this approach the state should only interfere with the lives and activities of individuals on a limited basis (Ranney, 1966: 48-49). A government that follows such a policy approach, should therefore, devote itself to developing policies that focus only on the aspects that are referred to above and leave other things alone to be determined by the market or alternatively by public choice.

Alternatively, some governments such as Russia (after 1917) and East Germany (after 1948) have opted to follow a socialist or collectivist policy-making approach. This approach involved state control of the economy which government institutions were coerced to implement (Hanekom, 1987: 12).

However, in South Africa after the newly elected democratic government came to power in 1994, it was ensured that the policy-making process would be open and transparent. Participation at all levels was encouraged which essentially involved direct representation, empowerment and active decision-making (De Coning, 1994: 28).

3.4 MODELS TO ANALYSE PUBLIC POLICY

The theoretical approaches that have been discussed above are generally developed and formulated from specific circumstances.

In this regard Hanekom (1987: 45) declares:

In public policy making, theories are utilised to explain the policy-making process. Furthermore, simplification of policy-making is enhanced by using models to present problems in acceptable dimensions, while it appears that the various perspectives on policy making could also contribute towards greater clarity of the process. Although no universally accepted or agreed-upon theory of the policy-making process exists, it appears that a useful model should include at least the phases of goal identification, authorisation, public statement of intent, implementation and evaluation.

This statement provides a link between the various theories and models for policy-making. It also demonstrates the nature of models, which serve to provide the basic phases for policy development. Accordingly, the importance of theories in formulating policy is usually dependent on the specific problem at hand. It is against this background that the generally applicable elements of policy management are widely applied across disciplines. As a result, the development of various theories in disciplines such as public administration and others is extremely relevant to policy application (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 32).

In the context of theoretical frameworks for policy development and management, there is a wide range of models. The information provided by these models serves to assist both policy developers and evaluators in making erudite decisions regarding policy formulation and implementation.

Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 42) argue that as model builders and policy-makers, individuals need to see some sort of pattern in the world around them and should interpret events in terms of that perceived pattern.

By putting forward particular assumptions and frames of reference, policy-makers should also be able to ask specific questions such as: What happened? Why did it happen? What are the consequences? How will the process evolve and what interventions will be taken?

Dunn (1994: 152) contends that policy models are simplified representations of specific aspects of a problem situation that are constructed for particular purposes. With regard to policy making, models can assist and facilitate explanation, description, understanding and planning of future policy programmes if they are reasonably applied (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984: 42).

Dror (1983a: 9) describes policy modelling as a useful tool for researching and understanding reality that can assist in developing policy-making theories. Evidently, both policy management and public policy-analysis models historically fall into two broad categories. The first consists of those, which are appropriate for analysing the process of policy-making, and the second consists of those, which are appropriate for analysing the content, results, impacts and likely consequences of policy. The application of these models will vary significantly depending on the circumstances and the skill and ability of the analyst (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 33).

In essence, models serve to describe and explain the total policy process, such as the systems model, while others only focus on one or more of the stakeholders or approaches within that process such as the institutional model, the incremental model or the social interaction model. In order to understand the variables of the policy process accurately, a combination of models may be needed to describe and explain a specific context (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 33). A discussion of the examples of models that may be used to analyse the contents of the public policy-making process follows under the subsequent sub-heading.

3.5 MODELS FOR ANALYSING FUNCTIONAL POLICY STAGES OR PHASES

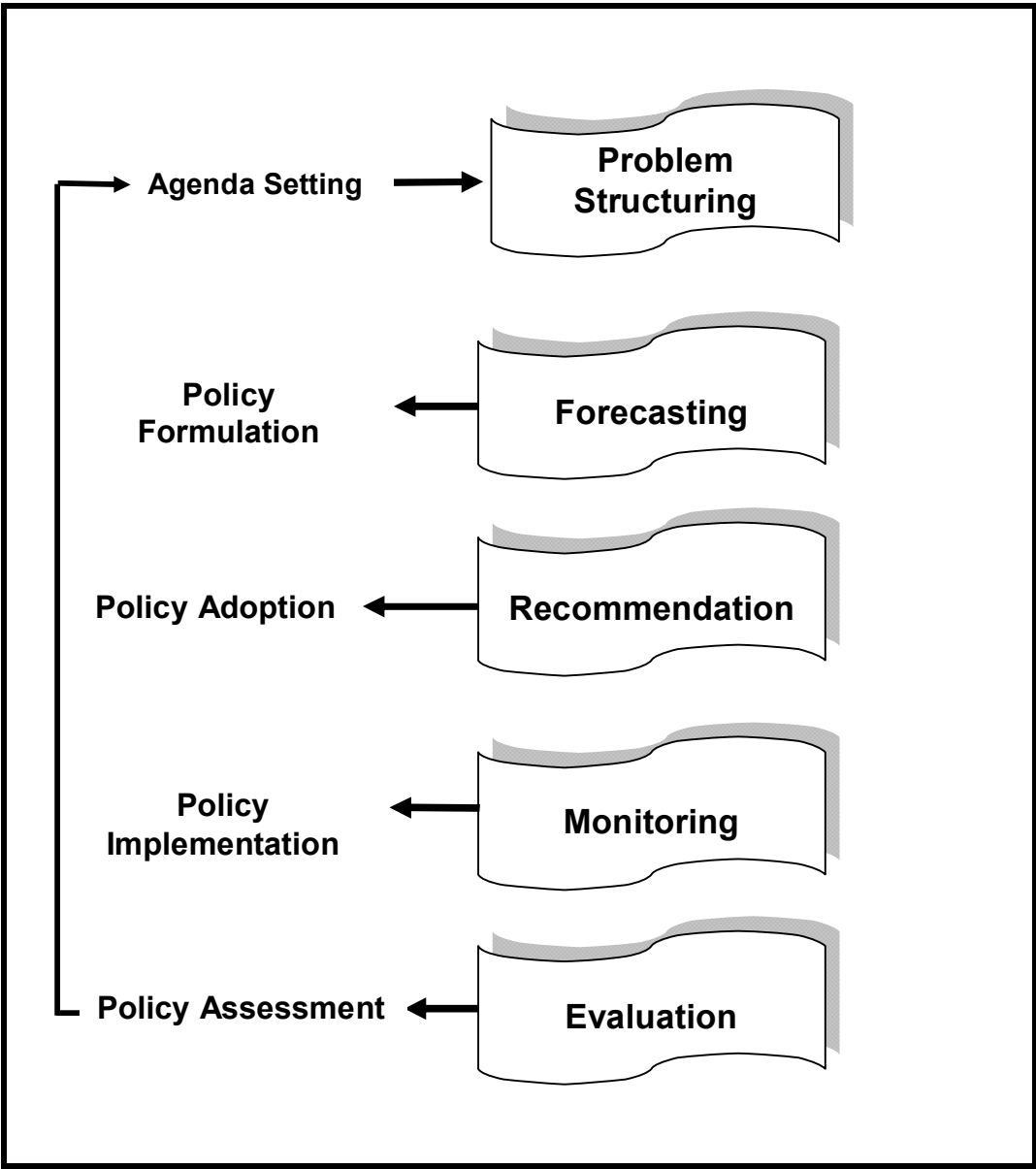
Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 4) have analysed the policy process in terms of a number of stages through which an issue or policy may pass. The following stages are taken into account when a policy is formulated: issue definition; forecasting; setting objectives and priorities; options analysis; policy implementation, monitoring and control; evaluation and review; and policy maintenance, succession or termination (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984: 4). This framework provides a guide on how different kinds of analysis can be applied during different stages of the policy process. This user-friendly nature of the policy process is an important and guiding principle for both policy analysts and implementers.

Dror (1983a: 89-90) puts forward a clear demarcation between the content of policy and process dynamics. He argues that policy development can be improved in the following two ways:

One, upgrading policy-making processes, which in turn involves improved policy process management and redesigning organisations. Two, establishing improved grand policies, which guide the substance of discrete policies, which in turn involves application of policy analysis to grand policies as well as process and organisation upgrading which serves policy development as a whole.

Dunn (1994: 15-18) states that the process model consists of the following phases, which includes agenda setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy assessment (refer to Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Flow diagram of the Policy Making Model.



Source: Adapted from Dunn (1994: 17).

Clearly, the process of policy analysis is a series of intellectual activities that is driven by political imperatives. These activities, which inform the policy-making process, are viewed as a series of interdependent phases that take place over a period of time.

Dunn (1994: 15-16) describes the phases identified above as:

... represent[ing] ongoing activities that occur through time. Each phase is related to the next, and the last phase (policy assessment) is linked to the first (agenda setting), as well as to the intermediate phases, in a non-linear cycle or round of activities. The application of policy analytic procedures may yield policy relevant knowledge that directly affects assumptions, judgements, and actions in one phase, which in turn indirectly affects performance in subsequent phases.

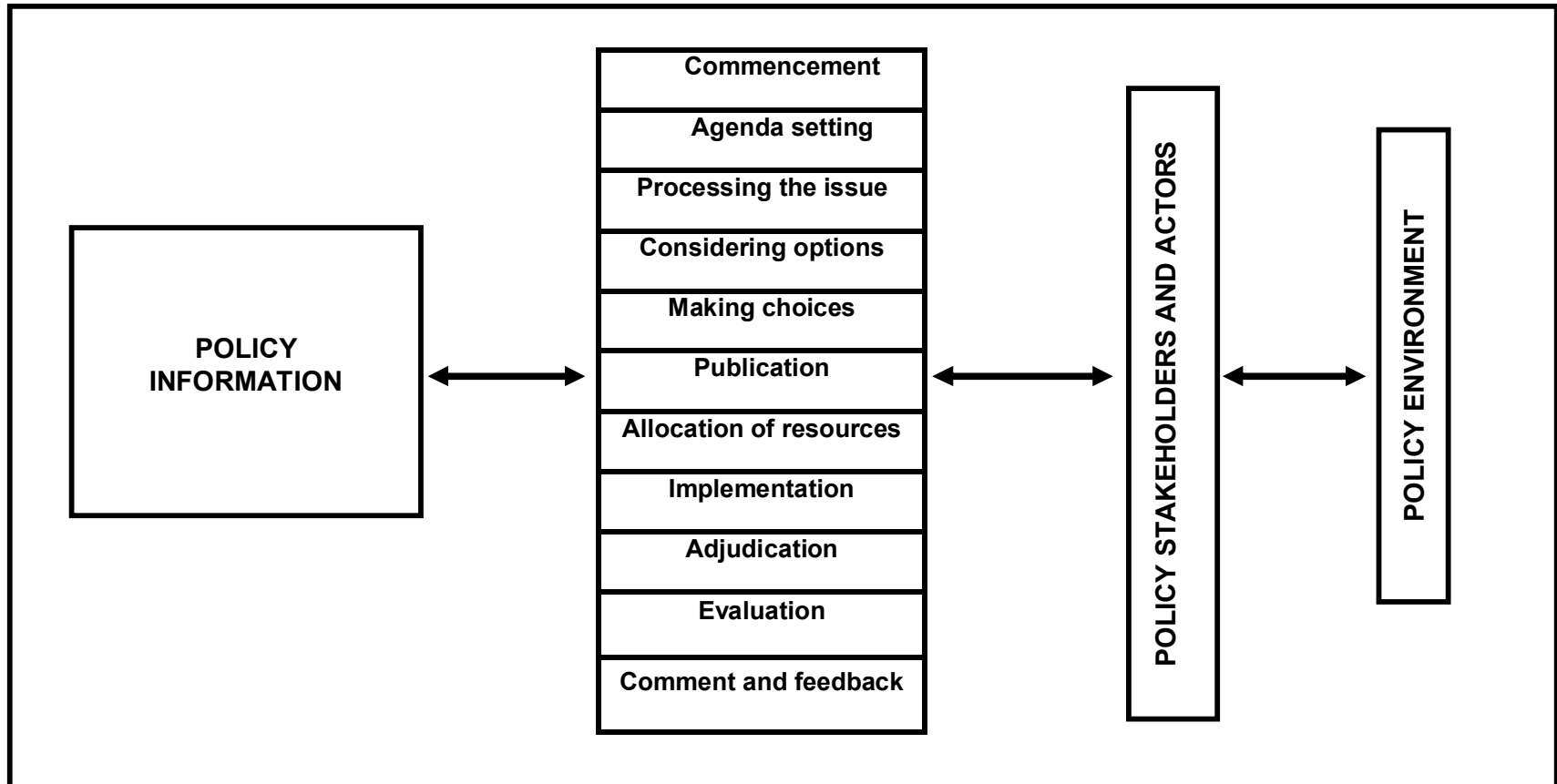
In using the aforementioned phase model, policy-makers can constantly evaluate progress of the policy process. This would allow for appropriate interventions to take place when the need arises. However, Rossouw and Wiseman argued that in applying Dunn's model it is was found that the lack of a strategic national framework for sustainable development confuses the responsibilities of national, provincial and local government (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 49).

Other public policy models have also been developed, for instance, Wissink (in Fox *et al*, 1991: 32) has played a significant role in developing the stage model. In this regard he recommends an alternate approach to developing a policy-making model, this involves the breakdown of the policy-making process into various descriptive stages. This can in turn correlate with the real dynamics and activities that result in policy outputs. Some of the challenges encountered with most models are first, the process is seen as sequential or organised, and second, the policy often begins at different stages and circumvents many activities.

Wissink's Stage Model (refer to Figure 3.2) views the policy-making process as including several activities, which are often, present but ignored in present day models (Fox *et al*, 1991: 32). These activities include, amongst others, becoming aware of a public problem through civic, political or even stakeholder action, and placing these issues on the policy agenda and determining the priorities that need serious and urgent attention (Cloete *et al*,

2010: 48). Thereafter, the process involves identifying the problem, the major stakeholders and the alternative forms of action that are required to solve the problem. After this process is undertaken, a suitable alternative is selected and the decision is subsequently made public.

Figure 3.2: The Stage Model.



Source: Adapted from Wissink's Stage Model (Fox *et al*, 1991: 32).

There is also special provision for the allocation of resources as part of implementation, designing and initiation of the programme of action. Provision is also made for adjudication, which includes enforcing the policy through administrative and even legal means before impact evaluation, and feedback is given (Fox *et al*, 1991: 33).

An African model that encapsulates a macro-approach focusing specifically on institutional factors was developed by Mutahaba *et al* (1993: 49). These institutional factors have been compressed into three stages, which consist of policy formulation, policy implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.

Mutahaba *et al* (1993: 49) suggest that policy formulation consists of the following stages:

- Problem identification, data and information generation and analysis, and decision-making.
- Policy implementation comprises co-ordinating, communicating,
- Organisation, planning, staffing and executing.
- Monitoring and evaluation includes aspects pertaining to the determination of information needs, the generation of information, the transmission of information, assimilation analysis and assessment and feedback to policy formulation.

Consequently, an interrelated approach between functions, organisations and capacities on institutional focus of policy-making processes is crucial for its successful implementation.

The Generic Policy Process Model (refer to Figure 3.3) is preferred by some policy-makers, because it can accommodate the demand for a comprehensive and generic process (De Coning, 1994: 29). In the South African context it provides specific guidance in identifying the key considerations in the policy-making process. Cloete *et al*. (2010: 52) contend

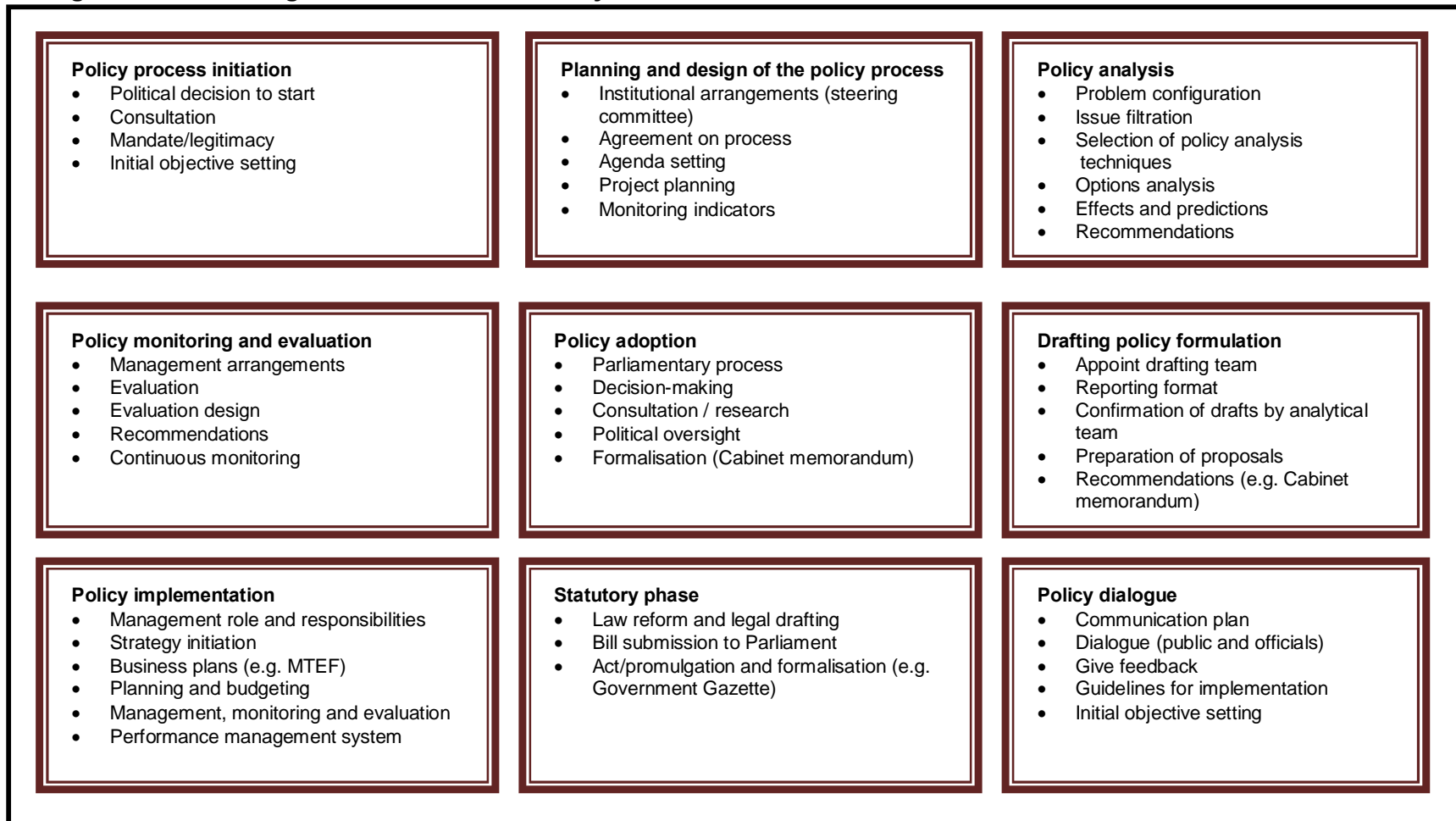
that these are appropriately depicted in the Generic Policy Process Model, which is succinctly listed below:

- Internationally, most policy process models deal mainly with the policy analysis phases in great detail but do not give adequate guidance on the events leading up to the analysis phase.
- In post-apartheid South Africa there was major transformation in the public sector. This was followed by a major shift in the policy-making process, which impacted on the institutional arrangements. This was evident in the government's attempt to overhaul its curriculum policy.
- As far as macro-institutional changes in South Africa were concerned, several organisations had to effect the institutionalisation of policy capacities at the management level.
- The management arrangements of the actual facilitation of a policy process were seen as a key element if the project was to be successful.

Clearly, the Generic Policy Process Model outlines a comprehensive set of phases and also proposes specific requirements on how key issues could be dealt with during each phase. These phases also include, amongst others, key considerations pertaining to: policy initiation, policy process design, policy analysis, policy formulation, decision-making, policy dialogue, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation (Fox *et al*, 1991: 31).

The Generic Policy Process Model provides several positive features. It identifies the major stages and considerations of the various stages through which a policy is developed. The negative aspect of this model includes a lack of detail on all the activities that should be attended to during a particular phase, such as policy analysis techniques during policy analysis, or the usefulness of decision-making and negotiating models during policy adoption (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 52).

Figure 3.3: Flow diagram of the Generic Policy Process Model.



Adapted from De Coning (1994: 29).

Another negative aspect of this model is that it provides insufficient guidance on how to use an organisation's institutional capacity during the policy-making process (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 52).

However, in the South African context the model could be effectively used if it allows for the inclusion of the statutory stage to allow for legislation. The policy process should ideally be monitored throughout all its phases.

3.5.1 Alternate public policy models

There are also various other models that may be used to develop public policy, for example, *symbolic models*, which use mathematical symbols to describe the relationships among variables associated with a specific issue (Dunn, 1981: 111).

Procedural models, conversely use elementary methods, for example, yes/no/if/then, to conjure up or simulate relationships among the given variables. According to Hanekom (1987: 46), policy models may also serve as a surrogate (a model that adds as a substitute for a problem), based on the assumption that a problem can never be a wholly valid representation.

Dror (1968: 163) pioneered the *optimal model* in 1968. This model consisted of three major stages, which included metapolicy-making, policy-making and post-policy making. This model provides a macro-approach and at an early stage accentuates the importance of the institutional fabric in which policy-making processes occurs.

It is clear from the above discussion, that the use of models in understanding policy-making processes is crucial. If the South African education policy developers had used the information and basic principles that are contained in the above-mentioned models effectively, it may have resulted in an implementable curriculum policy for all education stakeholders.

3.6 POLICY MODELS USED IN SOUTH AFRICA

Until 1990, successive White minority governments pursued a largely traditional and western public policy model. This approach ensured incremental policy changes that were undertaken at the behest of the western political and economic elite. The *status quo* was kept largely intact. The pursuance of this type of model is more suited to the political stability of western democracies, where, generally, resources are more equitably distributed than in developing countries like South Africa (Chisholm, in Daniel *et al*, 2003: 272).

With the ushering in of a democratic government in 1994, the Government of National Unity, led by Nelson Mandela, decided to adopt pro-poor policies that catered for the previously marginalised Black South African communities.

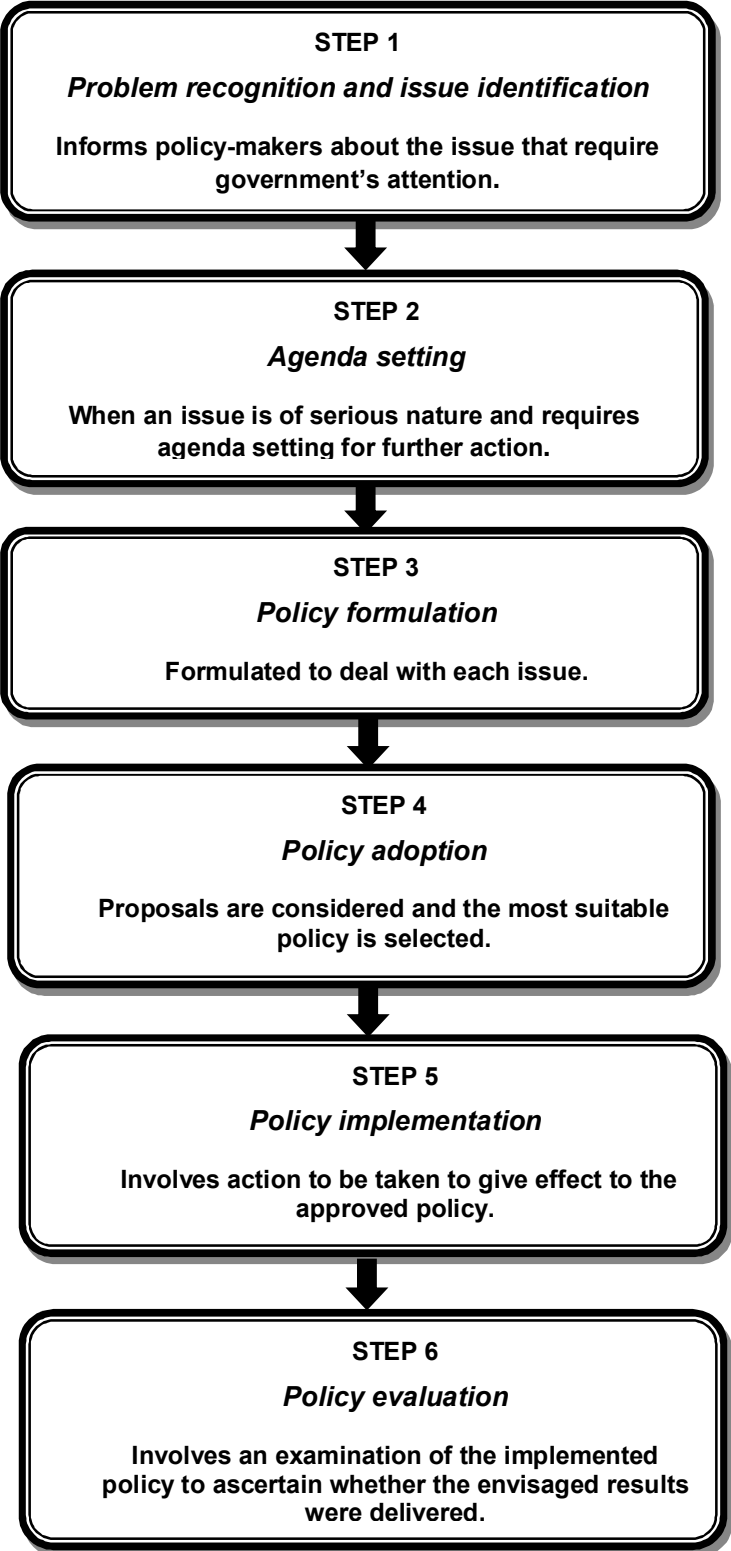
Most developing countries that embarked on policy changes experienced enormous challenges. Similarly, South Africa also experienced challenges in crafting and implementing new policies after 1994 (Christie in Gultig *et al*, 2002: 174). Former president Thabo Mbeki, speaking at a panel discussion at the World Economic Forum meeting in Cape Town, stated that, ~~the~~ the real challenge is more the implementation of these policies rather than the elaboration of policiesq (*The Times*, 5 May 2011). He also called for the creation of an African school of public policy to assist administrators to implement government policies more effectively (*The Times*, 5 May 2011).

3.6.1 Policy model used to transform South Africa's system of education

Of all the models that were discussed in this Chapter, it is clear that both politicians and officials from within the National Department of Education used the commonly agreed steps that were presented by Theodoulou and Cahn (1995: 86-87) to initiate curriculum policy changes.

It consists of six key steps as contained in the flow diagram. Refer to Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Flow diagram showing key steps used to initiate education policy changes in a democratic South Africa.



Source: Adapted from Theodoulou and Cahn (1995: 86-87).

In using this model, each step has been highlighted above will be subsequently discussed in greater detail taking into account the transformation of South Africa's fractured and segregatory system of education, with specific reference to the national curriculum.

3.6.1.1 Step 1 - Problem recognition and issue identification

Up until 1990 the development and production of education policy in South Africa was maintained and controlled by apartheid bureaucrats. It was, bureaucratically centralised, racially exclusive and politically authoritarian (Jansen in Kraak *et al*, 2001: 42). This pattern was firmly entrenched from 1948 until 1990. However, all of this changed when former President FW de Klerk made a seminal decision on 2 February 1990 to unban liberation organisations, release political prisoners and begin a process of negotiation.

Since 1990, there were several education policies that were developed by many social movements, progressive organisations and even the private sector. They proffered viable curriculum policies in anticipation of the complete demise of the apartheid regime and the birth of a non-racial South Africa. On the one hand, there was the National Education Co-ordinating Committee (NECC), which was aligned to the progressive education and labour stakeholders. This Committee established the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI), which developed education policies for the African National Congress and its allies. On the other hand, the private sector, established the Private Sector Education Council (PRISEC) to advise it on education policy matters. The apartheid state also advocated its position by publishing the Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) in two versions and then put forward a specific curriculum policy document called Curriculum Model for South Africa (CUMSA). The international community *via* several non-governmental organisations also put forward a range of curriculum policy alternatives (Harley and Wedekind in Chisholm, 2004: 196). All of these organisations developed policies in anticipation that their curriculum proposals would be adopted to shape South Africa's democratic system of education after 1994.

After the installation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) in 1994, Nelson Mandela became South Africa's first democratically elected president. He had to demonstrate the GNU's intentions to serve the interests of the overwhelming majority of people that had voted it into power.

According to Samoff (1996: 121) the period 1994 to 1999 was characterised by intense policy debates on how South Africa's system of education would be transformed from nineteen racially fragmented education departments to one that demonstrated a non-racial identity. This was to be done against the backdrop of a political system that was established on reconciliation and the government of national unity (Manganyi in Sayed *et al*, 2001: 25). This state of affairs warranted the development of a new education policy that would cater for all South Africans.

Therefore, policy-making is only undertaken when a public problem is identified. The question that needs to be asked is, what is the issue at hand? The challenge that the democratically elected South African government had at hand was a dysfunctional system of education that required serious attention by the newly appointed bureaucrats in this department. Peters (1993: 53) affirms that government had to accept the identification of this specific problem so that an appropriate agenda could be set for the policy-making process. At the same time it had to determine the actual purpose of the policy. Jansen asserts that this period was limited to the symbolism of policy production rather than the details of policy implementation (Kraak *et al*, 2001: 43). This is an accurate summation of the South African education policy-making process. Essentially, policy-makers did not give adequate thought as to how the new curriculum would be cascaded out to the various education stakeholders.

3.6.1.2 Step 2 - Agenda setting

Policy agenda setting, according to Cloete and Meyer (in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 105), is a deliberate planning process in which significant problems are identified, defined and prioritised. Thereafter, support is mobilised and decision makers are lobbied to take the desired action.

Policy agenda setting is critical for two reasons: First, it establishes how stakeholders will influence the policy agenda. Second, it establishes who has influence or controls the policy-making process.

Agenda setting is about getting problems to the government (Jones, 1984:59). He further points out that the term agenda ... portray[s] those issues judged to require public action (Jones, 1984: 59).

Policy agenda setting is defined as, a deliberate planning and action process through which policy issues and problems are identified or structured, prioritised, support mobilised and decision makers lobbied to take appropriate action (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 107).

Bouser, Mc Gregor and Oster (1996: 48) assert that in problem identification, issues must be addressed by means of deliberate public policy interventions at the highest level by the appropriate agent. They suggest that the following questions need to be asked to get conceptual and contextual clarification:

- Who says there is a problem and why is that so?
- What is the extent of the problem?
- Who is responsible for sorting out the problem?
- Is there adequate consensus about the problem and, is it appropriately defined?
- What caused the problem?

The method adopted above is referred to as the systems model perspective, which assumes there is a link between policy causes and effects (Bouser, McGregor & Oster, 1996: 48). There are also models for complex systems, which refute that there is a link between policy causes and effects. These are more difficult to identify and solve.

After 1994, the South African government was inundated with problems that it needed to solve. With regard to education, these ranged from poor school infrastructure to inadequate housing, amongst others. In this case government needed to prioritise its plan of action. It had to therefore embark on a process of filtration or prioritisation to determine which policy issues or problems needed to be dealt with first. Cloete *et al.* (2010: 108) have identified the following key criteria that the South African government used to determine which gets priority:

- Needs and demands,
- Policy objectives,
- Urgency,
- Cost versus benefits,
- Time scale/frame,
- History and experience,
- Resources,
- Feasibility,
- Risk factors,
- Process efficiency and goal effectiveness and
- Sustainability.

In an attempt to address the education crisis in South Africa after 1994, the government incorporated several of the key criteria as outlined above. It did, however, not take into account criteria such as feasibility, risk factors and sustainability. This became apparent while the national curriculum was being implemented in schools throughout South Africa after 1997.

3.6.1.2.1 Factors influencing agenda setting

According to Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 67), the following factors are used to determine whether policy problems will feature on the policy agenda:

- The problem must reach crisis proportions or be in a state of dysfunctionality so that the authorities can no longer ignore it.
- The policy problem must achieve particularity status in which the public is interested in or affected by it.
- The policy problem must be of an emotional nature. It must be a matter of life or death, which attracts enormous media coverage.
- Issues that have a broad impact have a higher probability of reaching the agenda.
- Power relationships in society. Role-players, particularly those that wield a lot of power in society, usually have a better chance of influencing the policy agenda.
- Symbolic or fashionable issues. For example, the South African government decided to support the hosting of the 2010 Soccer World Cup.

3.6.1.2.2 Key role players in policy agenda setting

In the South African context, with reference to the changes in the school curriculum policy, the democratic government wielded substantial power and therefore, was able to influence the agenda setting process. The policy agenda setting process therefore, cannot be a process that is undertaken in isolation from political, economic, social and even global factors.

However, according to Swilling (1992: 7) the agenda setting process in most democratic countries is influenced by money, media communications and straight patronage. Jansen (in Kraak *et al*, 2001: 43) notes that in South

Africa, the agenda setting process for the transformation of the schools curriculum was influenced mainly by political and global forces.

Generally, the agenda setting process is influenced to a large extent by key role players, elected office-bearers (politicians), appointed officials, courts of law, interest groups and the media. These stakeholders played a significant role in shaping the agenda setting process for South Africa's schools curriculum.

3.6.1.3 Step 3 - Policy formulation or design

Policy formulation or design represents the most crucial step in the policy-making process. According to Van Niekerk *et al* (2001: 95) policy formulation or design is actually what will be done to address the problem. In other words, it is what government decides to do or not to do in order to overcome a perceived policy problem within society. This step of the policy making process involves to a large extent the conversion of intellectual and financial resources into a plan of action, including amongst other things, objective and goal setting, prioritisation, option generation and assessment (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 52). This is done in terms of overcoming the problem, financial implications, feasibility and, most important of all, trying to find possible solutions in overcoming the problem (Bouser *et al*, 1996: 48). Arguably, politicians shape policy formulation. A significant drawback of political influence is that politicians are not necessarily equipped to find tangible and long-term solutions to problems that confront the public at large.

Hood in Peters (1993: 54-58) suggests that the following factors influence the process of policy formulation:

- Think tanks (expert education policy analysts and formulators),
- Interest groups (for example teachers, organised labour, school governing body associations, learner councils, civil society, parliament and business),
- Public bureaucracy (for example education officials),

- Politicians (involved in policy formulation activities),
- Circumstances or the environment (transform previous education policy),
- Needs and expectations of the population (improve quality of education) and
- Political parties (envisage that new education policies would create opportunities for the previously disadvantaged citizens of South Africa).

In the light of the above, the process of education policy formulation and design had become both an academic and a political activity, especially with regard to the curriculum. For the new government, the process of curriculum formulation and design became both a process of domination and legitimisation. Chisholm (2004: 2) noted that the first post-apartheid Minister of Education, Sibusiso Bhengu had to formulate a document that represented the core values and vision of the newly elected government. Education officials also realised that it was going to be difficult to formulate and design a new school curriculum without ensuring a semblance of consensus so that it would legitimise the process in the eyes of the contending groups. The then Deputy Director-General of the Department of Education (DoE), John Samuel (1995a: 2-3) noted the following challenges that confronted the new government, especially within a highly contested subject like History:

After the election and installation of a new government, the Ministry of Education was faced with a difficult situation as far as the curriculum was concerned; the situation was particularly difficult with regard to History and the other Humanities and Social Sciences. The old syllabi were clearly unacceptable and could no longer be allowed to continue unchanged. Nonetheless, redevelopment of the new syllabi in a democratic fashion is a lengthy process and it could not be done before the beginning of the 1995 school year. Clearly some sort of interim solution was required.

Harley and Wedekind (in Chisholm: 2004: 196) assert that the process of curriculum formulation and design underwent the following three steps. After the 1994 elections, the first step was to iron out the variations in the curriculum used by the various education departments in South Africa. The second step was to cleanse the existing curriculum (syllabi) of any racially offensive, sexist and also outdated content, especially in History. The third step was the introduction of a continuous assessment (CASS) policy in schools in 1996.

Evidently, South Africa was in dire need of an education policy that was formulated on the principles of democracy and with a strong emphasis on ensuring social and economic development.

3.6.1.4 Step 4 - Policy adoption

This stage focuses on the adoption of a specific programme that was chosen to overcome the identified problem. According to Lindblom (1972: 47), the determination of policy and decision-making are synonymous.

The decision-making process is a rational attempt to achieve the objective as set out in the planning process. Decision-making involves making a choice from two or more alternatives. This process requires discernment, creativity, capability and experience (Dawson, 1994: 14). Amongst the skills mentioned, creativity is a key skill that is required to enhance service delivery within the public administration paradigm. In simple terms, creativity refers to the ability to find original and unique alternatives for existing problems. Creativity is a key skill that differentiates good decision-making from poor ones (Cloete *et al*, 2010: 108).

Anderson (1994: 38) suggests that during the policy adoption stage, informed decisions are taken as to which policy proposal would be chosen to handle a specific problem. The decision to adopt a specific policy would ultimately enhance the quality, effectiveness and efficacy of an organisation, like the Department of Education.

After the education policy formulation and design process was complete, it was presented to parliament for debate and onward promulgation to become law. Officials from the Department of Education produced a series of White Papers, the most notable being the *White Paper on Education and Training of 1995*. In its original form it was a highly contested document but highlighted the key ideas of integration and competency. As a matter of fact, for the African National Congress (ANC) members of Parliament, this was a seminal document that guided all subsequent policy formulations and design. In 1996 this *White Paper* became law and was known as the *National Education Policy Act* (No. 27 of 1996) [NEPA].

NEPA ensured that the concept of co-operative governance between the National and Provincial governments was placed on a legal footing. Manganyi (2001: 22) noted that NEPA became an ideological driving force for education policy and practice across the nine provinces within South Africa. After further deliberations on policy formulation and design, the Minister of Education launched a new school curriculum policy for the Republic of South Africa, referred to as *Curriculum 2005* (C2005) on 24 March 1997 in Cape Town.

Theoretically, the adoption of C2005 was a significant step away from the apartheid regime's policy of Christian National Education, which was a content-laden, and examination-based curriculum (Jansen, 1998: 321-322). Indeed, C2005, by contrast, emphasised learning by doing, problem-solving, skills-development and continuous assessment. Fundamentally, it allowed space for both teacher and learner development.

3.6.1.5 Step 5 - Policy implementation

Pressman and Wildavsky (1973: xiii-xv) are of the view that:

Policies imply theories ... Policies become programs when, by authoritative action, the initial conditions are created... Implementation, then, is the ability to forge subsequent links in the causal chain so as to obtain the desired result.

Van Meter and Van Horn (1974: 447-478) provide a more lucid definition of policy implementation by pointing out that it encompasses those actions by public or private individuals (or groups) that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions. In analysing this definition, a distinction between concepts of implementation, performance and stress are made. Therefore, policy implementation is characterised by a series of activities that is underpinned by constant action.

Policy implementation may take either the top-down or the bottom-up approach.

In some cases both these approaches are incorporated. Sabatier (1986: 22) is of the view that the top-down approach has remained the more dominant approach, which policy implementers have used over the years. Both Sabatier and Mazmanian (1995: 167) who are advocates of the top-down model make the following observations regarding this model of implementation:

- Policy-making is a process that involves formulation, implementation, and reformulation. The distinction amongst the three processes should however be maintained.
- The focal point should be on the attainment of the stated policy goals, although the outputs of the implementing agencies and the outcomes of the implementation process are equally important.
- Implementation should be undertaken from the following perspectives. These include the initial policy-maker or the centre, the implementing officials at the field-level and the target group.

In response to this model, policy formulators have also developed the bottom-up approach. According to Brynard & Erasmus (1995: 169), bottom-uppers have suggested that discretion at lower levels is not only inevitable, but also desirable [because] it is necessary for policies to be reinvented so that they fit local needs. One of the firm advocates of this model is Smith (1973: 147) who views implementation as a tension-generating force in

society. Within the tension-generating matrix, Smith's implementation model is an interaction amongst the following four components:

- The policy wants to induce idealised patterns of interactions,
- The target group is called upon to adjust its behaviour,
- Focus on the implementing organisations' composition, leadership and capacity, and
- Environmental factors.

There is an ongoing debate as to whether policy implementers should use the top-down or bottom-up approach. However, consensus is now emerging that it is not a question of choosing top or bottom as if they are mutually exclusive alternatives (Hanf & Toonen, 1985: 167). Evidently, both approaches provide useful insights into the implementation process; both also display significant strengths and weaknesses. In some instances, both may be equally relevant in the complex process of implementation. Therefore, it is critical that new models on implementation be developed which highlight and capture the strengths and weaknesses of both perspectives (Sabatier & Hanf, 1985: 224). Furthermore, there is a growing view on the need to synthesise the major features of the two approaches and develop models that demonstrate the strength of both. This becomes imperative because implementation is a complex, dynamic, multi-level, multi-actor process and is influenced by both content and context of the policy that is being implemented.

According to Peters (1993: 91-92), for perfect policy implementation to occur, the following specific factors play a significant contributory role:

- Legislative framework,
- Policy matters,
- Political scenario,

- Interest group,
- Institutional setting,
- Institutional disunity,
- Standard operating procedures,
- Institutional communication,
- Time constraints,
- Unfinished and inaccurate public planning and
- Institutional politics within public institutions.

South Africa's curriculum transformation process was inundated by many of the abovementioned factors. For instance, the legislative framework was characterised by a series of policy proposals including the *White Paper* developments in the post-apartheid period. However, one of the biggest challenges facing the country was the implementation of these outstanding education policies. This process was compounded because the *White Paper* or *Act* did not provide specific guidelines on how to implement policy. In its absence, senior officials and government bureaucrats had to make an effort to translate these policies into operational guidelines.

After the then Minister of Education, Sibusiso Bhengu, announced South Africa's new national curriculum, implementation had to begin in earnest (Christie in Gultig *et al*, 2002: 171). C2005 was scheduled for implementation in Grade 1 in 1998 and Grade 7 in 1999. It was to be phased in progressively so that it would cover all grades at both primary and secondary schools by 2005 (Harley & Wedekind in Chisholm, 2004: 197). The implementation of the new national curriculum was far more demanding and difficult as opposed to policy formulation.

Policy implementation is not an event but a rigorous process, which consists of several stages. Sabatier (1986: 22) states that these stages consist of: various decisions of the implementing agencies, the impact of these decisions, and finally, the political authority's evaluation in terms of the attempted revisions to its content.

In this regard, it is often stated that South Africa has outstanding *policies*, in this case the national curriculum. However, it is in the implementation stage that government bureaucrats are found wanting. Jansen (2001: 274-275) argues that politicians and government bureaucrats have the tendency to formulate dramatic policy announcements and sophisticated policy documents without any reference to the modalities of the implementation process. He further claims that there was no implementation plan for the roll-out of the national curriculum to schools because implementation did not appear on the agenda (Jansen, 2001: 274).

3.6.1.5.1 Variables used for policy implementation: The 5-C Protocol

Current research has revealed that there is substantial evidence to suggest that there is a convergence of the critical variables when a policy is implemented. In this regard, Brynard and De Coning in Cloete *et al* (2010: 196) have identified five critical variables, which may shape the direction that the implementation process takes. These five variables consist of Content, Context, Commitment, Clients and Coalitions, which emerge as very important casual factors (Brynard and De Coning, in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 197). These variables are not stand-alone concepts and are integrally linked to, and influenced by the others, depending on the specific implementation situation or scenario.

The following is an elaboration on the five variables:

(i) Content

Content is regarded as the nature of the policy, whether it is aimed at creating public goods for the general welfare (distributive policy) or it specifies the rules of conduct with sanctions for failure to comply (regulatory

policy) or else it attempts to change the allocations of wealth or power of some groups at the expense of others (redistributive) (Lowi, 1963: 22).

The importance of content is aptly summarised by Pressman and Wildavsky (1973: xv) who consider implementation as *a seamless web... a process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieving them*. The mediation between the end and the means is the content of the policy.

With regard to the education policy, in this case the C2005, the *content* variable as put forward by the 5-C protocol, was adequately addressed by policy developers.

(ii) Context

Context involves highlighting the importance of the institutional corridor through which implementation must take place. Policy implementation cannot take place on its own and cannot function in a vacuum. A number of interrelated political, social, economic and legal factors affect the policy implementation process (Banting, in Bulmer *et al*, 1986: 148 - 149). Therefore, the context under which a policy is implemented would invariably impact on its outcome; this was no different with regard to the implementation of the C2005.

(iii) Commitment

Commitment refers to the willingness of the potential policy implementers to actually implement it. Even if a policy has all the ingredients, implementation would not be effective if the implementers lack commitment (Warwick, 1982: 135). Commitment is essential at all levels, including both at the highest level of public domain and at the grassroots level, through which the policy passes. In addition, commitment will influence and be influenced by the other four variables of content, capacity, context, and clients and coalitions. It is evident that with the implementation of the C2005 that the notion of commitment amongst most education role-players across South African

schools gradually gained momentum and improved over the years (Chisholm: 2004: 6).

(iv) Capacity

The capacity of government is seen in terms of its structural, functional and cultural ability to effectively implement its policy objectives. Capacity includes access to concrete and tangible resources such as financial, human, material, technological and others. It also includes intangible requirements of leadership, motivation and even endurance. Over and above the tangible and intangible factors of capacity, the political, administrative, economic, technological, cultural and social environments within which a policy is being implemented must also be conducive to successful implementation (Grindle, 1980: 446).

Experts on this particular aspect of implementation are in agreement that there is a need for effective implementation capacity. Consequently, it is essential that implementers have the requisite administrative and related skills to do the job at hand.

In most developing countries, like South Africa, the lack of resources impedes the implementation process. As a result government should re-design service delivery programmes to match the existing capacity of public servants. In addition, governments should not only be the producer of services, but also promote, facilitate, regulate and even participate in the production of services, depending on its capacity to do so. In the light of this governments should decide, if and where possible, to find organisations within the public service or private sector to assist with the implementation of policy (World Bank, 1997: 162).

According to Brynard and De Coning (in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 200-201) this approach is also referred to as ~~an~~ alternate service delivery mechanisms and it includes the following:

- Privatisation,
- Corporatisation,

- Outsourcing,
- Alliances and partnerships,
- Co-operative ventures,
- Decentralisation,
- Regulations and
- Assistance.

Brynard and De Coning (in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 201) assert that there are no objective criteria to measure the effectiveness of capacity. In the absence of tangible criteria, the following questions must be asked to ascertain whether the traditional public service agency can provide the expected service:

- At the necessary level (quantity, quality, and cost-effectiveness)?
- In the required manner (participatory, people-centred)?
- With the required authority and control?

The second change that government can make to improve its policy implementation strategy is to embark on reducing big unwieldy public bureaucracies into smaller and more effective ones. This may involve selected policy implementation functions being taken over by organisations outside of the public sector (Quade, 1975: 255).

The third change involves governments moving away from separate and isolated policy and financial planning and implementation to a more integrated and inclusive strategic management practice at all strategic levels of the organisation (Brynard and De Coning in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 201).

The fourth change may require governments to move from an input, resource-focused administration to an output, results-based management system with performance contracting and promotion in an endeavour to improve capacity implementation (Bulmer *et al*, 1986: 14).

In the fifth change, governments can make an effort to transform from a closed bureaucratic-dominated work environment to a more transparent, accountable and participatory public policy process (Brynard and De Coning in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 201).

The sixth and the final change that governments can embrace should be an improved financial system which will denote a change from a simple cash budgeting and accounting system to more complex annual budgeting and accounting system that includes multi-year financial planning cycles (Brynard and De Coning in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 201).

Bulmer *et al.* (1986: 28 - 29) argue that the experiences of countries in South East Asia such as Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and Philippines highlight their ability to create a capacity for sustainable governance. The following characteristics were regarded as pre-requisites for their success:

- A lucid national vision with realistic action plans in strategic policy sectors,
- Committed, strong, competent and honest political and administrative leadership and direction,
- Access to and the availability of resources (for example people, money, supplies and information),
- Effective and efficient strategic and operational management (design, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and policy review),
- A strong organisational culture with a robust work ethic,
- Friendly democratic and economic environments and
- A significant amount of good luck.

It is clear from the above characteristics that what is actually needed for successful implementation of policy is commitment as well as the capacity to undertake the given strategic task within a specific context. This was, however, lacking with the implementation of South Africa's national curriculum because the cascading and training of both Curriculum Specialists and educators was scant, insufficient and not rigorous. Jansen (2001: 274) concurs with this and claims that with the roll out of the new national curriculum, the Department of National Education made a last minute

concession to offer each Grade 1 teacher five days of training (or information) on the new curriculum. Moreover, teachers were not supported with any detailed plans and resources on how to actually implement these radically new ideas in mostly under-resourced classrooms across South Africa.

(v) Clients and coalitions

In order to ensure the successful implementation of policy, it becomes mandatory for government to form lasting coalitions among relevant interest groups, opinion-makers and with all relevant stakeholders who support the given policy. This includes everyone that is affected by the policy, whether it is the community, private sector, non-governmental organisations and the target group itself, which is expected to benefit from policy programmes.

Rein and Rabinowitz (1978: 314) contend that in implementing policy, a power shift is possible. They also assert that a shift in power among the various interest groups may result in an equivalent shift in the process of implementation.

In the implementation of the national curriculum it would be critical for the various stakeholders to collaborate and co-operate with each other. This robust engagement would occur, to a large extent, at the various tiers within the National and Provincial Departments of Education, starting with the officials from head office, district office, circuits, wards, schools and even school governing bodies. This co-operation among the various tiers within the Department of Education regarding the implementation of curriculum policy would augur well for advocacy.

It is important to note that clients and coalitions can influence the implementation process in either a positive or negative manner. Thus, it would be prudent to align the implementation process with clients and coalitions that can bring about positive spin-offs. At the same time, clients and coalitions that impede the implementation process should be alienated

and marginalised as they may continue to hinder the process (Quade, 1975: 263). The relationship that the Department of Education initiated between the various clients and coalitions regarding the implementation of the national curriculum was initially very significant and noteworthy, because there was a sense of commitment to the process being successful.

As Brynard in Cloete and Wissink (2000: 187) asserts:

what the interlink dynamic 5-C protocol implies is that implementation cannot be seen as an activity to be carried out according to a carefully pre-determined plan; rather, it is a process that, at the very best, can only be managed, and lessons must be learnt as one proceeds through different implementation stages.

The implementation of the national curriculum in post-apartheid South Africa, was, to a large degree, shaped by the agreements, ideals and prescribed guidelines for political and administrative conduct, which had a normative and directional effect on political aims and the administrative realisation of those aims (Hanekom, 1992: 55).

Maqutu *et al.* (1999: 37) argued that privileged schools with well-qualified teachers and abundant material resources responded positively to the implementation of the new national curriculum. However, the majority of schools in South Africa struggled to implement the national curriculum. This was largely attributed to factors such as unqualified and under-qualified educators, poor infrastructure and a lack of resources. A detailed account of the implementation challenges is inappropriate here.

However, a summary of the problems that beset the implementation process included the following:

- The curriculum was jargon ridden and inaccessible,
- Inadequate and insufficient teacher training and development,
- Poor quality of training. Cascade model was ineffective,

- Inadequate co-ordination and management,
- Limited financial and personnel capacity and
- Insufficient curriculum resource development (CEPD, 2000: 28).

Therefore, the implementation of the new curriculum was steeped in crisis. Vally & Spreen (1998: 36) claim that half of the primary schools in the rural and under-serviced areas had failed to implement the curriculum.

The acknowledgment of this crisis facing South Africa's system of education was made by the second Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, in his *Call to Action* in late 1999 (Jansen in Kraak *et al*, 2001: 51).

3.6.1.6 Step 6 - Policy evaluation

Policy evaluation became necessary to ascertain whether it would be feasible to continue with the specified policy or programme or to terminate or even expand it. The focus, however, for the purposes of this study is to ascertain what exactly are policy evaluation is, how it is undertaken and what some of the challenges are.

3.6.1.6.1 Understanding policy evaluation

Policy evaluation involves an intensive process of introspection, to ascertain the efficacy of a policy, whether to abandon it or change it. Howlett & Ramesh (1995: 168) affirm that policy evaluation refers broadly to the process of finding out about a public policy in action, the means being employed and the objectives being served. How deep or thorough the evaluation is depends on those ordering its initiation and/or those undertaking it.

Fox & Meyer (1995: 45) state that during evaluation the policy-analytic research method or technique is used to measure performance programmes. This is undertaken so that the continuous change in activities can be determined with a view to improving efficacy, especially their impact on the conditions they are supposed to change. In addition, the systematic

measurement of performance, in terms of specific policies, guidelines and procedures; passing judgement on others, assessing blame or praise; the use of research techniques to measure the past performance of a specific programme becomes an integral and crucial part of evaluation. Essentially the programme seeks to improve its effectiveness in achieving its overall objectives.

Policy evaluation, according to Bouser *et al.* (1996: 43), is concerned with assessing what actually happened as a result of the policy and its implementation. The key question is whether the rationale for the policy was met and how the implementation process can be improved. The evaluation process may result in the policy being adjusted or being abandoned in its entirety. Supporting this view, Valelly (1993: 262) states that policies are evaluated as to whether they get the job done well and at what price.

Van Niekerk *et al* (2001: 98) purport that policy evaluation is used for assessing both the effectiveness and the impact of a policy. Critical questions about the output of policy are asked, such as, did the policy work? How effective/practical was the policy? Did the policy bring about any tangible changes?

Bouser *et al* (1996: 52) argue that evaluation can be seen as a beginning and if properly accomplished, the information gained from the evaluation process may assist in re-working and fine-tuning the existing policy.

In its ideal form, policy evaluation or assessment should be viewed as a judging process to compare explicit and implicit policy objectives with real or projected outcomes or results or impacts (Cloete in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 247).

It is important to have a thorough understanding of the concept of evaluation. Thus, after any policy, in this case Curriculum 2005, that was implemented, a thorough introspection and evaluation of the policy is undertaken to ascertain the efficacy and sustainability of the policy.

3.6.1.6.2 The purpose of policy evaluation

There is a litany of reasons for policy evaluation. Shafritz (1998: 820) elaborates on some of the more pertinent reasons for policy evaluation below. Amongst other factors policy evaluation is undertaken to:

- Determine progress towards achieving policy objectives,
- Gain knowledge from the programme which may help with policy review, redesign or implementation plans,
- Investigate the feasibility of a principle, model, theory, proposal or strategy,
- Offer political and financial accountability,
- Promote improvement and
- Bolster public interaction.

Analysts are usually tasked with trying to establish the real reasons for policy evaluations. Valadez & Bamberger (1994: 52) list the following practical benefits for policy evaluations:

- Provides an accurate assessment of the nature and extent of the impact that can be expected and hence can help planners identify the projects likely to produce the best return on the resources invested,
- Demonstrate that the observed changes were not due to the project (but to external factors) and thus avoid investment in projects that are unlikely to produce the desired benefits,
- Assesses the factors contributing to project impact and thus help planners improve project design,
- Identify those groups that tend to benefit least from certain kinds of projects and thus propose the special measures needed to encourage these groups to participate and

- Approximate the time period during which the impacts are likely to occur and thus increase the precision of the project analysis procedures.

Policy evaluation is undertaken to ascertain whether the goals of a specific project were achieved. In the light of this, the Department of Education established that it was essential to evaluate whether the implementation of the national curriculum was successful or not.

3.6.1.6.3 Focal areas of policy evaluation

Most public policy initiatives are intended at improving the lives of people. It also aspires to work with specific institutions in an endeavour to alter or change the behavioural patterns of people in society. According to Cloete (in Cloete *et al*, 2010: 249) policy evaluation can focus on any one or more of the following attributes:

- Incorporates a description of both intended and unintended changes on structures, processes or behaviour patterns,
- The goal-effectiveness or adequacy of the project or programme,
- The cost-effectiveness of the programme, its resource utilisation and the level of efficiency,
- To ascertain whether participation, representivity, empowerment and satisfaction of the stakeholders or target audience was achieved,
- Equality and equity in terms of government policy should be attained, and
- Ensuring the sustainability of the project.

With regard to the above, the Department of Education was unsuccessful in implementing these attributes. Specifically, the attributes of cost-effectiveness and the sustainability of the implementation of the national curriculum were inadequate and mostly ineffective.

3.6.1.6.4 Decision to evaluate

The decision to evaluate a specific policy should be undertaken with great caution. It is a complex task and could consume a substantial amount of resources. Sampson & Lee (1990: 157) declare that the following questions ought to be asked before a decision is taken to undertake an evaluation:

- Is it clear what is to be evaluated?
- Is the cause for the evaluation clear and justified?
- How would the results influence future policy-making processes?
- Is there adequate time for the evaluation?
- Is the evaluation viable?
- Are there enough resources available to undertake the evaluation?
- Is the evaluation going to be meaningful and useful?

Before the decision to evaluate a policy is taken, it is necessary that most of the above questions be answered positively. In this regard, the Department of Education took a bold and decisive step to evaluate the national curriculum. This was initiated by Professor Kader Asmal, Minister of Education appointed in 1999. He immediately embarked on a listening campaign out of which came, '*A Call to Action: Building and Training System for the 21st Century*' which consisted of a framework of principles and strategies (Asmal's Speech: 1999). The factors that spurred Asmal into evaluating the curriculum was poor learner achievements as well as increasing departmentally based evidence that the implementation of the national curriculum was not going according to plan.

3.6.1.6.5 Evaluation design

After the various stakeholders are consulted and the decision to proceed with the process of evaluation is finalised, then the evaluation design must begin. Vedung (1997: 265) asserts that the following key questions should be answered:

- What kind of evaluation should be undertaken and at what stage of the policy life cycle should its intervention occur?
- What strategies should be approved to attain the evaluation objectives?
- What criteria or indicators should be used to measure evaluation results?
- Who should undertake it - insiders or outsiders?
- How will the conclusions be disseminated and utilised for the greatest impact on the policy process?

In responding to the above-mentioned questions, the Department of Education embarked on an evaluation design that ensured that the evaluation process of the national curriculum was both focussed and relevant. After much deliberation, Minister Asmal appointed a committee to review Curriculum 2005 on 21 February 2000. The Review Committee consisted of educational role players and was led by Linda Chisholm.

After embarking on an extensive consultation with various education stakeholders, the Curriculum Review Committee presented its report to Minister Asmal on 31 May 2000. It recommended that:

- The design of the curriculum should be simplified,
- Curriculum and content overload be reduced in the various Learning Areas in the Intermediate Phase,
- The terminology and language used in the curriculum should be simplified,

- Assessment requirements should be made clear,
- Content focus in the curriculum should be specific,
- A comprehensive plan should be implemented to address teacher training for the successful implementation of the new curriculum,
- Textbooks and reading had to be reintroduced as a widely recognised means to bridge the gap between teacher readiness, curriculum policy and classroom implementation (Dada *et al*, 2009: 12-13).

The recommendations of the Review Committee were effected between 2000 and 2002/3 in what became known as the revised and streamlined *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* for the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education and Training (FET) bands.

In the long term, the evaluation process of the national curriculum proved to be beneficial to all education stakeholders in South Africa.

3.6.1.6.6 Requirements for successful policy evaluation

In order for policy evaluation to be effective and useful, a structured and organised approach becomes imperative. Hanekom (1987: 96) suggests the following criteria should be a pre-requisite for effective policy evaluation:

- **Relevance:** The process of evaluation should be relevant for the purposes of resolving an existing policy issue or problem. In this regard it became necessary to revisit and review the national curriculum.
- **Significance:** It must bring about changes to the existing policy. In evaluating the national curriculum, the Review Committee suggested significant changes.
- **Originality:** It should generate new information that was unavailable before the evaluation process was undertaken. The Review Committee made several suggestions that would make the national curriculum more workable.

- Legitimacy: It must enjoy the support of the major stakeholders involved in the policy issue area (for example participants, target groups or funders). The Review Committee held several meetings and discussions with education stakeholders throughout South Africa regarding the national curriculum.
- Validity: The findings and conclusions must have effective causal linkages with the descriptive, factual component of the evaluation. The findings of the Review Committee were presented to the Minister of Education for his interrogation and final approval.
- Timeliness: The evaluation should be on time to influence future policy decisions regarding the specific project or programme. The Review Committee made its findings known in a report within three months.
- Usability: It should not be written-up in academic jargon but in a user-friendly way, with a practical, problem-resolving focus. In addition, the report by the Review Committee was written in an uncomplicated and easy to read manner.

Hence, in evaluating C2005, the Department of Education's Review Committee did in fact use several of the criteria as identified by Hanekom.

3.6.1.6.7 Responsibility for policy evaluation

Since evaluation is a highly specialised activity, it requires specific knowledge, skills and expertise. For the evaluation to be properly undertaken, time and finances are crucial. Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 234) recommend that the following should be responsible for policy evaluations:

- Internal staff responsible for implementation: This option may be more cost-effective and faster. It would be undertaken by experts who understand the inner workings of the project. One of the major drawbacks of using this approach is that the results may yield biased or subjective findings because individuals involved have vested interests.

- Special internal research, planning or evaluation units: These individuals may have specialised research and evaluation skills, which augur well for the outcome of the process. A shortcoming of using these individuals is that they may have designed the policy and hence may be biased towards it.
- Independent evaluators: If this route is taken it may incur huge costs and make the process financially prohibitive. On the positive side, these evaluators may be less biased. At the same time they would not have the specialised knowledge of the policy and not know the constraints under which the policy was implemented.
- Special multi-disciplinary evaluation teams: This approach seems to be the most feasible. Solicit the services of a multi-disciplinary team of both internal staff, planning staff and external experts who have a thorough knowledge and experience of the policy issue at stake.

Clearly, from the above recommendations put forward by Hogwood and Gunn, the Department of Education chose a multi-disciplinary evaluation Review Committee to evaluate the national curriculum. This is apparent in its findings and recommendations, which were generally critical of how the national curriculum was implemented.

3.6.1.6.8 Constraints facing the policy evaluation process

There are several impediments or constraints that confront the process of evaluation. The most common are listed below:

- Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 224) declare that criteria or indicators for measuring change are insufficient.
- Howlett and Ramesh (1995: 169) assert that policy goals are often absent, unclear or deliberately hidden. This makes measurement difficult or impossible.
- Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 226) suggest that insufficient planning and monitoring of baseline data may lead to inaccurate findings and conclusions.

- Vedung (1997: 45) states that unintended consequences, spillover or even side effects may result in complicating the evaluation process.
- Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 226) maintain that the cumulative impact of different, especially integrated projects or programmes that cannot be separated from each other make sensible conclusions about cause-effect relationships very difficult and sometimes even impossible.
- Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 227) assert that evaluation results may be politically or otherwise sensitive. Evaluations are not done in its entirety, superficially, or partially or in some cases it may be done in a biased fashion.
- Cloete *et al.* (2010: 275) contend that evaluation results are sometimes unacceptable because they are far too academic, incomprehensible, too ambiguous and too critical of decision-makers and was therefore rejected.

From the above constraints the process of policy evaluation, especially in South Africa, does not necessary have a good outlook (Rist, 1995: xvi). In this regard, the Department of National Education in implementing the national curriculum policy did not use the opportunity to evaluate this policy on an ongoing basis to identify gaps and implement the recommended changes. To counteract this, a specific unit should have been established to evaluate policy on an ongoing basis, so that appropriate and corrective action could have taken place. Authorities should not wait for five years, until a new Minister of Education is appointed to initiate changes to policy. Howlett and Ramesh (1995: 178) succinctly capture this South African scenario when they point out that policy evaluation, like other stages of the policy cycle, are an inherently political exercise and must be recognised explicitly as suchq

3.6.1.6.9 Using the policy evaluation results

Evaluation results must be compiled in a user-friendly and readable manner. This would go a long way in ensuring a positive spin off for future policy processes. There are several guidelines on how to compile an effective evaluation report. Below, are a few of Vedung's (1997: 281) examples, of how reports should be compiled using the diffusion centred strategy. He argues that reports should:

- Be well laid out, using clear headings, sub-headings and an overall analysis,
- Be innovative or startling and thought provoking,
- Avoid unnecessary detail and be to the point,
- Focus on one central or salient issue,
- Contain a short and incisive executive summary,
- Be written in simple and clear language,
- Accompanied by interactive diagrams,
- Ensure that potential evaluation clients be located in advance,
- Ensure that the methodological considerations are appended as attachments,
- Ensure that the findings, insights and recommendations are disseminated to many audiences as possible before the final essay is completed,
- Include recommendations for action,
- Be prompt and timely,
- Ensure that results are communicated in person, and

- Ensure that evaluators sell their findings, be around in case managers want to talk, engaging in public debate, *inter alia*.

By using the evaluation results critically, one can get an opportunity to clarify the set goals, increase or decrease the number of commitments, which, in turn, can lead to a reduction of uncertainties. This process can also be useful to stimulate insight and make appropriate suggestions or recommendations on immediate courses of action (Kordes, 1992: 128). Since the process of evaluation is both costly and demanding, it is critical that the results be put to good use. Arvidson (1992: 260) indicates that evaluation results should be a source of successive and mutual learning. This would have positive spin-offs for the public sector and all evaluators.

The evaluation reports of the national curriculum may have a number of encouraging spin-offs, for example, an improvement in the quality of education in the Republic of South Africa. The information contained in these reports is generally developed in a user-friendly, well laid out and readable manner. The Minister of Education usually presents these findings at press conferences that were held at the Department of Education's offices in Pretoria and copies of the reports are made available to all education stakeholders, especially educators who are the key custodians of the national curriculum. It becomes incumbent that the National, Provincial and District education officials make the findings of the report known to all stakeholders involved in education. By doing this, educators in particular should adjust their teaching methodology in line with the findings of the report.

Conclusively, policy evaluation is a crucial part of policy process and ideally should be used as a yardstick to ascertain whether a policy is effective or not.

3.7 CONCLUSION

From the discussion regarding public policy and policy in general, it is apparent that there is no universally accepted definition, theory or model for specific circumstances. Nonetheless, the use of models in actual policy-making initiatives serves as an important yardstick to measure the strength or weakness of a policy.

Within the South African context, after 1994, there was a dire need to develop and fashion education policy that was inclusive and non-racial in outlook. In line with this, policy developers and analysts had to design tangible models to overhaul South Africa's ailing system of education.

Against this background, it became essential to know what constitutes public policy and the critical steps involved in developing, implementing and evaluating the national curriculum. These critical steps included the following:

- Step 1 . Problem recognition and issue identification.
- Step 2 . Agenda setting
- Step 3 . Policy formulation
- Step 4 . Policy adoption
- Step 5 . Policy implementation
- Step 6 . Policy evaluation

In traversing these steps the democratic government of South Africa was able to establish that there was a problem with the system of education pre - 1994, specifically regarding the national curriculum. In the formulation of education policy, the government ascertained whether the policy was cost effective, affordable and, most of all, implementable. In the implementation and evaluation of the national curriculum, the government was able to measure, in quantifiable terms, whether this policy was effective or not.

The next Chapter will focus on regional and international trends in curriculum policy and its implementation.

CHAPTER FOUR

REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS IN CURRICULUM POLICY DEVELOPMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter undertakes a comparative analysis of the regional and international trends in curriculum policy-making. It explores progress in the countries that make up the developing and developed world, including countries from sub-Saharan Africa namely, Mozambique and Namibia. It also utilises the theoretical contribution of countries that were selected by the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework (INCA) archive which consisted of Australia, Canada, England, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the USA, Wales and South Africa.

The purpose is to draw parallels between South Africa's curriculum and assessment policies with countries in both the developing and developed world in an endeavour to ascertain whether South Africa conforms to or deviates from regional and international trends.

A discussion on the various reasons for curriculum and assessment policy changes in most of the participating countries is undertaken. Specific reference to curriculum content, curriculum organisation and assessment of the curriculum content is undertaken. Information to make these inferences was, primarily, but not exclusively, derived from regional sub-Saharan case studies as well as from the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Archive (INCA), which archives ongoing research on education policy in the afore-mentioned participating countries.

It is evident that owing to rapid technological advancement in a globalised world, most progressive countries have chosen to adapt or transform their

curriculum policy in order to keep abreast of regional and international trends, with South Africa being no different.

4.2 REASONS FOR CURRICULUM CHANGE

With the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989) and the end of the Cold War (1990), the world rapidly became a very different place politically and economically (Chinnammai, 2005: 1). Consequently, the majority of citizens across the world became what Marshall McLuhan¹ referred to as part of the global village and the process of globalisation became a reality for most countries (Jensen, 2002: 16). Not immune to globalisation, education also underwent rapid changes with regard to developments in technology, communications and computerised learning systems. This invariably influenced the way learners and teachers interacted which, invariably led to the emergence of the new global citizen. These citizens were increasingly equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge, which they could apply in a competitive, information, based society (Chinnammai, 2005: 1-2).

Globalisation also influenced policy making in sub-Saharan African countries as well as South Africa, Mozambique and Namibia. These countries became subsumed in the politics of liberal democracy and the free market system, which were the hallmarks of globalisation (Zajda, 2005: 6-7). This type of economic system demanded new forms of labour and many countries throughout the world, including those in sub-Saharan Africa, decided to usher in educational and curriculum reform (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008: 685).

¹ Marshall McLuhan a Canadian media theorist, was one of the first prophets of globalisation and of the modern communications revolution who coined the term global village.

The effect of globalisation is summed up as follows (Marginson, 1999: 19):

Globalisation is irreversibly changing the politics of the nation-state and its regional sectors, domestic classes and nationally-defined interest groups. It is creating new potentials and limits in the politics of education. Its effects on the politics of education are complex ... Increasingly shaped, as it is, by globalisation-both directly and via the effects of globalisation in national government. Education at the same time has become a primary medium of globalisation, and an incubator of its agents. As well as inhibiting or transforming older kinds of education, globalisation creates new kinds.

From the 1990s until recently, there were several efforts by most countries throughout the world to modify their systems of education so that it was in keeping with the political, economic, social and cultural changes that were unfolding globally. These modifications were accentuated in the national educational policies of each of the countries in this study (Malcolm, 2001: 207).

For instance, countries in sub-Saharan Africa, namely Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa, responded by overhauling their curriculum policy, which espoused learner-centeredness, outcomes and competency based education, similar to the system that New Zealand and Australia used (Tikly, 2001: 158).

Tabulawa (2003: 6) asserts that the globalisation and ascendancy of neo-liberalism as a development paradigm in the 1980s and 1990s elevated political democratisation as a pre-requisite for economic development and with it, learner centred pedagogy. He further noted that pedagogy is part of an ideological outlook, a worldview intended to develop a preferred kind of society and people... representing a process of westernisation disguised as quality and effective teaching (Tabulawa, 2003: 7). In addition, Tikly argues that during globalisation, Western hegemony has continued to assert itself. Hoogvelt (1997: 179) concurs with Tikly's assertion that European racism has

continued to exert an influence on educational reform in countries in sub-Saharan Africa. She also states that the implementation of structural adjustment policies have tied in with the spread of the new racism which has come to underpin popular explanations for the growing political instability and inter-communal conflicts in the marginal areas of the global economy (Hoogvelt, 1997: 179). Ndoye (1997: 81) claims that structural adjustment programmes that were imposed by the World Bank led to the stifling of African attempts to develop its own policies, which before colonialism was based on collective action, not on the western, individualistic and entrepreneurial model.

Although there are dissenting views on the impact of globalisation. The subsequent aspect of this Chapter delves into how various regional and international countries that were used in this study responded to globalisation in developing their respective education policies.

4.3 REGIONAL CURRICULUM TRENDS: FOCUS ON SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

This section examines the development of curriculum policies in post-colonial independent sub-Saharan African countries, Mozambique and Namibia, which can be compared to the curriculum transformation that occurred in South Africa post-1994. Educational policies in these countries were informed by issues pertaining to national unity, economic growth and Africanisation. It was indeed a response to the legacy of Eurocentric, divisive and exploitative policies that were imposed on these respective sub-Saharan African countries (Brock-Utne, 2000: 1)

The aforementioned sub-Saharan African countries faced enormous challenges on the road to social reconstruction and nation-building which was exacerbated by extreme social diversity, poverty, rapid globalisation coupled with industrialisation and modernisation (Berthelemy, 2005: 435). They were motivated by the following factors to review their curriculum policies:

- International policy decisions,
- Political change and
- Modernisation (UNESCO, 2000: 26-28).

Evidently most sub-Saharan African countries had to transform their respective curriculum policies to meet with burgeoning economic, social and political challenges that confronted them. Chisholm & Leyendecker (2008: 685) noted that sub-Saharan African countries decided to overhaul their curriculum policies so that they were learner-centred and incorporated more local and indigenous knowledge. Specific details as to how the two identified sub-Saharan countries and managed curriculum transformation is discussed below:

4.3.1 Impact of policy decisions

The 1990s was a decade that afforded sub-Saharan African countries, Mozambique, Namibia as well as South Africa with several opportunities to initiate change. These included:

- The fall of the Berlin Wall and the end of the Cold War which resulted in the re-development of education policies. In the case of Mozambique most of the Marxist-Leninist theoretical framework that influenced education policy was removed, however, the basic structure of the school system was kept intact (Woolman, 2001: 32). In response, many sub-Saharan countries including Namibia and Mozambique subsequently had multi-party elections, which demonstrated their commitment to liberal democracy and a free market economy. This served to speed up the education and curriculum reform process. In this regard the new curriculum policy emphasised key elements such as learner-centred outcomes and competency based-education and the National Qualifications Framework [NQF] (World Bank, 1992: 2).

- In 1990 most African leaders and international development agencies met in Jomtien, Thailand and committed themselves to universalising access to primary schooling across the continent by 2000 (*Mail & Guardian*, 15-21 July 2011).
- In 2000 a subsequent meeting was held in Dakar, Senegal, to review progress of the Jomtien Convention, which had fallen short of expectations. At Dakar, African leaders decided to include the completion of lower secondary school as part of a universal right to basic education. African leaders also became signatories of the Millennium Development Goals in April 2000. In addition, Education for All became the flagship programme for educational development with a new target date of 2015. It was therefore anticipated that all learners would be enrolled in primary schools by 2015, but the implementation of this decision seems untenable in most sub-Saharan African countries due largely to the global economic meltdown (*Mail & Guardian*, 15-21 July 2011). Cumulatively, these initiatives spell collective commitments by nation states and international agencies on the achievements of educational development goals and serves to unite sub-Saharan African countries to change educational policies so that they yield the necessary benefits (Chisholm & Leyendecker (2008: 690-691).

4.3.2 Political change with reference to:

Most African countries initiated political changes after attaining independence from colonial rule. This study focuses on political and the resulting educational changes that occurred in Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa. In the ensuing discussion each country will be examined separately.

4.3.2.1 Mozambique

In 1975 Samora Machal became Mozambique's first post-colonial president whose main aim was to eliminate illiteracy and to empower the masses through education, and restructuring of schools as learning communities (Woolman, 2001: 32). The education policy was driven by a socialist growth

path and at the centre of these policies was the notion of development and nation building. The central thrust of the education policy was to cultivate a sense of respect for science, service, and work. In addition, the Ministry of Education introduced firm measures to eradicate illiteracy, which stood at 93% in 1975; Structural reform programmes were implemented by replacing the competitive, test-centred Portuguese system with co-operative, less rigid, non-authoritarian schools and self-help, sharing of experiences, and group learning were emphasised (Woolman, 2001: 32).

Between 1983 and 1990 the goal of equal access to education was re-stated as a priority of the education policy. It aimed at achieving free and compulsory education for all learners in Mozambique. Furthermore, the training of skilled persons for economic development became another consistent feature of Mozambique's education policy.

The end of the Cold War in the early 1990s resulted in funding from erstwhile communist countries to Mozambique coming to an abrupt end. Therefore, by 1992 the Mozambican Ministry of Education began with significant education policy reforms, which essentially focused on its commitment to education for all campaign, basic education, and the rapid expansion of the system (Alderuccio, 2010: 732). Other initiatives included the decentralisation and privatisation of some schools, the creation of community schools as well as the improvement of teaching methods and the teaching of a more relevant curriculum. The Mozambican Ministry of Education's Strategic Plan for 1999-2003 emphasised a system that focused on the development of vocational skills, which would stimulate economic growth (Alderuccio, 2010: 733).

4.3.2.2 Namibia

On 21 March 1990 Namibia attained independence from South Africa. The end of colonial rule coincided with the fall of the Berlin Wall and the subsequent end of the Cold War between the USA and the USSR (Meyns, 1991: 61). The South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) led government could not pursue a socialist political agenda after attaining

independence since its immediate neighbours Zimbabwe and Mozambique, were moving to liberalise their political and economic policies. This was largely spurred on by the lack of economic support from erstwhile Eastern bloc countries and an increasing pressure from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to conform to its liberal economic policies (Daun, 1992: 68).

4.3.3 Modernisation of the curriculum with reference to:

In most sub-Saharan African countries the majority of citizens were exposed to a curriculum that was irrelevant, based on rote learning and memorisation and lacked substance for the skilled job market. An elaboration of this assertion is discussed in the two identified sub-Saharan African countries.

4.3.3.1 Mozambique

The Mozambiquan Ministry of Education began with serious curriculum policy initiatives in the 1990s in order to address the several challenges that confronted the country's well-being and unity. This included amongst others, environmental education, focus on population and family life, multi-cultural education, as well as education for peace (Woolman, 2001: 33). This was pursued as a policy prerogative by the Government of Mozambique because there was a direct link between economic development and the quality of education; there was also increased relevance given to the role that culture and tradition played in the new curriculum.

According to the Education Sector Strategic Plan 1 (ESSP 1), 1997-2001, an initiative of the World Bank, there was a dire need to provide increased and equitable access to higher quality education and to improve the management of education for economic and social development in Mozambique (World Bank, 1992: 2).

According to the Government of Mozambique (GOM, 2006: 84-85), the Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (2006-2009) asserts:

The relationship between education and poverty is significant. Education acts directly and indirectly to reduce poverty; directly, because education is a basic human right and part of the human development; indirectly, education contributes to poverty reduction because it is essential to accelerate economic growth.

In the light of this policy decision by the Government of Mozambique, there was more emphasis in the curriculum to vocational orientation so that learners have the necessary skills to work in the local community, which would adequately equip them for life in the urban job market (Alderuccio, 2010: 734).

Language policy

Until recently Portuguese was the *lingua franca* that was used in Mozambique. It was the only medium of instruction used in primary, secondary, tertiary and adult education. The Mozambican government identified this language policy as a major contributory factor that led to primary level learning difficulties, grade repetition and high dropout rates. In 1992, it was estimated that less than 20% of the Mozambican population spoke Portuguese. In response the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) developed in the 1990s marked the gradual transformation of Mozambique's language policy from that of Portuguese to other more relevant languages (Alderuccio, 2010: 736). For instance, in secondary schools, English was introduced in Grade 8 and French in Grade 11 (Mouzinho *et al*, 2002: 23). In addition thirteen African languages were recognised as national languages in Mozambique. In the late 1990s, the Ministry of Education also sought to revise the curriculum so that Mozambican languages should be used as the medium of instruction in early primary grades, particularly in rural areas where Portuguese is virtually unknown (Woolman, 2001: 38).

Curriculum transformation

The revised curriculum policy document included the study of African Economics, Geography, Government and History, the cultural Heritage of dance, music and visual arts, literature and natural resources are important in the cultivation of self-esteem and the creation of a national identity (Alderuccio, 2010: 737-738).

The Mozambiquan Ministry of Education also embarked on further curriculum policy innovations between 1997 to 2002. This culminated in the formulation of a new curriculum policy in 2004. The new policy was implemented in all schools throughout the country, after having it piloted in twenty-two primary schools, two in each of the eleven provinces (Government of Mozambique [GOM], 2006; 84-85). The new curriculum consisted of both the core curriculum and local curriculum. The core curriculum was centrally planned and constituted 80% of the national curriculum, while the local curriculum was locally designed and allowed schools and communities to decide what to include as part of the 20% of the national curriculum. Therefore, this component was based on content that were chosen locally or by adding new subjects which was to be integrated within the national curriculum (Alderuccio, 2010: 731).

Education stakeholders also requested that the local curriculum content should reflect an integration of practical activities such as agriculture, carpentry, craft and horticulture, as well as the history of the region, local dance, music and language (Woolman, 2001: 41). This suggests a contextualised type of learning based on the context surrounding the learners' experiences, which were aimed at bridging the gap between the home, school and community (Alderuccio, 2010: 737). Therefore the Government of Mozambique was keen on providing secondary school learners, in particular, with practical education, which they stated would assist economic development. However, King *et al.* (2005: 11) argued that education contributes to economic growth, but by itself will not generate growth.

Furthermore, another concern involved the relevance of education to the social and economic well-being of each country and to each individual's fulfilment of potential. Most sub-Saharan African countries, like Mozambique have low completion rates, high levels of grade repetition and a significant number of drop-outs (Woolman, 2001: 30). This seems to indicate either that the schools are not teaching students well or that the curriculum is irrelevant to their needs. In many cases, formal school curricula have been criticised for being unrelated to the conditions and demands of life in rural areas. In this regard Mazrui (1978: 13) argued that ~~u~~ery few educated Africans are even aware that they are also in cultural bondage. All educated Africans... are still cultural captives of the West. Consequently, there was a need to increase the use of African languages as the primary medium of instruction in areas where these are the only effective means of communication. Furthermore, curriculum policy initiatives were developed taking into cognisance the needs and the utility value of education for the Mozambiquan child.

However, because of globalisation and the type of socio-economic development that sub-Saharan African countries desired, the education policy development had to be informed by these changes. For instance, on the one hand if modernisation with rapid industrialisation was a choice, then education policies will undoubtedly need to reproduce a class structure and hierarchy of occupational specialisation like that found in other techno-industrial countries (Woolman, 2001: 30). On the other hand, if these sub-Saharan African countries desired a mixed economy, which ensures a balance of the modern industrial, traditional agrarian, craft, resource extraction, tourism, trade and service sectors, education policies should ensure that there is some form of specialisation along with programs that are more inclusive of all sectors of the population (Alderuccio, 2010: 732-33).

Coupled with the need to modernise and transform education policies in countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the issue of compulsory schooling for all children ought to be a non-negotiable precept. This would be a clear demonstration that leaders of sub-Saharan African countries are complying with the decisions taken at the Jomtien and Dakar Initiatives, which strongly

advocate Education for All,q(Woolman, 2001: 39). Here again, this can only be achievable with a change of national priorities to actualise compulsory education.

In order to effectively implement the new curriculum polices, both Woolman (2001: 32-33) & Alderuccio (2010: 731-32) cite that the following crucial areas need to be addressed:

- The traditional method of teaching had to be discarded for methods that involved active participation, observation and learning by doing. For this to be accomplished teachers must be re-trained so that they are exposed to new methodology which involves critical thinking and a focus on a learner-centered approach to teaching and learning.
- Inadequate facilities and instructional resources impacted negatively on most sub-Saharan African countries. For instance, in Mozambique a devastating war closed or destroyed 3 400 schools. This has led to overcrowding and reliance on sub-standard and unsanitary buildings. The insufficient supply of textbooks and lack of essential resources and equipment for science laboratories detracts from the quality and potential of instruction. Rural schools experienced increased deficiencies as compared to schools in the urban districts. Scarce resources and inadequate government expenditure are the cause of many of these problems.

4.3.3.2 Namibia

Namibia's education policy prior to independence mirrored the Bantu Education curriculum that the South African apartheid government imposed on it. This policy was premised on notions of White supremacy, racial and ethnic separation, centralised control of curriculum decision-making, and disproportionate provision of resources such as textbooks, writing materials, qualified teachers and schools. All of these were distributed along racial lines (Ellis, 1984: 23).

Since Namibia's curriculum policy was formulated by the South African apartheid government, it was abundantly clear that post-independent Namibian education authorities made every endeavour to transform and remodel the country's curriculum.

Namibia's new educational policy that was developed after 1990 consisted of the following key documents:

- *Draft Proposal for Education Reform and Renewal (January 1990).*
- *Education in Transition: Nurturing our Future (July 1990).*
- *Change with Continuity: Education Reform Directive: 1990 (November 1990).*
- *Education and Culture in Namibia: The Way forward to 1996 (dated 28 November 1991) and*
- *Pedagogy in Transition: The Imperatives of Educational Development in the Republic of Namibia (dated May 1991).*

Language policy

According to Jansen (1995: 250) the above-mentioned education policy documents were inspired by Namibia's *Constitution*. Article 3 of the *Constitution* noted the following regarding the critical role of language in schools:

1. The official language of Namibia shall be English.
2. Nothing contained in this Constitution shall prohibit the use of any other language as a medium of instruction in private schools or in schools financed or subsidised by the State
3. Nothing contained in Sub-Article (1) hereof shall preclude legislation by Parliament, which permits the use of a language other than, English for legislative, administrative and judicial purposes in regions or areas where

such other language or languages are spoken by a substantial component of the population.

The insertion in the *Constitution* of the language issue demonstrates the Namibian government's seriousness in addressing the legacy of apartheid. After extensive discussion with various education stakeholders, government's position on the language policy was enclosed in the document referred to as *Language Policy for Schools 1992-1996: Explanatory and Information Statement by the Ministry of Education and Culture* (Windhoek, 28 November 1991). Briefly the language policy for schools, according to the Ministry of Education, was guided by the following key principles:

- Learners in Grades 1 to 3 will receive tuition in the mother tongue as the best foundation for later learning in another language medium (*Curriculum Guide for Formal Basic Education, 1992: 23*).
- Every learner should be competent in English while in the 7-year primary phase. For learners in Grades 4 to 7 English will be phased in as the chief medium of instruction for promotional subjects other than languages.
- Learners in the secondary school will be taught through the medium of English. This was phased in at Grade 8 at the beginning of January 1991.

The government of Namibia made these bold steps regarding the language of teaching and learning in schools. This was largely driven by an effort to attract international investors to the country; to unify Namibians across the various racial and ethnic divides; and finally to give Namibians the opportunity to become locally and internationally mobile citizens.

Curriculum transformation

In order for the South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) led Namibian government to demonstrate that they wielded much authority and were moving away from apartheid policies, it decided to rapidly transform the Junior Secondary Curriculum (JSC) soon after attaining independence.

The JSC initiative was an ideal opportunity for SWAPO to show that at least one aspect of the school system, within the context of a vastly unchanged educational system, needed to be transformed and by doing so it could gain legitimacy as the ruling party (Jansen, 1995: 256).

The reform measures ushered in the JSC were enacted with speed and drew intense criticism and public outcry. The following immediate changes were made to the JSC: the instantaneous change to English as a medium of instruction, the compulsory study of Science and Mathematics as secondary school subjects, and the opportunity for learners to choose vocationally orientated subjects which sought to teach relevant industrial and technological skills.

Education stakeholders, especially the public, were highly critical not necessarily about the reforms to the content but the unexpected swiftness in which the new curriculum was implemented. Harlech-Jones (1992: 3) a commentator noted that:

Within six weeks, the curriculum was finalised. Subject committees draft syllabi, were sent out to all the regions, colleges, etc. Schools received the New National Curriculum for Junior Secondary Education together with all syllabi in December 1990. Teachers began to implement the curriculum in Grade 8 in January 1991. During the first half of 1991, about 3 500 teachers attended courses designed to assist them in implementing the new curriculum and syllabi.

In supporting the above view, voices of dissent regarding the rapid implementation of the JSC continued unabated. Education officials and teachers argued that there was a lack of openness and consultation with the curriculum reform process and also noted that the curriculum should have been incrementally phased-in (Jansen, 1995: 254). Incidentally, the implementation of Curriculum 2005 in South Africa faced similar criticisms from concerned education stakeholders.

The approach that new education policy in Namibia adopted mirrored those that were implemented in other sub-Saharan African countries. It focused on a learner-centered approach to teaching and learning of the new curriculum. The learner centred approach that education authorities in Namibia implemented was financed and supported to a large extent by the Danish government over a eight year period (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008: 691). However, there was substantial resistance to a learner-centred approach to teaching and learning which resulted in its failure.

Furthermore, there were signs of a lack of understanding regarding the subject content and methodological knowledge amongst teachers (Leyendecker, 2003: 23). To a large extent, the implementation of a learner-centred approach to education was a methodology that the Danish were *aufait* with and seemed foreign to Namibian educators (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008: 691). A similar scenario prevailed in South Africa when C2005 was implemented. Educators lacked training and adequate resources. In addition, Jansen (1999: 25) argued that former White schools initially opposed the learner-centred approach but nonetheless implemented it effectively while former Black schools supported the approach but were unable to effectively implement it.

The examination system

The examination system prior to Namibian independence was based on memorisation and rote learning. It was linked directly to the matriculation examinations that were administered by the former White Cape Education Departmental (CED) officials who were based in South Africa.

Bethell (1990: 8) undertook research on the examination system and noted the following in a report entitled, *Toward Education for All: A Development Brief for Education, Culture and Training*:

This emphasis on failure is endemic throughout the education system was students expecting to fail, teachers, expecting them to fail, and examiners setting papers to ensure that large numbers do fail. If this situation is to be reverted and the emphasis placed on positive achievement then a great effort will need to be made to re-educate all concerned.

A subsequent report by the USAID (1990: 6-11) stated that "The rigid examination system, administered under tight central control, has resulted in a system where the vast majority of pupils fail at all levels in the name of standards." It is clear that both reports recommended that the entire examination system and learner assessment needs be radically overhauled in order for positive achievement to be attained by learners.

However, despite these reports the examination was not immediately overhauled. The senior examination system in Namibia continued to write examination question papers that were set by the CED. In this regard the Ministry of Education made a well-considered decision not to set its own examination papers, like it did with the implementation of the JSC. However, it chose to steadily and incrementally reform its examination system and assessment policy. Thus, a relationship and conduit with South Africa's examination and assessment system was sustained for a period of three years after Namibia attained its independence (Jansen, 1995: 258-259).

The Minister of Education held talks and discussions with various education and assessment stakeholders regarding a review of the Namibian examination system. Fruitful negotiations were concluded with the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. It was decided to usher in the International General Certificate for Secondary Education and the Higher International General Certificate for Secondary Education by 1994 for Namibian learners (Jansen, 1995: 258). This move sought to pacify conservative White Namibians that the so-called "standards" would be maintained if learners wrote internally benchmarked examinations set by the Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.

In Namibia, as in South Africa, the system of examinations and assessment was transformed. South Africa began implementing its own national Grade 12 examinations in 2000. Previously these Grade 12 examination papers were set provincially, and it was difficult to maintain and monitor the quality and standard of question papers across South Africa's nine provinces.

In order to maintain the quality of examinations and assessments in Namibia, it was decided to establish the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in 1996. The NQF in Namibia was modelled on the South African one, which was implemented in 1995. According to Chisholm & Leyendecker (2008: 691) the NQF was expected to form the educational ladder out of poverty, low skills and unemployment and ultimately open doors into prosperity, high skills and full employment. This required an integration of education and training through competency and unit-standards based curricula (ANC/COSATU, 1993: 7).

The project of post-colonial and post-apartheid democratisation of education policies in sub-Saharan Africa will continue to represent a site of ongoing struggle and it seems far from being resolved in the foreseeable future. The school curriculum would continue to be the central focus for the development and evaluation of education policy making in order to attain access, equity and ensure quality.

4.4 INTERNATIONAL CURRICULUM TRENDS

This aspect explores curriculum trends in mainly developed countries of the world. Information regarding international curriculum trends is drawn mainly from the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework (INCA). Curriculum policy innovation in the developed countries used in this study were motivated by the following four key factors:

- Political change,
- Curriculum overload,
- Contributing to a first-rate and equitable system of education and

- Modernisation of the curriculum so that it focuses on skills that prepare learners for the demands of life and work in the 21st century in an internationally competitive environment (Sargent, 2010: 10).

An overview of most of the twenty-one participating countries indicate the curriculum policies had to be modified in order to bring it in line with the social, economic, political and cultural changes that was enveloping the world (NIER, 1999: 21). Practically, in all instances, the curriculum policy documents claim to support a more open and inclusive approach, which adopts a more learner-, centred approach, which encourages problem-solving and active learning (Hall, 2008: 12). In reality there has been no real change in the classroom, many educators still use outmoded teaching approaches, teach content in a superficial manner and ignore the critical aspect of assessment (Jansen *et al*, 1999: 12).

In examining these countries as case studies, it is evident that South Africa was confronted with similar challenges while implementing its transformed national curriculum, post-1994.

4.4.1 Political change

One of the key strategic goals of the newly elected democratic government in South Africa in 1994 was to ensure rapid transformation of the school curriculum. According to Harley & Wedekind (1993: 195) there was a strikingly close alignment of South Africa's new curriculum policy, referred to as Curriculum 2005, to its political vision and it emerged as a political and not a pedagogical project.

Like South Africa, Italy's recent curriculum review process was largely influenced by a change in government in 2008. The new Italian government chose to consolidate the previous curriculum policy in education rather than to embark on large-scale costly and unnecessary changes (Sargent, 2010: 10).

4.4.2 Curriculum overload

There was also a serious endeavour by twenty-one countries that participated in the INCA study to simplify the curriculum in order to prevent curriculum overload. This spurred on the curriculum review process in countries such as Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and Sweden. South Africa also embarked on a similar initiative in 1999 and 2009 (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999: 34). In Ireland, the review of the junior cycle curriculum sought to tackle the issue of curriculum overload by rebalancing junior subjects, by reducing overload within, and overlap between, subjects, and by providing more space and time in the curriculum to ensure that the quality of learning engagement with students and teachers was productive. In the Netherlands, recent changes to syllabus requirements in the final years of some upper secondary examination courses were intended to ensure that teaching is better organised and less fragmented, and that the burden on students was reduced. On the other hand, Australia, Italy, Scotland, Singapore, Spain and Wales ensured that the remodelled curriculum policy consisted of cross-curricular subjects, which were able to transmit adequate skills and competencies across phases, which ultimately promoted coherence across the curriculum (Pepper, 2008: 5-6).

Germany also refers to the decluttering of its curriculum while an attempt to thin down the curriculum to prevent an overload was the driving factor in curriculum review in countries like Ireland, the Netherlands, South Africa and Sweden (Dada, 2009: 27-28). In Canada, there was great emphasis to reduce an overcrowded curriculum so that learners would have time to apply what they have learned, so that they get an in depth understanding of the concepts taught. In Ireland, there was an effort to rebalance the junior cycle subjects, so that they reduced the overlap among subjects, and would allow for more time and room to make certain that the quality of teaching and learning of the curriculum would be improved. While in the Netherlands, changes to the curriculum were undertaken in some of the upper secondary examination subjects to make certain that teaching and learning was effective and efficient for learners (Sargent, 2010: 10).

4.4.3 Contribution to a first-rate and equitable system of education

A third motivating factor for curriculum policy change was to ensure improved equity and excellence in education systems in countries such as Australia, Hungary, Scotland, Singapore and Spain (Sargent, 2010: 9). For instance, owing to the underachievement of indigenous Australians as well as to cater for students from low socio-economic backgrounds, the new Australian National Curriculum policy was designed to be accessible to Australian learners irrespective of social or economic background or the school they attend (Sargent, 2010: 9).

The primary purpose of the *Curriculum for Excellence* policy review that was undertaken in Scotland, was to ensure that the new curriculum is *coherent and inclusive* and the Northern Ireland Curriculum review aimed to provide improved balance, coherence and flexibility at each key stage (Pepper, 2008: 8-9). Similarly, in South Africa, curriculum documentation aimed to emphasise the 'logical progression between grades' (DoE, 2003a: 2-3).

Japan focused on excellence and high standards as the key drivers for the revision of its curriculum policy that occurred in the period 2008 to 2009. The transformation of its education policy was triggered by a report that was published by the Central Council for Education, which suggested that there should be more focus on increased teaching of basic knowledge and skills (Sargent, 2010: 9-10).

In South Africa, Curriculum 2005 focused primarily on offering equal education opportunities for all its citizens and endeavoured to promote a sense of national identity by providing high quality education (Dada, 2009: 11).

Generally, most countries changed their curriculum because they essentially wanted to raise standards against the performance of learners in international bench-marked tests such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) in 2003/7, the Programme for

International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2007 and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) in 2006 (Pepper, 2008: 4).

4.4.4 Modernisation of the curriculum

The modernisation of the curriculum was a significant factor that prompted countries such as Australia, France, Germany, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Spain, and Wales to review curriculum policy. This was specifically embarked upon, so that curriculum policy could have a contemporary outlook and relevant to both learners and the country as a whole. It mirrored the changes in current society and equipped learners with the necessary skills to integrate into the work environment and most importantly it prepared and equipped learners with the necessary life skills for life ahead (Sargent, 2010: 10). Hence, it is evident that most of the twenty-one participating countries embarked on curriculum modernisation in an attempt to focus on a skills-based approach so that learners were adequately equipped to face the demands of the job market in the twenty-first century.

Currently the Australian National Curriculum policy, for instance, is intended to equip all young Australians with the essential skills, knowledge and capabilities to thrive and compete in a globalised world and the information rich workplaces of the current century (Sargent, 2010: 12). New Zealand decided to revise its curriculum in 2007 because it wanted to usher in social change so that the revised curriculum gives a clear indication of how students can prepare for the future. Similarly, when the review of the Northern Ireland Curriculum began in 1999, the aim was to provide a curriculum and assessment framework capable of meeting the changing needs of pupils, society and the economy; which had the confidence of teachers, pupils, parents, employers and the wider public; and which widened educational opportunity and improved learner motivation and achievements (Sargent, 2010: 7-8). Motivation for change in curriculum policy was to ensure school leavers were able to find employment easily. In addition learners should acquire the necessary content knowledge that equips them with the requisite skills, knowledge and values to flourish in an ever-changing and globalised world.

Presently, the review of the primary education policy in Singapore reveals that in addition to content knowledge the curriculum strives to also prepare learners with the necessary skills and values to be successful in an ever-changing globalised work place. Similarly, the Curriculum for Excellence policy in Scotland identified the need to proffer a far more engaging and relevant outlook so that the learners of Scotland are prepared for a life of work in a globalised world (Munn, 2011: 2). In this regard, Peter Peacock the then Minister of Education and Young People in Scotland, expressed his views regarding curriculum revision where he noted:

The curriculum in Scotland has many strengths... However, the various parts were developed separately and taken together, they do not now provide the best basis for an excellent education for every child. The National Debate showed that people want a curriculum that will fully prepare today's learners for adult life in the 21st century, be less crowded and better connected, and offer more choice and enjoyment (SEED, 2007: 2).

Most of the twenty-one countries that participated in the INCA study embarked on the modernisation of the curriculum policy so that learners would be able to acquire the requisite skills to be able to compete in the international market place (Sargent, 2010: 11).

4.4.4.1 Content innovation

In an attempt to improve the overall performance of learners most of the participating twenty-one countries in the INCA research study, opted to innovate the content focus that was offered in the core curriculum policy. In keeping with these content innovations the assessment requirements of the curriculum were also revamped.

Many of the participating countries, made a variety of changes to the content focus areas in their curriculum policy over the past decade. This was motivated largely by the poor results learners attained in internationally benchmarked tests. This was to make curriculum packages more pertinent to

present day demands of the work place. New subjects were introduced in Australia and New Zealand such as Information Technology (IT), Computer Literacy and Additional Foreign Languages and Japan introduced Life and Environmental Studies as part of its curriculum (NIER, 1999: 26).

Other innovations included, amongst others, the development and revision of the national or state curriculum frameworks and its associated competencies. These were introduced in countries such as the United States of America, Australia and Germany (NIER, 1999, 26). The countries decided to revisit and bring about a balance between compulsory and elective subjects. On the one hand countries such as Australia and Germany which historically had a large and broad range of elective subjects decided to refocus and eventually reduce the core common subjects on a common core, while on the other hand, countries like Japan decided to expand the number of subjects, so that learners have a greater selection of subjects to choose from (NIER, 1999: 26).

Owing to the impact of globalisation and the inundation of technology, most countries regarded the integration of Information Technology/Computer Literacy across subjects in the curriculum as a mandatory inclusion. Other significant priority areas for many countries was an improvement of rudimentary skills such as literacy and numeracy, values education, vocational education and enterprise studies, encouragement of critical, independent and self-directed learning, the development and refinement of school-based assessment (SBA) and finally, education for participation in a global society. Most countries opted to continue with the practice of learners studying compulsory core subjects and also selecting from a choice of elective subjects (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 29).

Countries like Japan and Korea have opted to provide a larger number of subjects so that learners have a greater flexibility in choosing electives that they desire (NIER, 1999: 26).

Furthermore, some countries have considered changing the school structure in addition to curricular and pedagogical changes. For instance, the Korean education authorities have decided to increase the number of hours in the school day (NIER, 1999: 26).

Japan is a relatively homogenous country with one dominant ethnic group and a dominant language. Several researchers have noted that although the Japanese government is keen on promoting internationalism so that the younger generation of Japanese people have an opportunity of understanding other countries, there is still a strong emphasis on Japanese national consciousness (Weiner, 1997: 27).

Table 4.1: A comparative study of a broad range of secondary school subjects that are studied by learners in selected countries.

COUNTRIES	SUBJECTS											
	First National Language	Second language/s	Mathematics	Science/s	IT/ Computer Literacy	History	Geography	Economics/ Business	Arts/Drama	Sport/Health/Ethics/Careers	Religious Education	Arts/Fine Arts
1. England	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
2. Scotland	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
3. France	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
4. Germany	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	½	X	½	½	½
5. Italy	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	X	½	½	½	½
6. Sweden	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	X	½	½	½	½
7. Switzerland	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	X	½	½	½	½
8. Australia	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
9. Canada	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
10. Japan	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	X	½	½	½	½
11. Korea	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
12. New Zealand	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
13. Singapore	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
14. South Africa	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
15. U.S.A.	½	X	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½	½

Source: Adapted from INCA by O' Donnell *et al.* (2010, 31).

Table 4.1 contains information derived from participating countries. It catalogues the subjects that participating countries offer learners up to sixteen years of age, which consists, to a large extent, of learners taking the curriculum at secondary level. This coincides with what most countries in this study refer to as compulsory full-time secondary education.

Table 4.1 gives a comprehensive overview of the variety of subjects that are offered by selected countries (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 32). It does not, however, give specific details regarding content focus of each of the subjects, whether the subject is compulsory or an elective, or the teaching time allotted for each of the subjects.

It is evident from Table 4.1 that Languages, Mathematics, Science/s, Information Technology/Computer Literacy and even History amongst other are compulsory subjects in most of the countries listed in the table. The inclusion of Information Technology/Computer Literacy demonstrates that all the countries listed in the table have made a deliberate attempt to get learners to pursue these as compulsory subjects because of the influence of globalisation and the impact and significance that technology has in the world of work and business.

In addition, the selection of Mathematics and Science as compulsory subjects is seen by most countries of the world as critical and are considered as gateway subjects, which provide the much-needed scarce skills that the job market desires. In this regard South Africa launched its FET National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in 2006. It had the following rules of combination in terms of subject choices:

The approved subjects for the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 at Annexure A are grouped in two main categories in Annexure B, namely Group A and Group B. A learner, under certain conditions, as contemplated in paragraphs 9, 10(8) and 10(9), must select four subjects, namely two official languages, Mathematical Literacy or Mathematics, and Life Orientation from Group A, and a minimum of any three subjects from Group B (DBE, 2009: 7).

Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy became compulsory subjects and it became mandatory for every Grade 10 learner to choose either Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy. This involved the training and re-training of teachers so that they acquired the minimum level of expertise to teach these subjects at Grade 10 level. Many educators, who switched from other subjects to teach Mathematical Literacy, attended Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) courses, which were financially supported by the Department of Education.

Religious education is not offered as a subject in most of the countries highlighted in Table 4.1. The word "optional" in the table indicates that parents in some countries are reluctant to coerce learners to study religious education. While the word "some" in countries such as South Africa and Australia suggests that schools have the option of offering religious education as a subject (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 31).

4.4.4.2 Assessment

All of the countries in Table 4.2 have systems in place for continuous learner assessment. This is used to ascertain the progress of learners from one grade or class to the next. However, this is not shown in the table. It also indicates that internationally, countries have national standardised assessments in order to ascertain the readiness of learners to enter the world of work. By doing this, national governments hold their education systems accountable and further it provides some degree of evidence about how the system functions over a period of time. In essence, participating countries mentioned in this study use assessment of learners' achievement as a typical yardstick to monitor standards and evaluate the education system (Hall *et al*, 2008: 13). Information in Table 4.2 below indicates the ages at which standardised national assessment occurs. The column indicating "cohort or sample" indicates whether standardised assessment which specific countries administered was either "full cohort" or "sample" assessment. The bold figures in the Table indicate whether assessments were compulsory for progression into the next phase/grade (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 33).

In order to highlight specific aspects of assessments, a brief overview of how the following countries embark on a programme of assessment is undertaken.

Scotland

Scotland has established the Scottish Survey of Achievement (SSA). Its core function is to sample the national programme of assessment in order to monitor standards in subjects such as English, Mathematics, Science as well as a sample of other subjects (Munn, 2011: 4).

Australia

Launched in 2008, the first national tests in both numeracy and literacy were written by learners from ages 8 to 15 years. These assessment tests were part of an initiative referred to as the National Assessment Program-Literacy and Numeracy [NAPLAN] (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 35).

Japan

In 2007, new national standardised tests were introduced for all learners between the ages of 12 and 15 years. These tests were specifically administered to assess learners' proficiency in both Japanese and Mathematics (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 35)

South Africa

There was no formal standardised assessment policy for learners between the ages of 5 to 16 years. However, in 2011 approximately six million learners between age eight and nine years old wrote the Annual National Assessment (ANA). For the eight-year-old child ANA assessed literacy and numeracy specifically, while the nine-year-old child was assessed in Language and Mathematics (DBE, 2011: 18-22).

Furthermore, in 2007 the National Department of Education decided to have a sample of Grade 12 National Senior Certificate Examination (NSC) question papers, History being one of them, to be quality assured by Scottish

Qualifications Authority (SQA) and the University of Cambridge International Examinations. This was done to ascertain whether the question papers were of an appropriate standard and quality. The findings of the international benchmarking exercise suggested that NSC examination question papers were generally, comparable to international standards (DoE, 2008: 5-6).

Table 4.2 gives details regarding the certification framework that marks the end of the educational phase.

Table 4.2: The age at which learners write National Public Examinations in selected countries.

Countries	Primary school level	Lower secondary school level	Upper secondary school level
1. England	X	16	17/18
2. Scotland	X	16	17/18
3. France	X	15	16+/18
4. Germany	X	15/16	18/19
5. Italy	X	14	18/19
6. Sweden	N/a	16	18/19
7. Switzerland	X	X	18+
8. Australia	X	X	18+
9. Canada	X	X	18/19
10. Japan	X	14+/15	18
11. Korea	X	15	18
12. New Zealand	X	16	17/18
13. Singapore	12	16/17	18+
14. South Africa	X	15	18
15. U.S.A.	X	16/17	18

Source: Adapted from INCA by O' Donnell *et al.* (2010, 33).

It is evident that all the countries listed in Table 4.2, have an assessment regime or system in place for formal assessment. This is used to determine whether learners have acquired the requisite content knowledge to progress from one grade or class to the next. It is also evident that in most countries, with the exception of Switzerland, Australia and Canada require learners mainly between 15 and 16 years of age to write formal examinations in the lower secondary phase. While all countries listed in the Table 4.2 require learners mainly between the ages of 17 and 18 years of age to write a formal examination in the upper secondary level. Therefore it is compulsory for learners to write examinations if they intend gaining admission to tertiary institutions (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 37). A discussion of three of the countries highlighted in Table 4.2 follows.

In this regard, South African learners who are in the upper secondary level, who are between seventeen or eighteen years of age (Grade 12) write the National Senior Certificate Examinations which signals the end of the educational phase known as the Further Education and Training Band (DoE-SAG, 2007: 5).

In England, at the upper secondary level, learners who are between 17-18 years of age, generally study for the General Certificate of Education Advanced-level examinations [GCE A-levels] (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 38)

However, in Korea the entrance examination and continuous assessment results are used as a yardstick to allow learners access to high schools, this includes the proviso that learners must be over the age of fifteen years. At eighteen years of age, on completion of high school, learners write the College Scholastic Achievement Test. On passing, this allows them entry to higher education institutions (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 38).

4.5 CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

In order for curriculum policy to be effective and for the systems in education to function optimally, the implementation phase of policy development is crucial.

On 5 and 6 April 2011, the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) held a Round Table Conference on lessons for South Africa from international experiences of schooling reform. Speaking at this workshop the Director-General of the National Department of Basic Education, Bobby Soobrayan, noted, "In South Africa we have not had policy stability; in fact, we have often fashioned grand sets of policies, got stuck during implementation, and then revised them again" (2011: 39). In the light of this, policy implementation is crucial and it depends largely on sound and visionary leadership. For policy implementation to be effective, the following should be considered:

4.5.1 Teacher training and professional development

It is evident that all of the selected countries in this study acknowledge the critical role that teachers play in implementing the curriculum properly. The involvement of educators in the development of a new or modified curriculum is crucial in its implementation. Therefore, the upgrading of the teachers competency with regard to the revised or remodelled curriculum through continued in-service training becomes essential.

Consequently, countries such as Australia, France, Germany and Japan provide compulsory in-service training for all its teachers over a longer period of time. For example, the most common professional development courses available to teachers include, among others, distance learning, attending local and foreign workshops, inter-school visits, observing peer teachers and refresher courses. Countries such as Australia, New Zealand and others, also use modern technology during in-service training courses (NIER, 1999: 39-43). Teachers who participate in these in-service programmes receive a promotion or a salary increase for their professional growth and benefit.

However, South Africa, in the implementation of the *NCS* did not embark on a major in-service training of its teachers. Teachers were only trained for four days resulting in poor implementation of curriculum policy and the concomitant dismal results produced by learners in the first National Senior Certificate examinations written in 2008 (DoE, 2008: 5).

All of the selected countries in this study acknowledge the importance of providing support to teachers in the implementation of the curriculum. Currently, owing to globalisation most of these countries are using information technology to provide curriculum resources as well as professional development materials (NIER, 1999: 39-44).

4.5.2 Resource materials

In order to ensure effective implementation of education policy, a range of resources is presently being used in most countries. These include resource materials such as school textbooks, videos, computer software, multi-media, equipment and other apparatus.

In this regard the popular resource choice among most countries to support the implementation of the curriculum is the use of textbooks. According to Table 4.3, some countries report that the state is responsible for the approval and procurement of textbooks, as in the case of Canada. While in other countries, schools and teachers have the option to select textbooks that are published by commercial companies, for example, New Zealand. Finally, in countries like South Africa textbooks are selected by teachers from an approved government list or catalogue (NIER, 1999: 45).

Furthermore, textbooks form an integral part of the teaching and learning process in most of the countries and are therefore provided free of charge. In countries like New Zealand textbooks are loaned to learners and must be returned by the end of an academic year (refer to Table 4.3). Most countries tend to provide textbooks to learners who are at school during compulsory schooling, but expect parents to assist the state to purchase textbooks during the child's non-compulsory schooling (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 40).

Table 4.3: Control and supply of school textbooks in selected countries.

Countries	Textbook production	Provision of textbook lists by the state	Selection of books for use in class	Provision of textbooks
1. England	Commercial	No	Teachers . free choice	School
2. Scotland	Commercial	No	Teachers . free choice	School
3. France	Commercial . State approved	State prescribes content only	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
4. Germany	Commercial . State approved	Yes	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
5. Italy	Commercial	State provides guidance on cost only	Teachers . free choice	Parents
6. Sweden	Commercial	No	Teachers . free choice	School
7. Switzerland	Cantons (Compulsory phase)	Cantons prescribes content	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
8. Australia	Commercial	No	Teachers . free choice	Parents
9. Canada	Commercial	Yes	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
10. Japan	Commercial . State approved	Partly state approved	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
11. Korea	State and commercial	State provides some textbook lists	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	Parents
12. New Zealand	State and commercial	No	Teachers . free choice	School but on loan
13. Singapore	State and commercial	Yes	Teachers . free choice	Parents
14. South Africa	Commercial . State approved	Yes	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School
15. U.S.A.	Commercial	State provides some textbook lists	Teachers . select from state prescribed list	School-depends on the policy of each state

Source: Adapted from INCA by O' Donnell *et al.* (2010, 40- 41).

Table 4.3 gives details about how selected countries respond to issues related to textbook procurement and usage. For example, the following are considered:

- Who is responsible for textbook production (state or commercial bodies)?
- Does the State provide a list of approved textbooks and do they prescribe content that should be included in textbooks?
- Who is responsible for drawing up the list of authorised textbooks?
- How are books selected to be used by learners in class?
- Are textbooks provided free by the State, or are parents required to purchase the required textbooks?

These questions provide useful information about the various processes involved regarding the procurement of resources like textbooks, which, if used, effectively would ensure that education policy is successfully implemented (O'Donnell *et al*, 2010: 40).

4.6 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Most of the participating countries undertake monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum across all levels within the system. A range of strategies is used to monitor and evaluate curriculum implementation. For example, at the local level, which involves classroom observations by either the head of the subject or the head of the school, curriculum advisor from the district, province or national department of Education. In some countries like England and Japan, there are random visits by supervisors or inspectors (NIER, 1999:53). However, according to Jansen, monitoring and evaluation was not rigorously done in South African schools because school management teams (SMTs) were intimidated by highly unionised teachers (*Sunday Times*, 11/07/2011).

At the system level, the national examination and participation in internationally benchmarked tests such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) are used as a yardstick to monitor and evaluate curriculum implementation in countries such as England, Scotland, Australia as well as South Africa. In Germany, New Zealand, Ireland and Japan, district and school results are also scrutinised by education officials. This provides vital information regarding the status of curriculum delivery. Subsequently, the data is gathered from school visits regarding the implementation of the curriculum. Feedback from these school visits form part of the turnaround strategies that are suggested to teachers for the improvement of standards, to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to set up programmes for the educationally disadvantaged (NIER, 1999: 53).

4.7 CONCLUSION

It is evident from the participating countries in this study that there have been numerous efforts to revamp its curriculum policies over the past decade. This was done in order to keep abreast of regional and international trends and also to fit their changing political, social, economic circumstances. The following are some of the endeavours undertaken by most participating countries:

- Ensuring ongoing curriculum policy review in order to meet the global changes in the technological, economic, social and political environments.
- Developed curriculum policies that were closely aligned to specific qualifications and schooling frameworks in an effort to respond to international, national and local needs.
- Learners were taught relevant core content, while simultaneously providing a variety of elective subjects so that in the long run it adequately prepares them for the future in which they become employable.
- Established a holistic and child-centred approach in the curriculum. Learners were exposed to activity-based teaching and learning, which

exposed them to creative thinking, problem solving and decision-making skills.

For the revamped curriculum policies to be successful the implementation process by teachers is crucial. Since they were required to assess learners' progress in all of the participating countries. In this regard South Africa is in line with the majority of the countries in so far as the assessment system is concerned. The following effective strategies were suggested by participating countries:

- Ongoing professional development of teachers so that they have a thorough understanding of the content and assessment requirements of the curriculum.
- The availability of textbooks as a critical resource that underpins the implementation of the curriculum. Currently, there is increasing use of information technology to disseminate curriculum related resources.
- There is ongoing support by curriculum specialists, in many countries, to assist teachers and schools to effectively implement curriculum policies.

In tandem with the implementation of curriculum policies, many of the participating countries have a range of strategies to monitor and evaluate the process. For instance, the evaluation and ~~performativity~~ in terms of learners' attainment in national and international bench-marked tests and examinations are used to ascertain if curriculum policy is being effectively implemented in most of the participating countries (Munn, 2011: 10).

Conclusively, there is growing consensus internationally; including in South Africa, that curriculum policies should not be stagnant but regularly remodelled. This will ensure that learners are equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills and values to confront the challenges of an ever-changing world in an innovative way.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The Chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study. In order to ascertain whether the *National Curriculum Statement (NCS)* was effectively implemented by Further Education and Training (FET) History educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal, appropriate research methodologies were utilised.

The Chapter covers issues related to the location of the research, the research paradigm, which was informed by selected quantitative and qualitative approaches, triangulation and the case study method. This is referred to as the mixed method research approach. Examples of data collection methods and a discussion thereof are also outlined in this Chapter. The case study method is examined in detail, and it also focuses on both the advantages and disadvantages of this method. The subsequent aspect covers the sampling process, which gives an elucidation of issues related to the population and sample, the target population, the sample frame and the sampling technique. Thereafter, data collection methods are discussed, ethical considerations are examined and quantitative and qualitative data collection methods are elaborated on. A discussion of the quantitative approach, which focused on the questionnaire and its advantages and disadvantages follows, and the qualitative approach, which includes semi-structured interviews was conducted with FET History Curriculum Specialists. The study commences by expanding on the reasons for selecting the Umlazi District as the location for the study.

5.2 THE LOCALITY OF THE STUDY: UMLAZI DISTRICT

As indicated in Chapter One, this research study was undertaken in the Umlazi District. The researcher selected the Umlazi District to undertake the study because it is currently the largest district in the province of KwaZulu-Natal with regards to the number of schools and learner enrolment. In

addition, schools in this district are situated in urban, township and rural areas. Accordingly, the quantitative sample may yield reliable and valid results regarding the implementation of the *NCS* in FET schools.

5.3 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM: MIXED METHOD APPROACH

Research is viewed as a systematic process of inquiry, which involves a planned process of collection, analysis and interpretation of data (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998: 21). Crabtree and Miller (1999: 8) argue that the approach used for a particular sphere of research is largely dependent on the overall aim of the study, the analysis of objectives and its associated research question.

In order to get an in-depth understanding of how the *NCS* policy was implemented, this study uses both the quantitative and the qualitative approaches. Both these approaches were used because one method alone will not provide a comprehensive and reliable answer to the research objectives. The integration of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect and analyse data was used in conjunction with case studies in this study. The advantage of using the mixed method research approach, is that one method focuses on the depth of the study while the other method focuses on the breadth of the study. This ensures that more accurate inferences can be made about the data that was collected (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003: 16).

Therefore, the selection of the ideal research paradigm serves as a crucial point of reference for a study. How the world is viewed from an academic point of view is generally referred to as a paradigm. Crabtree and Miller (1999: 12) describe a paradigm as representing a patterned set of assumptions concerning reality (ontology), knowledge of that reality (epistemology) and the particular ways for knowing that reality (methodology).

Guba and Lincoln (1994: 105) state that a researcher working within a paradigm must demonstrate a congruence between the ontological question (what is the form and nature of reality?), the epistemological question (what is the nature of the relationship between the knower and what can be

known?) and the methodological question (how can the researcher find out about the nature of reality?) Refer to Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Quantitative and Qualitative assumptions.

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological assumption	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular.	Reality is seen as subjective and multiple by participants in a study.
Epistemological assumption	What is the relationship of the researcher to what is being researched?	Researcher is independent from what is being researched.	Researcher interacts with what is being researched.
Axiological assumption	What is the role of values?	Researcher is value-free and unbiased.	Researcher is value-laden and is biased.
Rhetorical Assumption	What language does the researcher use?	Researcher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is formal, • Informed by a set definitions, • Impersonal voice, • Uses accepted quantitative words. 	Researcher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is Informal • Definitions evolve • Personal voice • Uses accepted qualitative words
Methodological assumption	What is the process of research?	Researcher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses deductive process, • Relies on cause and effect syndrome, • Relies on static design i.e. categories are isolated before the research process, • Is context-free, • Uses generalisations leading to prediction, explanation, and understanding, • Is accurate and reliable through validity and reliability. 	Researcher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses inductive process • Relies on mutual simultaneous shaping of factors • Relies on emerging design i.e. categories are identified during the research process • Is context bound • Uses patterns and accepted theories developed specifically to understand research output • Is accurate and reliable through the process of verification

Source: Adapted from Creswell (1994: 5).

Guba and Lincoln (1994: 108) argue that the answers to the ontological question, the epistemological question and the methodological question are interconnected in such a way that the answer given to any one question, taken in any order, constrains how the others may be answered.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1984: 2), over the last century, the phenomenological and positivist paradigms have dominated academic research. Creswell (1994:77) suggests that some researchers have referred to the phenomenological paradigm as quantitative, objectivist, scientific or experimentalist while the positivist paradigm is referred to as qualitative, subjectivist, humanistic or interpretivist. However, for the purposes of this study reference will be made to both the quantitative or qualitative research approaches. The information in Table 5.1 as postulated by Creswell (1994: 5) provides a comparison between the quantitative and qualitative research approaches. These are based on the ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical and methodological assumptions. Refer to Table 5.1.

Synder (1995: 45) suggests that the distinction between quantitative and qualitative methodologies has divided researchers over such questions as what counts as research, what counts as evidence and what are the principles which allow us to connect evidence to our claims. Consequently, the nature of the study would determine whether one uses the quantitative or qualitative research method. The following discussion gives details regarding these two approaches and a justification for the use of both these approaches as mentioned earlier as the mixed method research approach.

5.3.1 The quantitative approach

The quantitative approach places significant emphasis on measurements and numerical data when a particular phenomenon is being studied (Picciano, 2004: 143). Quantitative research is defined, not just by its use of numerical measurements but it generally follows a natural science model of the research process measurement in order to establish objective knowledge (Picciano, 2004: 143). In other words, it creates knowledge that exists independently of the views and values of the people involved. This approach

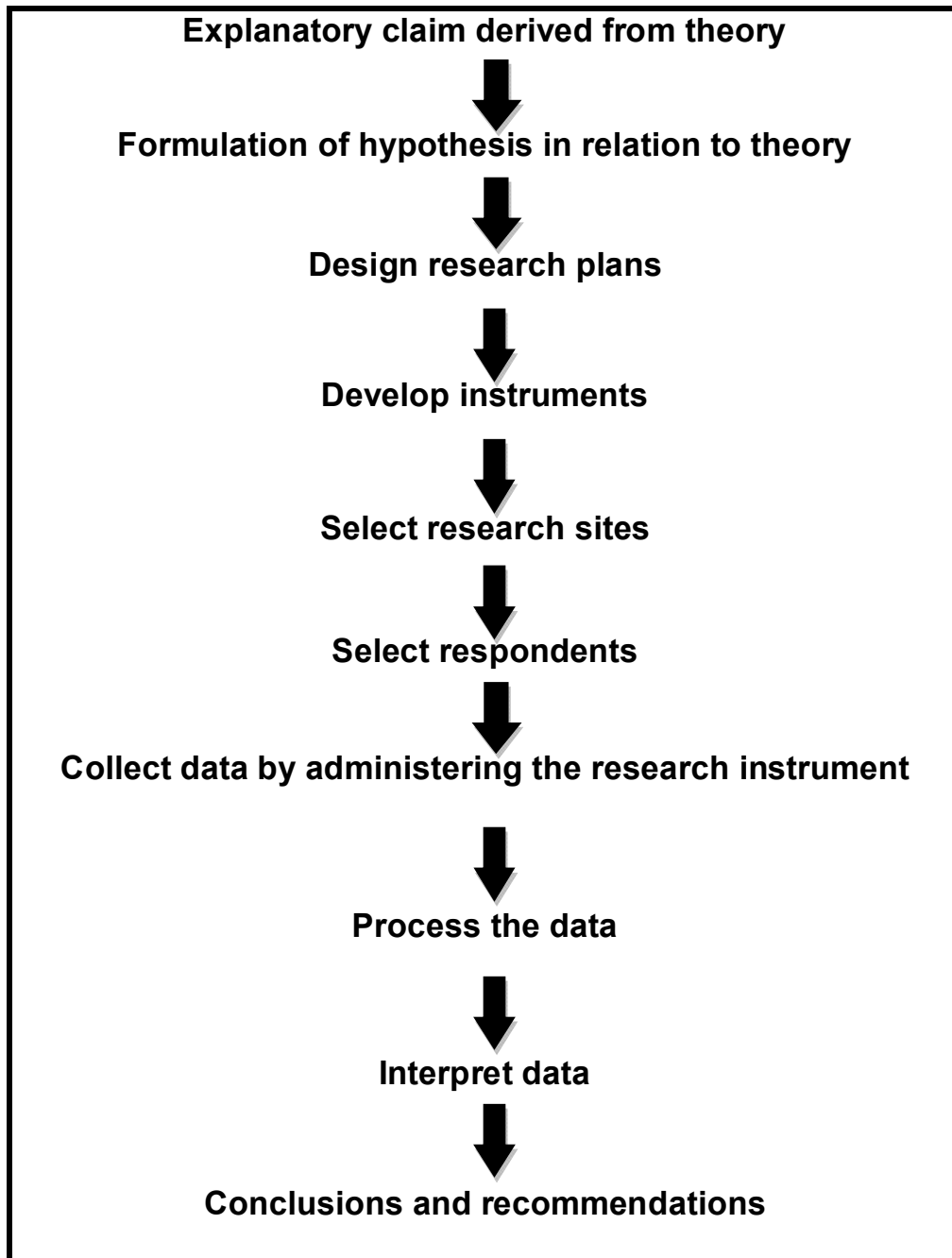
is deductive in its outlook, as it derives logical conclusions about particular instances from general premises or statements. Details in this regard are provided in Figure 5.1. Winter (2000: 63) supports this particular point of view and states that the quantitative approach limits itself to what can be measured or quantified. Therefore, in ascertaining the effectiveness of the implementation of the *NCS* among FET History educators in the Umlazi District, this approach was used together with the qualitative approach.

It is often claimed by researchers, like Picciano, that by using the quantitative approach the data presented is often free of any bias or subjectivity (2004: 146). The quantitative research approach can be used to undertake surveys with a large sample of respondents. In adopting this particular approach, generalisations can be made. In this regard, however, there are limitations regarding the choices that respondents can make. In the light of this, it can be argued that this approach can be regarded as being inductive rather than deductive in its outlook (TerreqBlanche and Durrheim, 2002: 96).

Neuman (1997: 107) is of the view that the quantitative approach focuses on variables and the relationship amongst these variables. Generally, variables have more than one value. Neuman (1997: 108) has identified three types of variables and these are the independent variable, the dependent variable and the intervening variable. It is evident that these variables play a significant role in the complex causal relations. Hence, these relations become speculative because of the difficulty of confirming its veracity.

The quantitative research method is dependent on numeric data. Therefore, the ordinal and ratio measures are used. Patton and Appelbaum (2003: 63) argue that this approach is exaggerated largely because it is about numbers (quantitative). It shows very little regard for what is being measured and the consequences thereof.

Figure 5.1: Flow diagram indicating the steps in the linear deductive process used in the quantitative approach.



Source: Adapted from Bryman & Bell (2007: 155).

5.3.2 The qualitative approach

Guba and Lincoln (1994: 105) define qualitative research as a study, which is conducted in a natural setting where the researcher, as an instrument of data collection, gathers information (*via* interviews), analyses them inductively, focuses on the meaning of participants' responses, and describes a process that is both expressive and persuasive in language (refer to Figure 5.2).

Hartslief and Auriacombe (2009: 868) declare that a qualitative researcher builds a comprehensive picture of the topic being investigated. These researchers also study people in their natural settings and have a particular interest in understanding people through both written and verbal utterances.

Creswell (2009: 62) asserts that the qualitative approach:

is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting.

Schurink (1998: 254) suggests that the aim of qualitative research is not to explain behaviour in terms of universally valid laws or generalisations but rather to understand and interpret the meanings and intentions that underlie everyday human action.

Qualitative data is non-numeric in nature. Cohen *et al.* (2007: 327) assert that the qualitative approach demonstrates that the variables are not controlled and therefore presents the researcher with an ideal opportunity to explore the natural development of action and representation. This offers the researcher an opportunity to get a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

It can be argued that qualitative research is more desirable if the sample population is small. This affords the researcher some latitude to interact with his/her subjects because the investigation is very informal. After the data is

collected it undergoes a process of analysis (Refer to Figure 5.2). Unlike quantitative research where the respondents are restricted to multiple-type questions, qualitative researchers probe their subjects to give detailed responses.

With regard to this study, the qualitative research method was chosen for the following reasons:

- First, qualitative research methods can give an intense description of a phenomenon such as attitudes regarding curriculum implementation.
- Second, qualitative research is based on descriptions and explanations obtained through the process of interviews, which have rich information.

However, a limitation of the qualitative approach is that it becomes difficult to make generalisations because of the small sample. In addition, qualitative research is not free from bias. However, Merriam cited in Creswell (1994: 158), argues that the intent of qualitative research is not to generalise findings but to form a unique interpretation of events.

Since the researcher has to interpret the data and eventually present it from a particular point of view, therefore it is unavoidable that the data presented may be biased. To limit biased reporting regarding research findings, it becomes incumbent on the researcher to present the findings within a specific context. Ideally the researcher's argument should be based on a strong theoretical perspective, and it should be backed up by empirical evidence (Henning *et al*, 2004: 7).

On a practical level, the processing of data was time-consuming and challenging. This was the case, especially with the coding of responses from the open-ended questions. Overall, the qualitative research methods proved to be more demanding and onerous.

Figure 5.2: Flow diagram showing criteria used in the qualitative research approach.



Source: Adapted from Crabtree and Miller (1999: xv).

5.3.3 Triangulation

Ideally, if both the quantitative and qualitative research approaches are used concurrently, the findings yielded may be more reliable. To be considered valid and reliable, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches must meet. That is, the one approach must counter the other in order to challenge it for clarification, illuminate and add to it either conceptually or theoretically, or verify it by providing the same conclusions (Richards, 2005: 140). In essence, triangulation refers to the gaining of differing perspectives from completed studies that have been conducted on the same topic and that directly address one another's findings.

Denzin (1970: 297) asserts that triangulation is the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena. He argues that by using different methodological approaches to study the same phenomena, it should lead to greater validity and reliability than a single methodological approach. This ensures that the process is scientifically valid.

In support of triangulation Patton (1990: 93) maintains that:

Triangulation is a powerful solution to the problem of relying too much on any single data source or method, thereby undermining the validity and credibility of findings because of the weaknesses of any single method.

Also supporting a combination of methods for a single study is Creswell (1994: 175). He suggests the following five reasons:

- Triangulation in the classic sense of seeking convergence of results.
- Complimentary, in that overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge.
- Developmentally, wherein the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method.
- Initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge.
- Expansion, wherein the mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study.

Having discussed the various research approaches, the subsequent aspect will focus on the case study, as a further dimension that this research has pursued.

5.3.4 Using case study methodology

This study focuses on the implementation of the NCS using the case study approach among FET History educators in the Umlazi District. A case study is a generic term given for the investigation of an individual, group or

phenomenon that uses the qualitative approach. According to Bassey (1999: 58), human systems have a particular wholeness or integrity and therefore it is important to do an in-depth investigation of the relationships between the parts and the patterns that emerge. Case study research assists us in understanding a complex issue or object and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research (Garbers, 1996: 288).

Yin (1994: 13) defines a case study as an

Empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; especially when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident.

Stake (1995: 236) gives a more interpretive perspective on a case study. He claims that a case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances. He also argues that a case study is not a methodological choice, but a choice of objects to be studied (Stake, 1995: 236).

Bassey (1999: 58) puts forward the following formulation of an educational case study:

An empirical enquiry which is conducted within a localised boundary of space and time (i.e. a singularity); into interesting aspects of an educational activity, or programme, or institution, or system; mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons; in order to inform the judgments and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers; or of theoreticians who are working to meet these ends.

In this regard, the object of this study is to ascertain the implementation of the NCS among FET History educators in the Umlazi District. Stake (1994: 236) argues that the case is a bounded system. He further asserts that the more the object of the study is a specific, unique and bounded system, the

greater the usefulness of the epistemological rationale (Stake, 1994: 236). However, in this study, there is not necessarily a clear boundary between the phenomenon and the context. The implementation of the *NCS* is invariably linked to its context. This case study is undertaken within a localised context of space and time. The space covers the transformation of the history curriculum, which took place at various levels. It began with the writing of the curriculum policy document, the training of both curriculum advisors and teachers and finally the implementation of curriculum policy at classroom level. The time stipulations are much clearer, the training of teachers started in 2005 and the implementation (teaching) of the *NCS* among learners began in 2006.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003: 136) argue that there are a number of different kinds of case studies for different purposes. For example, there is an intrinsic case study where the purpose is to get a better understanding of a particular case and an instrumental case study where a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or to refine a theory (Stake, 1994: 237). In the light of this, implementing the *NCS* in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education can be categorised as an instrumental case study.

Thus, one of the main strengths of a case study is observing effects by examining real people in real situations. They function within a paradigm of seeking to understand and interpret the world in terms of its actors with much of the critical educational research taking into account the political and ideological contexts within which these actors function (Merriam cited in Creswell, 1994: 69). Within this interpretative paradigm, case studies tend to use a variety of techniques utilising both qualitative and quantitative research methodology (Best and Kahn, 2003: 250).

What case studies share with other qualitative research is the detailed attention given, first to phenomena within their everyday contexts, and second to their structural or thematic interrelations with other phenomena and contexts (Jensen, 2002: 239). The case study method examines the descriptive question of *what happened* or the exploratory question of *how or why* did something happen. On the other hand, the quantitative approach

requires measurements and numerical data to make inferences about causal relationships of the subjects being studied (Picciano, 2004: 143).

By using the case study methodology the researcher has the opportunity to make direct observations and to collect data in a natural environment, as opposed to relying on secondary data derived from other sources. Denzin and Lincoln (2003: 136) argue that a case study constitutes both a process of inquiry about the case and a product of that inquiry. Hence, by researching a single case study that is, the implementation of the *NCS* and focusing on FET History educators, ample time, effort and diligence was given to this specific case.

Case studies are descriptive accounts and narrative stories about educational policy implementation like the *NCS*, which should be told to individuals that are interested, after rigorous analysis. In keeping with this approach, this study incorporates both descriptive and narrative accounts. Since a study on the implementation of the *NCS* was not previously undertaken on FET History educators in the Umlazi District, this approach was considered appropriate for this study. Education policy makers within the Department of Basic Education can also make useful inferences on how the *NCS* is being implemented in other FET subjects.

It must be noted that a researcher using the case study methodology must be cautious as to the position he/she takes during the interview or observation process of participants. As an employee of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, the researcher had access to participants. Therefore, he had to put aside his own prejudices and pre-conceived views on the implementation of the *NCS*. Consequently the researcher had to also reassure participants that the process was highly confidential.

It is argued that the ideal research setting is when the researcher can secure easy access and establish rapport with the identified participants in the data gathering process (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984: 19). It has been noted that, prospective participants may have been reluctant to participate in the impending research for various reasons including issues of confidentiality,

time constraints and fear, that the information may be used for other purposes.

5.3.4.1 Advantages of the case study method

According to Gustavasson (2007: 90), the following are some of the advantages of using case study methodology within a qualitative research approach:

- Owing to its lack of precision, it allows for the study of complex, ambiguous and often chaotic phenomena.
- It permits a holistic and systemic approach with an unlimited number of variables and links.
- The researcher may use a wide variety of data collection and analytical methods with limited restrictions.
- Gives access to reality and has validity in focus; and
- The focus is to get a better understanding but it can also be used to show causality.

In essence, the case study method provides the opportunity for a case to be examined in greater depth and detail within a real life situation.

5.3.4.2 Disadvantages of the case study method

Gustavasson (2007: 90) argues that there are also disadvantages of using the case study approach within a qualitative research paradigm because of the following:

- Case study research does not manipulate ~~treatments~~ or control real life situations and presents what happens in reality,
- Case studies have been classified as weak siblings among social science methods,
- Case studies lack precision, objectivity and rigour which may lead to biased findings and
- The study of a small number of cases can offer no grounds for establishing reliability or generality of findings.

According to Yin (2003: 12), the researcher, using the case study methodology is confronted with the challenge that case studies represent a small sample of a larger context. Gustavasson (2007: 90) argues that another disadvantage of using case studies is that it is not easily open to cross-checking, the researcher can be biased, selective, and subjective and may be prone to observer bias. These limitations of using case studies can be overcome if triangulation is built into the design process. The generalisations gleaned from such case studies must be supported by statistical data so that the broader audience would accept the inferences put forward by the specific case study. Consequently, the data captured from one investigation can then be applied to a similar investigation elsewhere. As a result, the implementation of the NCS as a case study among FET History educators in the Umlazi District can be replicated with other subjects both in the National and Provincial Departments of Basic Education. The findings of the study can be used across other subjects in the FET band so that in the long run curriculum delivery becomes effective.

5.4 THE SAMPLING PROCESS

This aspect focuses on the target population, the sample frame, the selection of the appropriate sampling techniques and the selection of the sample size.

5.4.1 The research sample

This study used a combination of purposive and convenience sampling, or what is also referred to as accidental or opportunity sampling (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 103). Respondents were selected purposively. Patton (in Crabtree and Miller, 1999: 33) is of the view that qualitative researchers typically focus in depth on relatively small samples selected purposively. In purposive sampling, the researcher chooses the cases to be included in the sample based on prior information of a population and the specific purpose of the research. The choice of the sample is based on personal judgment and the assumption that the knowledge of the population can be used to judge whether or not a particular sample will be representative, or that those

chosen possess the necessary information about the population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003: 103-105).

Conversely, convenience sampling involves choosing the nearest available participants for the study. While this type of sampling may be convenient and may sometimes be the only choice a researcher has, it can also be biased. In such an instance the researcher should include demographic information and other characteristics of the sample that is being studied (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003: 103-105).

Jensen (2002: 239) argues that convenience sampling is sometimes referred to in derogatory terms because individuals chosen for the study are easily available to a researcher. However, it must be noted that a well-documented convenience sample can generate both valid and reliable insights into a social setting or event. He also states that given the enormous difficulty of trying to get entry into certain environments, convenience therefore becomes a legitimate consideration (Jensen, 2002: 239).

In keeping with the convenience sampling method, Crabtree and Miller (1999: 34) state that the sample size in qualitative study is often small and consists of between five to twenty units of analysis. In justification of this sampling method the researcher chose six participants who participated in the semi-structured interview. The participants who made up the convenience sample consisted of FET History Curriculum Specialists based at Head Office and District Offices within the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. The participants of the sample occupied positions of authority as they managed the FET History curriculum at either Head Office or at district level. The districts included in the sample were Empangeni, Othukela, Umgungundlovu and Umzinyathi.

The justification for choosing these particular participants for the sample was to compare whether the implementation of the *NCS* among FET History educators was similar to or different from a Head Office and Districts point of view.

5.4.2 The target population

According to Tuckman (1988: 227), a population refers to the establishment of boundary conditions that specify who shall be included or excluded from the study. Neuman (1997: 203) argues that in defining population, the researcher specifies the unit being sampled, the geographical location and the temporal boundaries of the population. For this study the main target population is located within the Umlazi District, in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. The province has a population of 10.5 million people and 2.8 million children attend school. Of this, there are 564 public and independent schools and about 326 849 learners that attend school in the Umlazi District (Interview with Chief Education Specialist: Planning Section in the Umlazi District: 13 May 2011). Of the 564 schools in the district, 174 schools have registered approximately 22000 learners to write the 2011 Grade 12 National Senior Certificate Examination. Generally, the schools in the Umlazi District consist of children from diverse racial backgrounds. It consists of African, Coloured, Indian and White learners and teachers (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: Annual Performance Plan, 2008/09: 22).

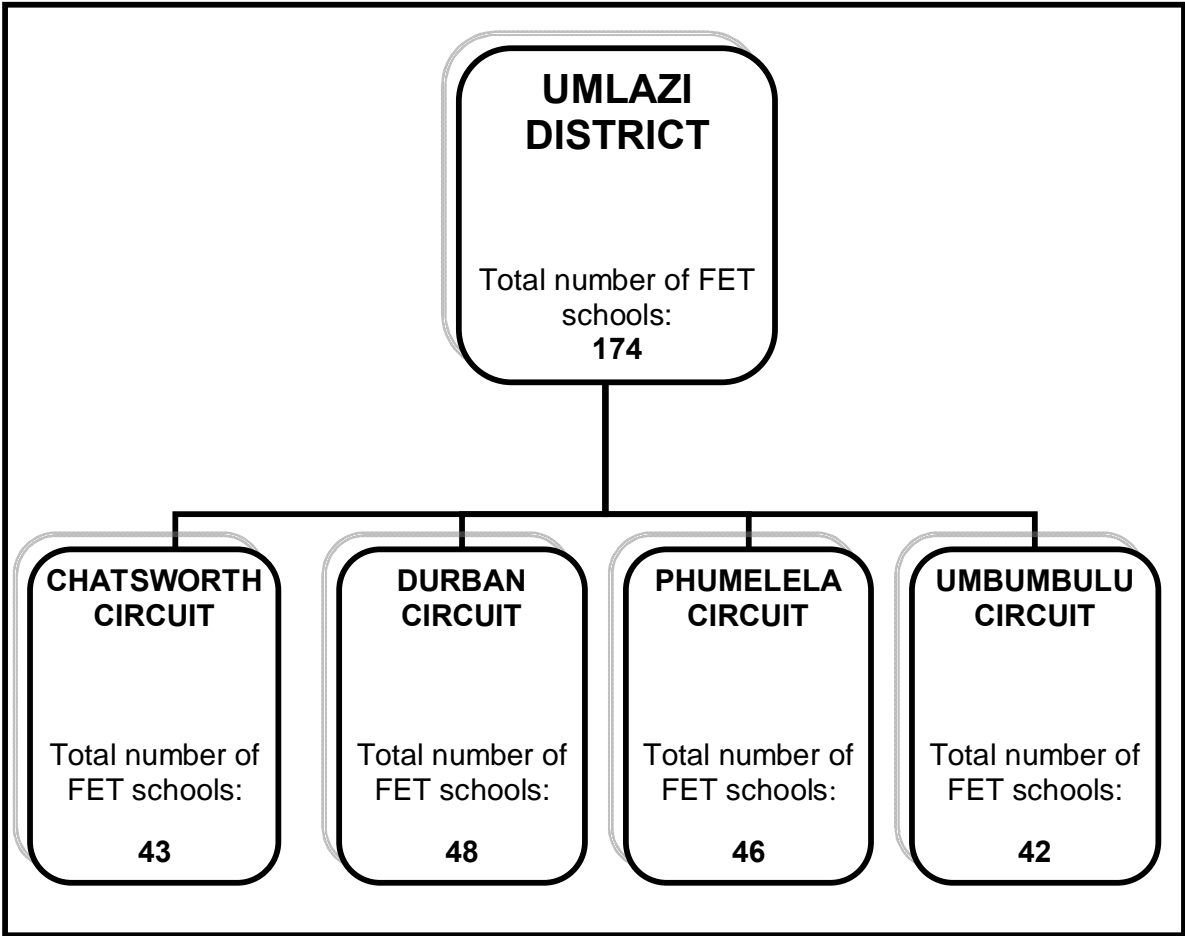
The reason for selecting this geographical region is two fold. First, it has the largest concentration of schools and learners in the province of KwaZulu-Natal and arguably in South Africa. Second, it has schools that are located in the rural, township and urban areas. Therefore, it can be argued that the metropolitan area within which the Umlazi District is located adequately reflects these diverse characteristics.

The Umlazi District consists of four circuits, with approximately 174 schools in the FET phase. These circuits consist of Chatsworth, which has 43 schools, Durban, which has 48 schools, Phumelela, which has 41 schools, and Umbumbulu, which has 42 schools. (Refer to Figure 5.3).

Before 1994, these 174 schools were administered as follows, 112 were under the administration of the former Department of Education and Training (DET), and thirty were under the administration of the House of Assembly (HoA), twenty-six under the administration of the former House of Delegates

(HoD) and six under the administration of the former House of Representatives (HoR). Therefore, the justification for the sample was purposive because it represents a combination of schools from the former Departments of Education.

Figure 5.3: A flow diagram showing the total number of schools in the various circuits in the Umlazi District.



Source: KZNDoe: Strategic Plan 2010/11– 2014/15 (2010: 23-24).

Although more than seventeen years have passed since the previously racialised education departments were dissolved into a single national department of education, the legacy of apartheid persists, and the quality of education still remains very uneven and unequal among schools in the province of KwaZulu-Natal and in the Umlazi District.

In the light of this, the chosen target population adequately demonstrates the demographic profile of the province. The selection of a sample has a major influence on the data collected. Singleton and Straits (1999: 135) argue that sampling is important for a number of reasons. First, it is sometimes virtually impossible to study a particular social group or population in its entirety for reasons such as time, cost, and size. To circumvent this, a well-selected sample can suffice, as a sample is a sub-section of the target population. A sample can be a cost effective and practical way of collecting data. Second, a sample population renders the planning and logistics of observation and other means of data collection more manageable. Therefore, great care needs to be taken to ensure that all elements in the research process are accounted for. This should not cast any aspersions on the research and the data. As research seeks to establish the broadest possible generalisations, it has to pay particular attention to what is represented and ensure that the characteristics of the target population are factored in.

5.4.3 Determining the sample frame

The next step entailed the selection of the sample. Neuman (1997: 203) defines a sample frame as a specific list that closely approximates all the elements in the population. Therefore, the extent to which the sample represents the entire population is very important and it becomes necessary to articulate what is being represented very clearly. Generalisations should be made only about the population represented by the sampling frame.

The sample frame for this study consisted of the following:

- 142 FET History educators in the Umlazi district.
- Four (4) FET History Curriculum Specialists from the Midlands and the Northern cluster.
- One (1) FET History Chief Education Specialist from the Provincial Head Office.
- One (1) FET History Senior Education Specialist from the Provincial Head Office.

To date, no tangible research on implementing the *NCS* among FET History educators in the Umlazi District has been undertaken. Further, a comparative study on the implementation of the FET History curriculum among the various districts has not been undertaken. However, generalised research on the South African high school History curriculum was undertaken, but this lacked specific information on curriculum implementation. It is evident that there are gaps regarding the implementation of the FET History curriculum in the Umlazi and other districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

5.4.4 The sample size

According to Sommer and Sommer (1986: 202), the size of the population and the available resources and time constraints are crucial in making a decision on the sample size. For this study the sample selected was purposive. Therefore, all FET History educators in the Umlazi District were asked to participate by completing the research questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F). No sampling technique was used. Since the researcher supervises FET History educators in the Umlazi District, the questionnaires were distributed and collected by an official who is a Senior Education Specialist: FET History stationed at the Head Office of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. This was done to ensure that the process was as objective as possible.

Of the 142 questionnaires that were distributed, 133 were returned. 33 were inappropriately completed. One hundred questionnaires were used for data capturing and analysis. The next aspect focuses on the data collection methods that were used in the study.

5.4.5 The sampling technique

There are two methods of sampling namely, probability and non-probability sampling. Nachmias and Nachmias (1981: 288) outline the differences between these two types of sampling:

The distinguishing characteristic of probability sampling is that one can specify for each sampling unit of the population the probability that it will be included in the sample. In the simplest case, each of the units has the same probability of being included in the sample. In non-probability sampling, there is no way of specifying the probability that each unit has a chance of being included in the sample and there is no assurance that every unit has some chance of being included.

The probability sampling technique consists of simple random, systematic, stratified and cluster sampling. Non-probability sampling on the other hand, consists of convenience sample, quota, snowball and purposive sample. This study used the non-probability sampling method. A major advantage of this sampling method is that it is easy and cheap in setting up the sample. It also helps when the researcher does not have to generalise the findings beyond the sample, especially with this study, which focused essentially on FET History educators and curriculum specialists with special reference to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1981: 299) add that,

The major advantages of non-probability samples are convenience and economy, which, under circumstances may outweigh the risks involved in not using probability sampling. Also, when a population cannot be defined because of factors such as a non-available list of the population, the researcher may be forced to use a non-probability sample. The non-probability sampling technique is easy and cheap in determining a sample.

Having discussed the sampling technique, the next aspect will focus on the sample size.

5.5 DATA COLLECTION

5.5.1 Data collection methods

The method employed in the data collection process is critical to any form of scientific inquiry. The type of data collected that emanates from the study will determine whether the research questions were adequately answered. It is evident that, quantitative research methods would invariably produce quantitative data while on the other hand; qualitative research methods will produce qualitative data. Tesch (1990: 55) asserts that in the present day context, many studies use both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. This ensures that the research findings are justifiable. However, how does one determine whether the research that was undertaken was *valid* and furthermore gives an adequate representation of the public policies that have been studied? Winter (2000: 7) argues that different authors use different analytical yardsticks such as *reliability*, *trustworthiness*, *validity*, *relevant*, *plausible* or *credible* or *representative* to determine and measure the viability of a study. A discussion of some of these variables is undertaken next.

Reliability:

Determines whether the findings of a study are credible. It is a quantitative methodological construct. Raimond (1993: 55) declares that the researcher must ask him/herself the following question: Will the evidence of their conclusions stand up to closer scrutiny? He further points out that repeated findings must yield similar results. This means that the use of the same instrument must yield similar results in repeated trials (Raimond, 1993: 55).

Bogdan and Bilken (1982: 44) contend that it is not easy to achieve reliability in qualitative research. They argue that reliability is a quantitative concept and that the information gleaned from qualitative research will not be credible and genuine. They further argue that there is a need for more clarity on the concept, especially with regard to its use in qualitative research. It may be noted that qualitative researchers focus on validity, accuracy and credibility of

their data for which reason it is important that the correct data collection procedure is adopted so that the data collected is reliable, credible and authentic (Bogdan and Bilken, 1982: 44).

Trustworthiness:

According to Bassey (1999: 75) trustworthiness comprises a list of a number of questions that are being asked at different stages of the research process. Criteria that enhance the trustworthiness of a study are, for example, the prolonged interaction with the data collected, consistent observation of the matter at hand, adequate triangulation of the raw data with their sources, methodical corroboration of the emerging data against the analytical statements, using a critical reader to challenge the data findings, and making available the data and source used. Therefore, if these questions can be honestly responded to then the trustworthiness and rigour of the process would be upheld.

Validity:

Is another significant criterion that is used in the collection of suitable data. Validity is defined as the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in a specific situation. Coolican (1992: 35) states that an effect or test is valid if it demonstrates or measures what the researcher thinks or claims it does. Poor research procedures can undermine validity, since the quantitative approach focuses on the preciseness of measurement; there is a possibility that the validity can be low. This means that the researcher does not measure what is supposed to be measured. The qualitative approach captures data and information, which is rich in its explanation and analysis (Wilson *et al*, 2000: 162). The researcher's aim is to gain access to the knowledge and meaning of those involved in the phenomena, hence validity is high in such a paradigm.

There are several different ways in which validity of research can be assessed. Collis and Hussey (2003: 127) argue that the most common validity is ~~face validity~~ face validity which ensures that the tests used by a researcher

measure up to what it is supposed to measure. Maxwell (1992: 96) on the other hand refers to this as descriptive validity, which is concerned with the accuracy of the descriptions and observations that are made by the researcher. Therefore, in this study, sufficient caution was taken to ensure that the correct data collection procedures were used to yield results that were valid and reliable.

5.5.2. Ethical considerations in the collection of data

Research ethics is the essence of any credible scientific research project and hence must be upheld. Participants must never be coerced into participating in any form of research activity (Walliman, 2008: 340). Therefore, the autonomy, integrity and rights of participants must be respected (Durrheim & Wassenaar, 2002: 37). Participants have a right not to take part in any study, although this in the long run can adversely affect the results of the study.

Bless *et al.* (1995: 100) put forward the following criteria that are regarded as the generally accepted ethical considerations. These include:

The right to privacy and voluntary participation:

At all times researchers should strive to respect people's right to privacy and they should not be compelled to participate unless they have consented. Bless *et al.* (1995: 100) also state that participants must be informed about what they are consenting to. Participants must be made aware of the positive and negative aspects of participating in a study. They also argue that if the positive and negative aspects are outlined to participants, it may facilitate cooperation. Researchers must strive to be objective and must endeavour not to hide anything from the participants. An attempt must be made to maintain and at all times to uphold the dignity of participants. (Refer to Annexures D and E).

Anonymity:

The names of participants should be omitted and the respondents must be identified by a number instead of their name. The anonymity of participants must at all times be respected. By doing this, the researcher can ensure that the responses of participants are free of bias and ambiguity. The researcher must ensure that the identities of participants must not be revealed as this might compromise the confidentiality of the process.

Confidentiality:

The researcher must at all time be honest with participants. It is crucial that the data that is collected by the researcher should be used for its intended purpose. Nobody should be permitted to view the data. In cases where anonymity of the participant cannot be maintained. The participant should be informed and an assurance given that the participants details would remain confidential. This will allay the fears of participants and they would most likely complete the research instrument honestly. This can enhance the quality of data collected. In this study, every effort was made at all times to adhere to the above ethical considerations. This ensured the reliability and validity of the findings. (Refer to Annexures D).

Before the actual distribution of questionnaires and interviews with participants the following was undertaken in keeping with aforementioned ethical considerations:

- A letter was written to the Head of Department of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education for permission to conduct the research. (Refer to Annexure A).
- Permission was granted by the Head of Department of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to conduct the research. (Refer to Annexure B).
- A letter of approval was granted by the University of KwaZulu-Natal: Ethics Committee to conduct research. (Refer to Annexure C).

- A letter of informed consent was given to FET History Curriculum Specialists inviting them to participate in the study (Refer to Annexure D) and
- Written consent forms were given to participants informing them about the nature of the research project and its confidentiality. (Refer to Annexure E).

After the data was collected it was analysed and interpreted using the appropriate research techniques. Chapter Six will focus on the details.

5.5.3 Quantitative data collection techniques

Below is discussion of the quantitative data collection techniques used in the study:

5.5.3.1 The questionnaire

A key feature of any successful research is the instrument that is used to obtain specific data. The questionnaire was one of the instruments used in this study. Arguably, it was the most appropriate and valid quantitative instrument to use in order to ascertain effectiveness of the implementation of NCS. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 172) questionnaires are printed forms for data collection which include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond, often anonymously. Questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena, which are easily observed such as attitudes, motivation and self-concepts.

These considerations were taken into account when the questionnaire for the study was drawn up. Due cognisance was given to the structure and layout of the questionnaire. This was done so that respondents would be able to fill in the questionnaire with relative ease and it would also assist with the process of data capturing and analysis. On the front cover of the questionnaire, an introductory statement was included. It assured respondents that the information given would be held in the strictest confidence. It also contained a statement outlining the purpose of the study and their voluntary participation and confidentiality of the process. The

questionnaire consisted of Section A and Section B that had four subsections (Refer to Annexure F). The questionnaire was specifically designed to ensure the reliability and validity of the process, with particular emphasis on reducing the potential of bias. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 265) define bias as follows:

The quality in questionnaire items that encourage respondents to answer in a particular way or to support a particular point of view.

In an attempt to curtail the possibility of bias, questions were structured with clarity, so that all respondents could understand that the questions were posed in the same way. Questions were phrased using simple and comprehensible language so that respondents were consistent in their responses and this would reduce the possibility of bias (McCracken, 1988: 24). Instructions were clear, unambiguous and precise in order to maintain the interest and co-operation of the respondents (Preece, 1994: 108). They were also designed in such a manner so that the data analysis stage could be completed with ease (Preece, 1994: 108).

The questionnaire consisted of nine pages and comprised of forty-seven closed and open-ended questions. Neuman (2003: 278) argues that closed-ended questions are primarily used because they are often easier and quicker for respondents to answer and may assist less articulate respondents.

Closed-ended questions are generally easier to code, analyse and draw comparisons among respondents; it also serves to enhance the reliability and validity of the study. In the questionnaire used for this study, Section A consisted of ten closed-ended questions, which sought to obtain personal information about the respondents such as age; gender; race; highest qualification; post held at school; type of school presently teaching at; location of the school; and the number of years of experience teaching History in Grades 10 to 12. This biographical information is always found at the beginning of a questionnaire, and it serves as useful introductory

information on the respondent and it compels respondents to provide specific answers thus acting as funneling or sorting devices (Preece, 1994: 250). Refer to Figure 5.4 below that indicates questions in a banded format.

Figure 5.4: An example of banded scales used in the formulation of the questionnaire.

1.3 AGE

Place an X in the appropriate box

25-35		01
36-45		02
46-55		03
56-65		04

Section B consisted of three closed-ended questions (Questions 1 to 3) and one open-ended question (Question 4). A further breakdown of the questions shows that Question 1 consisted of ten questions related to Public Policy, Question 2 consisted of eleven questions related to Public Policy monitoring and evaluation and Question 3 consisted of eight questions related to Public Policy.

Section B of the questionnaire, which is made up of Questions 1 to 3, consisted of twenty-nine closed-ended questions. Of these twenty-nine closed-ended questions, 25 questions required respondents to choose from the five options that were given. It had a corresponding coding frame or labelling device, referred to as the Likert Scale (refer to Figure 5.5). This scale that is used in questionnaires provides three to seven options for respondents to choose from in order to indicate levels of preference (Picciano, 2004: 24). The Lickert Scale provides consistency amongst respondents on a pre-set scale, in that it has particular value in its unambiguous ordinality of response categories (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 153). This instrument is also easy to understand, analyse, interpret and administer (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 328).

Figure 5.5: An example of a Lickert Scale used in the questionnaire.

1.1 Was there a need for the new democratic government to change curriculum policy?	Strongly Agree	Tend to agree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
	01	02	03	04	05

However, some questions, such as Question 1.5 required respondents to rate and rank items and to distinguish order, for example, rank-order questions that identified options from which respondents could choose in order of priority. Refer to Figure 5.6 below.

Figure 5.6: Type of rank order question used in the questionnaire.

1.2 The following are key principles and values that describes the national curriculum. Rank them from 1 to 9 in terms of which you think is most achievable to least achievable regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.	Ranking	
1.5.1. Social transformation		01
1.5.2. Outcomes-based education		02
1.5.3 High knowledge and high skills		03
1.5.4 Integration and applied competence		04
1.5.5 Progression		05
1.5.6 Articulation and portability		06
1.5.7 Human rights, inclusivity, environment and social justice		07
1.5.8 Valuing indigenous knowledge systems		08
1.5.9 Credibility, quality and efficiency		09

Other questions that did not require the use of the Lickert Scale were Questions 3.4, 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7. These closed-ended questions like nominal scales required respondents to indicate either ~~Yes~~ or ~~No~~ Refer to Figure 5.7 that follows.

Figure 5.7: An example of a closed-ended question used in the questionnaire.

3.4. The monitoring and evaluation process is impartial?	YES	NO
	01	02

These closed-ended questions were useful in that they compelled respondents to provide specific answers thus acting as funneling or sorting devices (Preece, 1994: 250).

Question 4 of the questionnaire was made up of ten opened-ended questions (Refer to Figure 5.8). It gave respondents an opportunity to give their honest and candid opinions regarding *NCS* implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Figure 5.8: An example of an open-ended question used in the questionnaire.

4.2 Explain what do you think was the purpose for curriculum changes in South Africa after 1994.

Sufficient writing space was provided below the open-ended questions for the free expression of ideas and comments (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 256). Open-ended questions place fewer restrictions on the expression of opinion but they are more difficult to analyse (Preece, 1994: 109). Open-ended questions also provide respondents with an opportunity to substantiate their responses with specific details. Marshall and Rossman (1989: 83) contend that respondents can also clarify their responses.

The questionnaire in this study proved to be an invaluable tool in ascertaining the perceptions of FET History educators regarding the implementation of the *NCS*.

5.5.3.2 Advantages of using questionnaires

The following are some examples indicating the advantages of using a questionnaire.

First, it was less expensive and it ensured that the questionnaires could be administered to a larger sample of respondents. Most of the cost that was incurred by this study was borne by the researcher; hence the self-administered questionnaire seemed the most economical way of collecting data.

Second, the respondents were assured of their anonymity. Respondents were more relaxed and completed the questionnaires at leisure.

Third, since the questionnaire had mainly closed-ended questions it required the respondents to place an 'X' in the appropriate column. This helped facilitate the completion of the questionnaire within a short period of time. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 172), another advantage is that if the same questionnaire is given to all respondents, the data collected is more accurate.

Fourth, questionnaires provide cross-sectional data, which complements data from the semi-structured interview.

5.5.3.3 Disadvantages of using questionnaires

The following are some examples indicating the disadvantages of using a questionnaire.

First, some researchers argue the data collected from questionnaires is very subjective. To circumvent this shortcoming they opt for the matched guise technique.

The matched guise technique circumvents conscious introspection by confronting subjects with examples of the languages or varieties in question in the form of recorded text passages. The speakers are then asked to evaluate the speakers that have heard in terms of character traits such as body height, good looks, leadership, sense of humor, intelligence, religiousness, self-confidence, dependability, entertainingness, kindness, ambition, sociability, character, and likeability (Lambert et al, 1960: 44-46).

Since this technique is time consuming it was not used in this study.

Second, Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 172) are of the view that a major problem with questionnaires is that they are inappropriate for subjects who cannot read and write in a second language. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:

172) also state that it is especially true for research in subjects that require reading and providing answers in another language.

Third, Ahuja (2002: 193) states that there is no assurance that the questions in a questionnaire have been understood by the subjects and answered correctly. It may happen that subjects are in a hurry and they may complete the questionnaire in haste without really understanding its contents.

Fourth, respondents have fewer choices to select from. They are given fewer opportunities to expand on their responses. Arguably, this may lead to respondents giving very subjective responses despite this being factored into the questionnaire.

Although 50% of the respondents to the questionnaire were English second language speakers, this did not affect both the quality of responses given and the processing of data.

Despite the questionnaire have both advantages and disadvantages it is considered the best instrument by many researchers in terms of time, money and human resource. In spite of its shortcomings questionnaires are important to collect data on phenomena, which are not easily observed such as attitude. This is precisely what the questionnaire was used in this research to achieve, that is, to collect data on the implementation of the *NCS*.

5.5.3.4 Administration of the final questionnaire

Before the questionnaires could be distributed, permission had to be sought from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to conduct research among FET History educators in the Umlazi District. A letter was emailed to the Research Officer in the Research Unit, Pietermaritzburg (Refer to Annexure A). Permission was granted subject to certain conditions (Refer to Annexure B). With regard to the distribution and collection of questionnaires to schools, the researcher, who is currently the FET History Curriculum Advisor in the Umlazi District, obtained the assistance of an official who is a Senior Education Specialist for FET History based at the Head Office of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

The distribution of questionnaires was undertaken at FET History workshops that were held in the four circuits in the Umlazi District. Questionnaires were distributed by the Senior Education Specialist from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, Head Office to FET History educators that attended the workshop. Written instructions on how to complete the questionnaire appeared on the front cover of the questionnaire. All History FET educators who attended the workshop were given the questionnaire to complete at home. The questionnaires were then returned at a later date to the FET History official from Head Office. Of the 142 questionnaires that were distributed to History FET educators in all four circuits in the Umlazi District, 133 questionnaires were returned (93%). A total of 100 questionnaires (70%) were correctly completed.

5.5.3.5 Limitations of using questionnaires

There were a few problems that were encountered in the administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered to respondents at a two-day FET History workshop that was conducted in the Umlazi District. Respondents were informed that it was an entirely voluntary process and were not compelled to participate. Respondents were given ample time to complete the questionnaire but a few did not bother to return the questionnaires. Significantly, most respondents returned the questionnaire; it is assumed this was the case because the researcher conducting the study is the official in charge of supervising FET History educators in the Umlazi District. Mouton (2001: 109) describes this phenomenon as respondent bias. Conversely, the findings from this study may provide FET History educators with invaluable information to enhance their teaching of the NCS.

In some instances, respondents did not follow the correct instructions. This affected the way in which the questionnaires were completed. Since the survey was voluntary, a few respondents returned incomplete questionnaires.

In using the Lickert Scale to respond to the closed-ended questions, a few respondents did not fill in the response in the appropriate column. They left the columns blank. Some of the questions did not probe the respondents into giving in-depth answers because they were restricted to the choices provided. Many of the questions in Section D of the questionnaire (open-ended questions) were also left incomplete. It required respondents to write down their thoughts and opinions in the space provided on the implementation of the *NCS*. The next aspect of the discussion will focus on qualitative data collection techniques.

5.5.4 Qualitative data collection techniques

The following qualitative data collection technique was used in this study:

5.5.4.1 The semi-structured interview

This study employed semi-structured interviews because they were guided, focused and open-ended. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 166), interviews are personalised and therefore permit a level of in-depth information and obtain data that often have not been foreseen. To a large extent, much of the information during an open/unstructured interview is incidental and is revealed as the interview proceeds (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 331). In this regard, interviews serve as an important instrument in the collection of data for the study on the implementation of the *NCS* among FET History educators in the Umlazi District.

The interview schedule for this study consisted of eleven open-ended questions. The last question in the schedule required subjects to state whether they had anything to add to the interview. The same semi-structured interview schedule was used in all the interviews. Refer to Annexure G for the schedule of questions. It must be noted that the schedule of questions was given to all the respondents prior to the interview. Consequently, all of the respondents had access to identical questions, which they had to answer, refer to Figure 5.9 that follows.

Figure 5.9: An example of a question used in the semi-structured interview.

1. Were FET History educators adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*?
- 1.1 Follow on question: If the interviewee says *Yes* or *No* Questions on how did you ascertain whether educators were adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*.

Respondents for the interview were specifically selected; they were History Curriculum Advisors, stationed either at the Provincial Head Office or at the District Office. They were required to give their honest opinions about implementing the *NCS*. Interviews with participants were conducted with the informed consent. All participants read the information contained in the informed consent, including issues pertaining to confidentiality and anonymity. Interviews were conducted with participants at times and places that were agreed upon, as stipulated in the interview protocol. Face to face interviews were conducted with participants in a safe environment, which helped facilitate robust discussion on the implementation of the *NCS* by FET History educators. The interviews took place in May 2011. This depended on the availability of the interviewees. The six FET History Curriculum Specialists that were interviewed were the following:

- Chief Education Specialist - FET History: Head Office: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (3 May 2011);
- Senior Education Specialist - FET History: Head Office KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (3 May 2011);
- Deputy Chief Education Specialist - FET History: Umgungundlovu District (4 May 2011);
- Deputy Chief Education Specialist - FET History: Empangeni District (4 May 2011);
- Senior Education Specialist - FET History: Umzinyathi District (5 May 2011);
- Senior Education Specialist - FET History: Othukela District (5 May 2011).

The rationale for choosing the above-mentioned Curriculum Specialists is that they represent both officials from Head Office and other districts that were alluded to in the sample.

Creswell (1994: 152) asserts that audio recorders and note-taking are techniques used by researchers to record information from interviews. A dictaphone was used to record respondents' responses, which generally lasted for about an hour. These were subsequently transcribed exactly as they were spoken. The technique of data collection is supported by Fowler (1993: 108) who claims that the recording of answers for open-ended questions must be done verbatim; that is, exactly in the words that the respondent uses, without paraphrasing, summarising or leaving anything out. It is incumbent on the researcher to assure subjects that whatever is recorded is confidential. The advantage of using an audio recorder/dictaphone and writing down the actual words of the subject is that the information is readily available and need not be transcribed later on. In the event of technical glitches that may occur with the audio recorder/dictaphone and the information cannot be retrieved. It is mandatory that the entire process must be conducted again, which may elicit information that is completely different. This can be a source of frustration for the interviewer.

5.5.4.2 Limitations of the semi-structured interview

It must be noted that interviews can be costly, time consuming, tedious and difficult to administer. Researchers who are not properly trained and equipped with interview skills may find it difficult to administer this type of data collection technique. The researcher's personal bias may result in the participant responding in a specific manner that serves only to please the interviewer.

5.5.5 Other data collection sources

The following are examples of other types of data collection techniques that were used in this study. They include amongst others journals, theses, books, reports, conference papers, NCS policy documents, Internet sites, speeches, newsletters, newspaper articles, other papers and memoranda.

5.5.6 Data analysis

The aim of analysing and coding data is to get an understanding of the relationship between various concepts, constructs and variables. This helps the researcher to ascertain whether there are specific patterns or trends that emerge from the data that was analysed. Mouton (2001: 109) affirms that:

interpretation involves the synthesis of one's data into larger coherent wholes. It means relating one's results and findings to existing theoretical frameworks or models, and showing whether these are supported or falsified by the new interpretation.

After the quantitative data was collected it was observed that the data from closed-ended questions are not always user-friendly in its exact form but the data has to be converted to a different form so that it can be easily analysed. This process is referred to as coding and scoring (Tuckman, 1978: 239). Once all the questionnaires were collected, both complete and incomplete, a statistician was enlisted to conduct the statistical data analysis.

Data collected only from the completed questionnaires were analysed to determine whether the aims and objectives of the study were fulfilled. Incomplete questionnaires were discarded or the data was not used for analysis. Although there are a number of computer programmes that are available, the researcher or statistician is at liberty to choose the most appropriate, depending on the type of questions in the questionnaire.

In this study, the statistician used the Predictive Analytics Soft Ware (PASW) Statistics version 18.0. This made it easy to edit and enter data collected from the questionnaire. The PASW version 18.0 is an advanced statistical

data analysis programme that provides many descriptive and comparative statistics. Frequency and cross tabulations were used to assess the statistical assumptions as laid out in this Chapter.

In addition, data was also analysed using the descriptive and inferential statistics. Although this is done in greater detail in Chapter Six, a brief description would suffice here. On the one hand descriptive statistics simply reports on what has been found, in an assortment of ways. Data may be presented by frequencies and percentages as well as in graphical presentations, for instance in tables, bar graphs, pie charts and even line graphs.

On the other hand, inferential statistics endeavours to make informed inferences from the data that is presented. This includes for example, correlation, hypothesis testing, t-tests, factor analysis (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 504).

The statistician also used the Pearson correlation coefficient and the Chi-squared test to analyse data collected. The Pearson correlation coefficient was applied to determine the significance of the relationship between two variables. According to Maree (2007: 236) this correlation coefficient is a ~~a~~measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two quantitative variablesq

The Chi-Square test, according to Cohen (2007: 25) is to observe whether there is a significant difference between the statistically generated result and the actual result.

Analysing the qualitative data is not as straightforward as quantitative data analysis where the data can be easily converted into numbers and percentages. There are several qualitative data analysis strategies available to researchers. However, it is important to note that no one strategy is said to be perfectly correct. Tesch (1990: 55) argues that the process of data analysis is eclectic; there is no right way. Some researchers opt for data reduction and interpretation (Marshall and Rossman, 1989: 114). This means

that the researcher takes large amounts of data and tries to reduce them to certain categories or themes and tries to decipher whether certain patterns emerge from the categories or themes.

Crabtree and Miller (1999: 21) have identified three organising styles namely template, editing and immersion/crystallisation. Of these three styles, template and editing styles are the most commonly used. The editing style is similar to Marshall and Rossman (1989: 83) data reduction and interpretation style. This study followed the similar editing style for the qualitative data analysis. The researcher tried to edit large volumes of information by searching for sentences or words that would illuminate this part of the analysis. The aims and objectives of the study must be borne in mind when searching for the appropriate words and sentences. Consequently, the relevant words or sentences are sorted and organised into categories. These categories are developed on the basis of the responses from open-ended questions posed to the respondents. About five categories were used to code the responses. A significant shortcoming of this style of analysis is that it falls short of capturing responses in its entirety and loses much of what the data offers. Some researchers suggest that the responses be recorded verbatim. According to Bogdan *et al.* (1982: 93) transcripts are the main source of data in many interview studies. Godsell (1983: 11) agrees that transcripts are also a source of quotes, which may be used to enrich a written report. However, it is important to note that quotes are used prudently as too many quotes may distort the message in the entire transcript.

Supporting this view, Denzin and Lincoln (1998: 182) state that the experiences and views of participants have to be accurately captured when transcription occurs. After the transcription is undertaken and the research report written, the data has to be stored for purposes of verification for a period of five years, according to the rules of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

5.6 CONCLUSION

This Chapter focused on the research methodology that was employed for this study and outlines reasons as to why a specific locus was chosen. The Chapter thereafter delves into the research paradigm that was used. Elaboration and justification for using the quantitative, qualitative and triangulation methods was given. Particular attention was paid to the questionnaire (quantitative research instrument) and the semi-structured interview (qualitative research instrument). The advantages and disadvantages of each method were discussed. Details, advantages and disadvantages on using a case study method were outlined. Substantial details on the sampling process were given. In discussing data collection, the importance of validity, reliability and ethical considerations in scientific research were highlighted. The research instruments used for this study were discussed. The latter part of this Chapter focused on how quantitative and qualitative data were analysed. The next Chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of data.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter analyses and interprets the data obtained from both the quantitative and qualitative instruments that were used in the study. The quantitative data was collected by means of a questionnaire that was completed by FET History educators in the Umlazi District. Sections A to D of the questionnaire required respondents to use the Lickert Scale to indicate their responses, while Section E of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions. The qualitative data was collected through interviews conducted with Provincial and District FET History Curriculum Specialists. This was facilitated by a purpose designed open-ended questionnaire. The qualitative data that was obtained from the interviewees was extrapolated using the content analysis method.

In the capturing and interpretation of data, similar and different themes and sub-themes emerged. The data was analysed and interpreted by the process of triangulating both the quantitative and qualitative data. The results are presented in the form of graphs, tables, cross tabulations and other diagrammatic representations.

The data collected from the questionnaires and interviewees was analysed by the statistician using the Predictive Analytics Soft Ware (PASW) Statistics version 18.0. The overall Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire was 0.880. Since the value was above 0.7, it suggests that the instrument was reliable and there is an acceptable level of inter-correlation of the data.

This Chapter is divided into two parts, namely:

PART A: Focuses on quantitative data analysis and interpretation gathered from FET History educators in the Umlazi District (Annexure F).

PART B: Focuses on qualitative data analysis and interpretation gathered from the Provincial and District FET History Curriculum Specialists (Annexure G).

PART A

6.2 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS: FET HISTORY EDUCATORS

One hundred and forty two (142) questionnaires were distributed to FET History educators in the Umlazi District and the response rate was 94%, with 133 questionnaires returned. However, thirty-three questionnaires contained incomplete data, which could not be used for the purposes of data analysis. The researcher's final sample size was a 100 (75%), which was used for purposes of data analysis. According to Williams (2003: 251), a response rate of over 70% for a questionnaire survey is extremely good.

The results and the findings obtained from the questionnaire used in this study are presented hereunder. The two most important aspects of precision are reliability and validity.

6.2.1 Reliability

In addition to the definition given in Chapter Five, Joppe (2000: 1) states that reliability is:

The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable.

Three types of reliability for quantitative research have been identified by Kirk and Miller (1986: 41-42) and relate to first, the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same; second the stability of a measurement over time; and third the similarity of measurements within a given time period.

Reliability is computed by taking several measurements on the same subjects into account, to ascertain whether findings of the study are indeed credible and reliable. According to Darling-Hammond (1983: 23) reliability co-efficient of 0.70 or higher is considered as acceptable.

Table 6.1: Reliability co-efficient: FET History educator's responses.

Section in questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha
Public Policy	0.837
Public Policy Implementation	0.783
Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation	0.664
Overall	0.880

The overall reliability score for this study is 0.880, which indicates a high degree of acceptable, consistent scoring for the different categories. All of the categories have (high), acceptable reliability values. However, a poor reliability score indicates a reduction in the precision of a single measurement and diminishes the ability to follow changes in measurements in experimental studies (Bless & Higson Smith, 1995: 130). The other crucial aspect of precision is validity, which is discussed hereunder.

6.2.2 Validity

Validity is a criterion that researchers in the positivist paradigm have traditionally used. Within the context of this paradigm, positivist terminology such as universal laws, evidence, objectivity, truth, actuality, deduction, reason, fact and mathematical data have been used interchangeably (Winter, 2000: 37).

Joppe (2000: 1) gives the following definition of validity as used in quantitative research:

Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit 'the bull's eye' of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others.

Thus, validity refers to the agreement between the value of measurement and its true value. Validity is quantified by comparing one's measurement with values that are as close to the true values as possible. In this study, the researcher endeavoured to use data accurately, representatively without

making vague and unsubstantiated generalisations. Invalidity has been avoided as poor research procedures can undermine validity and can degrade the precision of a single measurement, and this can also reduce the ability to characterise relationships between variables in descriptive studies (Davies and Dodd, 2002: 281). Hence, the two critical aspects of precision, reliability and validity have ensured that the findings in this study are credible.

6.3 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Section A of the quantitative questionnaire (Annexure F)

6.3.1 Descriptive statistics

This aspect presents the descriptive statistics based on the demographic information of the study. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2009: 63) state that descriptive statistics is a branch of statistics that describe, explain, portray, express and present data. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 211) assert that descriptive statistics is a set of procedures, which are used to describe different aspects of the data. They add that such information can sometimes be the sole purpose of the research and at other times it may provide the researcher with basic insights and an initial impression of the data, information that will be useful for the subsequent analysis phase of the research (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 211).

Also, descriptive statistics consist of frequency distribution in the form of graphs and tables, which assist in the elucidation of the information being analysed. Cooper and Schindler (2003: 146) argue that descriptive statistics can interpret data by representing and highlighting the mode; the score of the most number of people; the mean, which is the average score; and the arithmetic average. The mean accurately takes into account all the scores in a set of data. It is used often. The median, the score obtained from the average people and the highest and lowest scores. The median occupies the middle position. The mode occurs most often in a set of numbers. Descriptive statistics also discusses the range which is the distance between the highest and the lowest scores, the variance which is calculated as the average of the

squared deviations of individual scores from the mean, the standard deviation which measures the range of scores, the standard error, the skewness which measures how far the data is asymmetrical in relation to a normal curve of distribution (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 212). These central tendency measures were used to describe the distribution of the measure variable. In fact, statistics can report on what has been found in many ways.

Bertram (2004: 46) regards descriptive statistics as summary statistics. In other words, statistics serve to transform numbers into a single number that helps to describe data. This type of statistics assists in transmitting information about the data that the researcher is working with. Descriptive statistics enables the researcher to review and condense the data. This data is used to understand, to construe and to deduce the results of quantitative research.

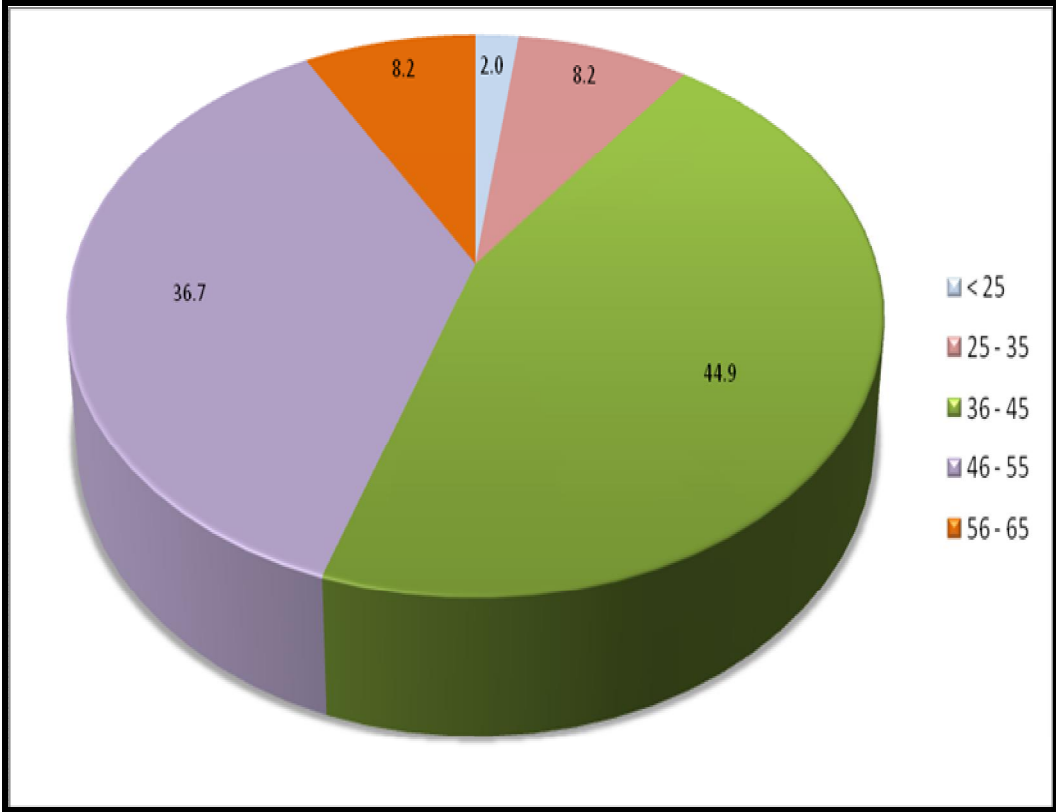
6.3.2 Biographical details of respondents

The following aspect focuses on the descriptive statistics based on Section A: Personal information of the questionnaire.

6.3.2.1 Age distribution of respondents

Below is a diagrammatic representation of the age distribution of respondents. This was done so that age can be correlated with experience.

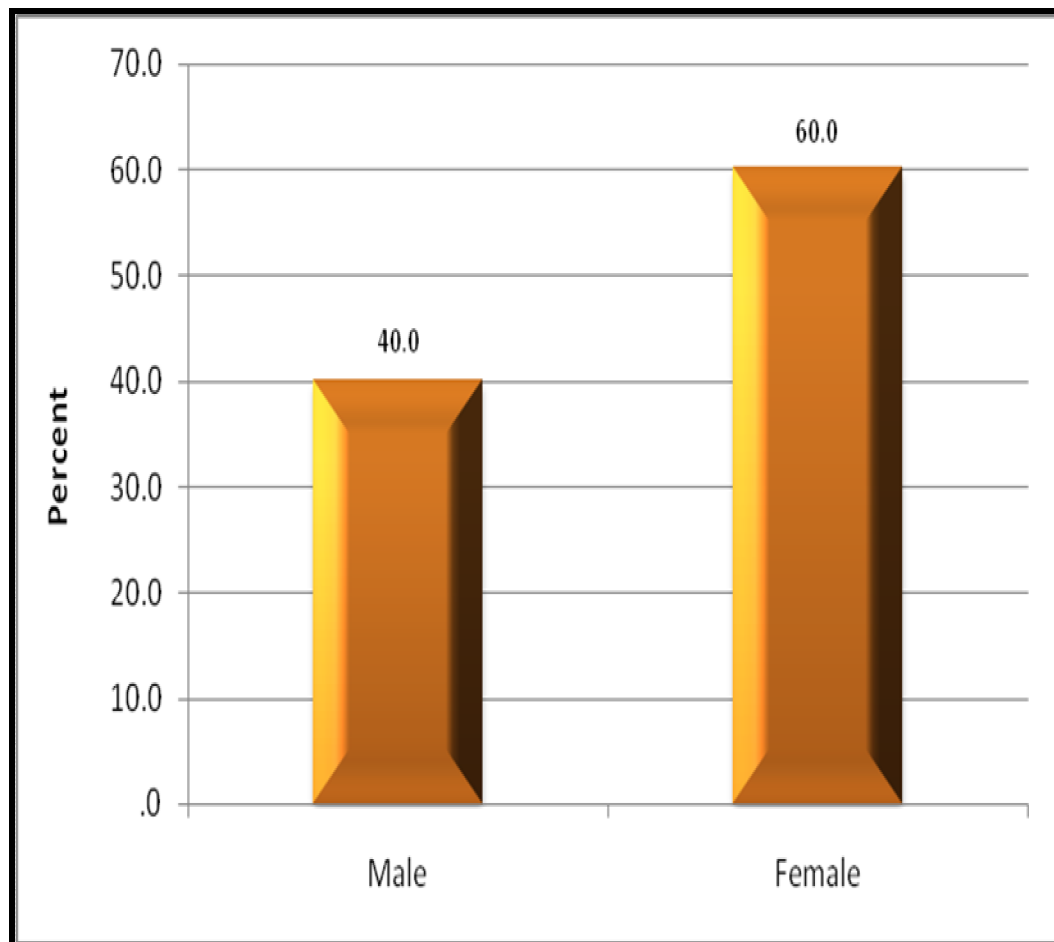
Figure 6.1: Age distribution of respondents in years.



The above pie graph indicates that the majority of the respondents (44.9%) were between the ages of 36-45 years. In total, 80.6% of the respondents were between the ages of 36 and 55 years. Only 2% of the respondents were younger than 25 years. It is therefore evident that the majority of the respondents are between the ages 36 to 55 years. This reveals that the large majority of FET History educators are fairly mature and were born and educated during the apartheid era. Age as a factor is in keeping with the South African government's vision for the public service, which to a large extent considers age as an important determinant in ensuring efficient and effective service delivery (Forbes and Lynn, 2005: 571).

6.3.2.2 Gender

Figure 6.2: Gender distribution of respondents.



The above bar graph illustrates that the ratio of male to female respondents was 2:3. This illustrates that 40% of the total respondents were male and that 60% of the respondents were female. Evidently, on average there are more female respondents teaching FET History in the Umlazi District than male respondents. This gender profile is in keeping with the national government's policy on gender parity within the work place, particularly in the public sector.

6.3.2.3 Race

Figure 6.3: Race classification of respondents.

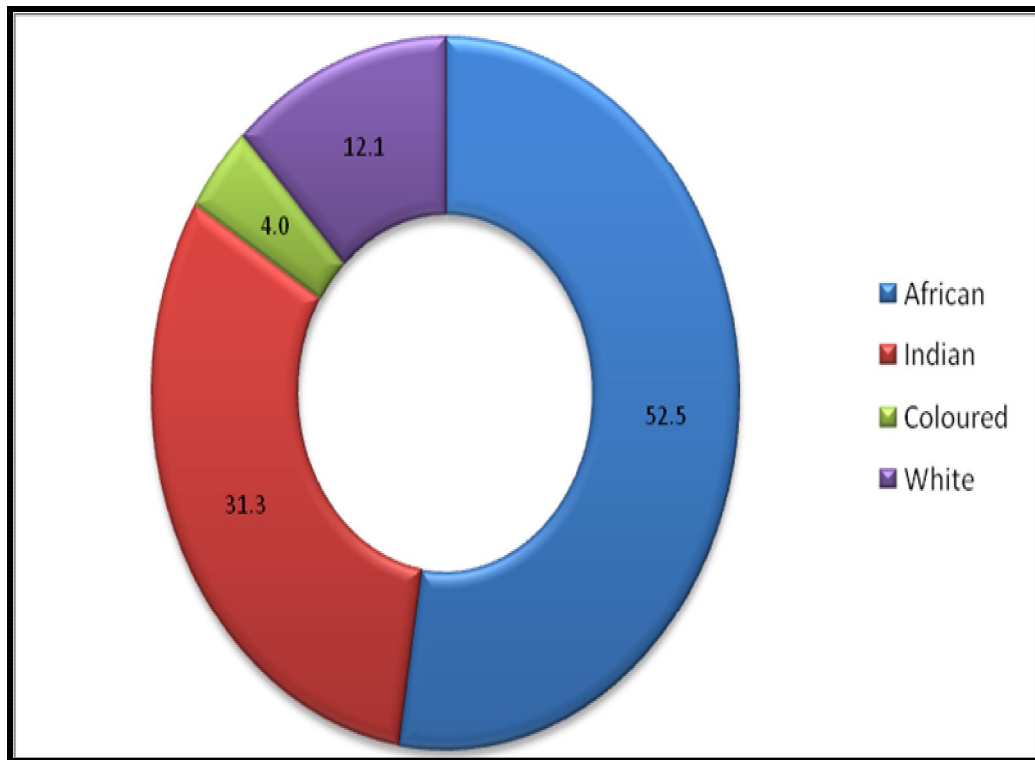
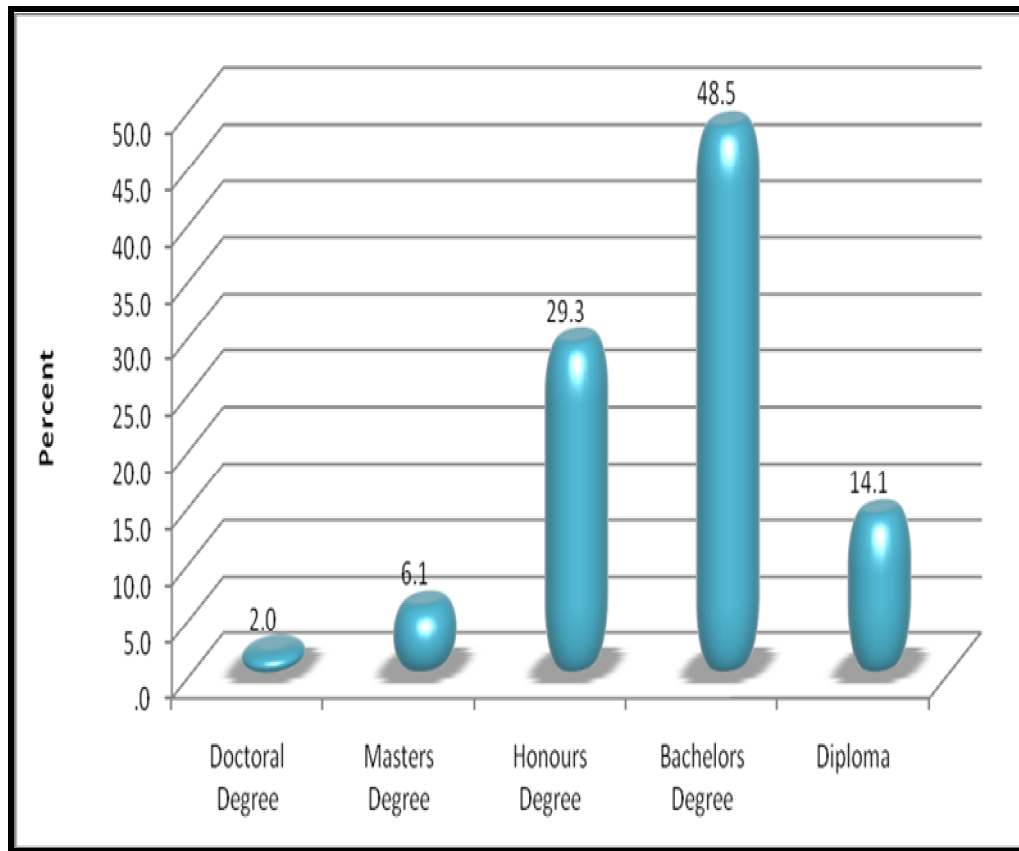


Figure 6.3 classifies, according to race, the FET History teachers in the Umlazi District. It shows the percentages of African, Indian, Coloured and White respondents who completed the questionnaire for this study. More than half (52.5%) of the respondents were African. It can be surmised that the African respondents form the majority of the respondents as compared to the other race groups. The Coloured respondents form the smallest (4%) of teachers teaching FET History in the Umlazi District. Currently there are only four Coloured schools that offer FET History in the Umlazi District. Approximately one third (31.3%) of the respondents were Indian, while only 12.1% were White. A comparison of the respondents who completed the questionnaire reveal that this percentage is accurate and is in line with demographic profile of people employed by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

6.3.2.4 Qualification

Figure 6.4: Qualification of respondents.



The above bar graph indicates that all of the respondents had a teaching qualification. Almost a third (62.6%) of the respondents had an undergraduate degree or diploma. 29.3% of the respondents had a honours degree and 6.1 % had a masters degree. Two of the hundred respondents had doctoral degrees. It is evident from the statistics that all of the respondents had a tertiary qualification and hence were qualified to teach in the FET phase. It also indicates that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education employs educators who have the necessary qualifications.

6.3.2.5 Cross-tabulation of race, gender and age classification

Table 6.2: Cross-tabulation of race, gender and age classification.

Race				Gender		Total
				Male	Female	
African	Age	< 25	Count	0	1	1
			% of Total	.0%	1.9%	1.9%
		25 - 35	Count	2	3	5
			% of Total	3.8%	5.8%	9.6%
		36 - 45	Count	11	16	27
			% of Total	21.2%	30.8%	51.9%
	46 - 55	Count	6	11	17	
% of Total		11.5%	21.2%	32.7%		
56 - 65	Count	0	2	2		
	% of Total	.0%	3.8%	3.8%		
	Total	Count	19	33	52	
		% of Total	36.5%	63.5%	100.0%	
Indian	Age	25 - 35	Count	1	0	1
			% of Total	3.3%	.0%	3.3%
		36 - 45	Count	5	7	12
			% of Total	16.7%	23.3%	40.0%
	46 - 55	Count	9	5	14	
% of Total		30.0%	16.7%	46.7%		
56 - 65	Count	1	2	3		
	% of Total	3.3%	6.7%	10.0%		
	Total	Count	16	14	30	
		% of Total	53.3%	46.7%	100.0%	
Coloured	Age	36 - 45	Count	1	0	1
			% of Total	25.0%	.0%	25.0%
		46 - 55	Count	0	1	1
	% of Total		.0%	25.0%	25.0%	
56 - 65	Count	0	2	2		
	% of Total	.0%	50.0%	50.0%		
	Total	Count	1	3	4	
		% of Total	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	
White	Age	< 25	Count	0	1	1
			% of Total	.0%	8.3%	8.3%
		25 - 35	Count	0	2	2
			% of Total	.0%	16.7%	16.7%
		36 - 45	Count	3	1	4
			% of Total	25.0%	8.3%	33.3%
	46 - 55	Count	0	4	4	
% of Total		.0%	33.3%	33.3%		
56 - 65	Count	1	0	1		
	% of Total	8.3%	.0%	8.3%		
	Total	Count	4	8	12	
		% of Total	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%	

According to Bertram (2004: 194) cross-tabulation is a way of understanding the relationships that exists between two or more variables. In this case the relationship among race, gender and age is cross-tabulated with the various race groups below.

African: Males constituted 36.5% of the race group. Of these, 21.2% were between the age group of 36-45 years. There were no males younger than 25 years or older than 56 years in the sample. The majority of females (30.8%) were also in the 36-45 year age group. It is evident that most of the educators teaching History fall into the category of 36-35 years. This reveals that the cohort of educators teaching FET History is experienced.

Indian: Males constituted 53,3% of the race group. Of these, 16,7% was between the age group of 36-45 years. There were 3,3% males younger than 25 years and older than 56 years in the sample. Females (23,3%) were in the 36-45 year age group with no females under the age of 25 and only (6,7%) of females older than 56 years of age in the sample.

White: Males constituted 33,3% of the race group, almost one third of this race group. Of these, 25% were between the age group of 36-45 years, exactly one quarter of the White population. There were no males younger than 25 years and (8,3%) were older than 56 years in the sample. The majority of females (33.3%) were in the 46-55 year age group and there were none in the 56-65 years age group.

Coloured: Males constituted 25% of this race group, almost one quarter of the Coloured population. All male respondents were between the age group of 36-45 years. There were no males younger than 25 years or older than 56 years in the sample. The majority of females (25%) were also in the 36-45 year age group and (50%), half of all female respondents were between the ages 46-55 years of age.

6.3.2.6 Cross-tabulation of post held at school, type of school and the circuit in which the school is situated

The cross tabulation below indicates the breakdown by post held at school, type of school and the circuit in which the school is situated.

Table 6.3: Cross-tabulation of the post held at school, type of school and the circuit in which the school is situated.

In which of the following circuits is your school situated?			Type of school you presently teach at				Total
			Rural	Urban	Township	Private	
Chatsworth	Post held at school	Deputy Principal	Count	1	0	0	1
			% of Total	6.7%	.0%	.0%	6.7%
		Head of Department	Count	2	0	0	2
			% of Total	13.3%	.0%	.0%	13.3%
	Educator	Count	8	2	2	12	
	% of Total	53.3%	13.3%	13.3%	80.0%		
	Total	Count	11	2	2	15	
		% of Total	73.3%	13.3%	13.3%	100.0%	
Durban Central	Post held at school	Principal	Count	0	1	0	1
			% of Total	.0%	2.8%	.0%	2.8%
		Head of Department	Count	7	0	0	7
			% of Total	19.4%	.0%	.0%	19.4%
	Educator	Count	19	4	4	27	
	% of Total	52.8%	11.1%	11.1%	75.0%		
	Other	Count	0	0	1	1	
	% of Total	.0%	.0%	2.8%	2.8%		
	Total	Count	26	5	5	36	
		% of Total	72.2%	13.9%	13.9%	100.0%	
Phumelela	Post held at school	Deputy Principal	Count	0	1	3	4
			% of Total	.0%	3.1%	9.4%	12.5%
		Head of Department	Count	0	3	3	6
			% of Total	.0%	9.4%	9.4%	18.8%
	Educator	Count	1	6	15	22	
	% of Total	3.1%	18.8%	46.9%	68.8%		
	Total	Count	1	10	21	32	
		% of Total	3.1%	31.3%	65.6%	100.0%	
Umbumbulu	Post held at school	Head of Department	Count	3	0	2	5
			% of Total	17.6%	.0%	11.8%	29.4%
		Educator	Count	7	1	3	11
			% of Total	41.2%	5.9%	17.6%	64.7%
	Other	Count	1	0	0	1	
	% of Total	5.9%	.0%	.0%	5.9%		
	Total	Count	11	1	5	17	
		% of Total	64.7%	5.9%	29.4%	100.0%	

The trends in Table 6.3 are discussed below, according to the various circuits that make up the Umlazi District.

Chatsworth circuit

There are no rural schools in the Chatsworth circuit. The majority of the schools (73.3%) are located in the urban area, while 13.3% of the schools are located in the township. Another 13.3% of schools are regarded as private. None of the respondents occupied the post of Principal. Altogether 6.7% of the respondents held the post of Deputy Principal and 13.3 % occupied the post of Head of Department, the majority of the respondents were level one educators. It is evident from the data that the majority of the respondents (53,3%) who teach FET History at urban schools are level one educators. It is also apparent from the data that none of the principals were involved in the teaching of FET History in the Chatsworth circuit.

Durban Central circuit

There are no rural schools in the Durban Central circuit. The majority of the schools (72.2%) are located in the urban area, while 13.9% of the schools are located in an area referred to as a township and another 13.9% of schools are classified as private. Only one (2.8%) respondent, a principal, taught FET History at a township school in this circuit. There are no Deputy Principals as respondents. This suggests that Deputy Principals in this circuit are not involved in the teaching of FET History. In total 19,4% of the respondents are Heads of Department (HOD), all of whom taught at urban schools. The majority of the respondents (75%) who participated in this study are level one educators. This was made up of 52.8% teaching in urban schools, 11.1% teaching at township schools and another 11.1% teaching at private schools. A similar pattern emerged from the Chatsworth Circuit, where the majority of respondents that taught FET History are level one educators.

The data also reveals that there are no respondents who were Principals, Deputy Principals or Heads of Department that taught FET History at private schools.

Phumelela circuit

The majority of respondents (65.6%) teach at township schools, while 31.3% teach at urban schools and a mere 3.1% teach at rural schools. There were no respondents that taught FET History at private schools or who are Principals in this circuit.

Of the respondents 3.1% and 9.4% were Deputy Principals who taught FET History at urban and township schools respectively. Altogether 9.4% of the respondents were Heads of Department who taught FET History at urban and township schools. The majority of the respondents teaching FET History were level one educators (46.9%). In fact 3.1% taught at rural schools, while 18.8% taught at urban schools and the majority of them (65.6%) taught at township schools. Since Phumelela circuit is situated in the Umlazi Township, it can therefore be inferred that this was the largest contingent of FET History teachers teaching in this area.

A similar trend compared to Chatsworth and Durban Central also emerges in the Phumelela circuit. Most of the respondents were level one educators and fell into the constant category.

Umbumbulu circuit

In this circuit there are no private schools and there is no Principal and Deputy Principal that teaches FET History. Overall the vast number of respondents (64.7%) teach at rural schools while 5.9% teach at urban schools, and 29.4% at township schools. This data confirms that the Umbumbulu circuit is largely rural in nature. All FET History educators in this circuit are either level one educators or Heads of Department. In total there are 64.7% level one FET History educators and 29.4 % are Heads of Department.

A similar trend appears in all of the circuits in the Umlazi District, that is, most of the respondents are FET History level one educators (almost 72%).

6.3.2.7 Years of experience in teaching History

Figure 6.5: Years of experience in teaching History.

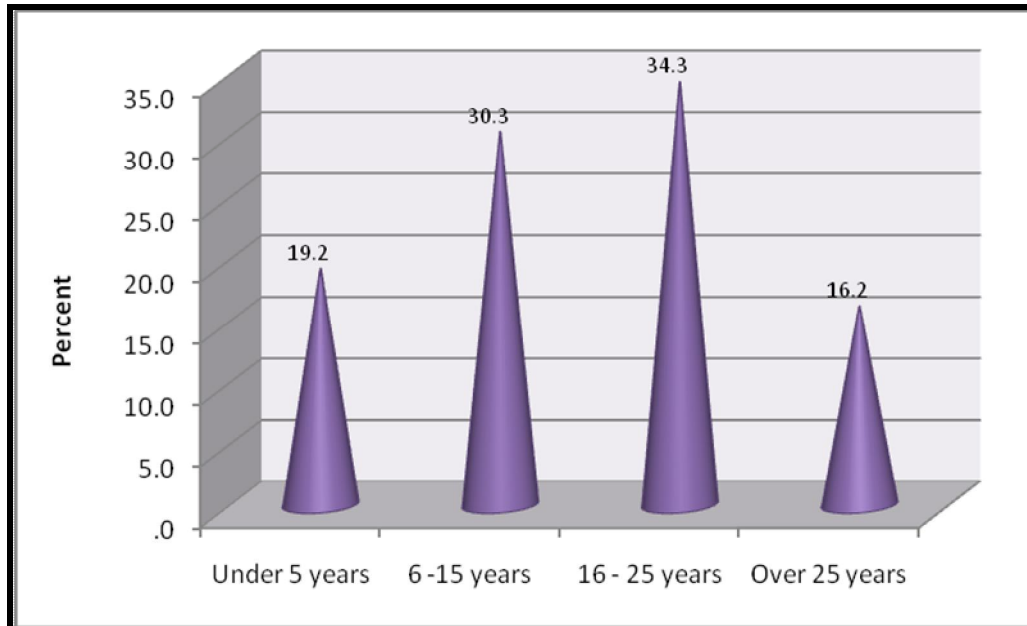


Figure 6.5 indicates that approximately half (50.5%) of the respondents had at least 16 years of teaching experience. 34.3% of the respondents have between 6-15 years of experience. This means that many of the respondents were exposed to curriculum policies pre and post 1994. They were probably exposed to and taught various curriculum policies including those designed by the erstwhile apartheid government, the sanitised Report 550 curriculum (1995) and Curriculum 2005. Since the sample group consists of fairly experienced FET History educators, the responses and comments made by them can be regarded as fairly, credible and reliable, which is reflected by the reliability scores presented earlier.

Approximately 20% of the respondents had less than five years of teaching experience while 16.2 % of the respondents had over 25 years of teaching experience in FET History. This reveals that there is an equal balance of experience between the older and newer FET History teachers in the Umlazi District.

6.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Focuses on Section B of the quantitative questionnaire (Annexure F)

6.4.1 Why is factor analysis important?

According to Gorsuch (1983: 23) the origins of factor analysis can be traced back to Pearson (1901) and Spearman (1904). The term was first introduced by Thurstone (1931). Factor analysis is a statistical technique that is used mainly for data reduction purposes. The aim is to simplify a set of complex data by representing the variables in terms of a smaller number of underlying (hypothetical or unobservable) variables, known as factors or latent variables. The other aim of factor analysis is to create indexes with variables that measure similar things [conceptually] (<http://dss.princeton.edu/training/>).

There are two types of factor analysis, namely, exploratory and confirmatory. This study used the confirmatory type, where a researcher wishes to represent a number of questions with a small number of hypothetical factors. For example, as part of a national survey on political opinions, participants may answer three separate questions regarding environmental policy, highlighting issues at the local, state and national level. Each question, by itself, would be an inadequate measure of attitude towards environmental policy, but together they may provide a better measure of the attitude. Factor analysis can be used to establish whether the three measures do, indeed, measure the same thing. If so, they can then be combined to create a new variable, a factor score variable that contains a score for each respondent on the factor. Factor techniques are applicable to a variety of situations. A researcher may want to know if the skills required to be a *decathlete* are as varied as the ten events, or if a small number of core skills are needed to be successful in a *decathlon*. The researcher need not believe that factors actually exist in order to perform a factor analysis, but in practice the factors are usually interpreted, given names, and spoken of as real things.

According to Cohen *et al* (2009: 53), factor analysis involves the grouping together of common variables. The researcher is able to identify how a common variable address different concepts and hence uses factor analysis (Steyn *et al* 1994: 7). In this case Section B, C and D of the quantitative questionnaire (Annexure F) provides an opportunity for factor analysis to be undertaken.

6.4.2 Factor Analysis Communalities

The table of communalities for each of the sections is presented below.

Table 6.4: Communalities in Section B of the questionnaire.

Public Policy	Extraction
Was there a need for the government to change the curriculum policy after 1994?	.568
Would you say there was adequate consultation before the NCS was implemented?	.509
Was your professional teachers organisation/ union consulted before the NCS was drawn up?	.685
Does the NCS adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?	.518
Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the NCS FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the NCS?	.410
In comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the NCS FET History curriculum is better.	.508
The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the NCS FET History curriculum is adequate.	.637
The NCS FET History curriculum covers ALL content areas adequately.	.615
I am optimistic about the NCS FET History curriculum.	.582

Table 6.5: Communalities in Section C of the questionnaire.

Public Policy Implementation	Extraction
The training you received regarding the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was sufficient?	.479
You implement the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum policy documents rigidly.	.397
In the planning, preparation and implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).	.709
An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes place.	.695
The implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess.	.598
So far, you have not encountered any problems in implementing the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.754
Learners are coping well with the demands of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.805
There is strong correlation between the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate.	.690
I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.469
The <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was successfully implemented at my school.	.673
If there were concerns regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum, there is adequate support from the FET History Curriculum Specialist.	.576

Table 6.6: Communalities in Section C of the questionnaire.

Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation	Extraction
There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.114
Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes place throughout the academic year.	.632
All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum at school level.	.668
The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum are implemented at school.	.663

The rotation method used is the Varimax Method with Kaiser Normalization. This is an orthogonal rotation method that minimises the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor. It simplifies the interpretation of the factors. Factor analysis or loading show inter-correlations between variables. This is evident from the communalities as reflected in Tables 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6.

The communality for a given variable can be interpreted as the amount of variation in the variable explained by the factors that constitute the variable. In this instance for example, there are four variables that make up the component for Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation (as indicated in the component matrix Table 6.7). The data is analysed similar to that for multiple regression: signage against the two common factors yields an $R^2 = 0.663$ (for the last variable on suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the NCS FET History curriculum that were implemented at school), indicating that about 66% of the variation in terms of recommendations being implemented were explained by the factor model (www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/notes2).

The argument can then be extended to the rest of the model as the communality values are within acceptable norms. However, there are variables that have low scores (less than 0.50) indicating that there was greater unexplained variability in terms of the responses.

An assessment of how well this model is doing can be obtained from the communalities. The idea is to obtain values that are close to one. This would indicate that the model explains most of the variation for those variables. In this case, the model is acceptable as it explains approximately 60% of the variation for the 24 variables. The average scores of the components are shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Average scores for the communalities as per the various sections in the questionnaire.

Section	Communalities
Public Policy	55.9%
Public Policy Implementation	62.2%
Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation	51.9%
Overall	58.1%

The above table gives the percentage of variation as explained in the model. This might be looked at as an overall assessment of the performance of the model. The individual communalities tell how well the model is working for the individual variables, and the total communality gives an overall assessment of performance.

6.4.3 Factor Analysis: rotated component matrix

Factor analysis as mentioned earlier is a statistical technique whose primary goal is data reduction. The researcher decided to use factor analysis to represent a number of questions with a small number of hypothetical factors. With reference to the Tables 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10:

- Factor analysis or loading show inter-correlations between variables.
- Items of questions that are loaded similarly imply measurement along a similar factor. An examination of the content of items loading at or above 0.5 (and using the higher or highest loading in instances where items cross-loaded at greater than this value) effectively measured along the nine components (www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/notes2).

Therefore certain sections are divided into finer components. The answers of the respondents to Sections A, B and C of the questionnaire are elaborated in Table 6.8 using the rotated component matrix.

Table 6.8: Factor analysis of Section B of the questionnaire.

Public Policy	Component	
	1	2
Was there a need for the government to change the curriculum policy after 1994?	.741	.135
Would you say there was adequate consultation before the NCS was implemented?	.120	.703
Was your professional teachers organisation/ union consulted before the NCS was drawn up?	.064	.825
Does the NCS adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?	.627	.352
Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the NCS FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the NCS?	.461	.445
In comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the NCS FET History curriculum is better.	.613	.363
The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the NCS FET History curriculum is adequate.	.798	.018
The NCS FET History curriculum covers ALL content areas adequately.	.514	.592
I am optimistic about the NCS FET History curriculum.	.364	.670

Table 6.8 indicates that the variables that constituted the components are loaded against two factors. The questions in the overlapping components did not specifically measure what it intended to measure. This means that respondents did not view the questions in the same light or possibly did not understand the question that was posed.

After examining Section B of the questionnaire on Public Policy, questions 1.2 and 1.3 expected respondents to focus on whether there was adequate consultation in general and whether there was consultation with the professional teachers organisations/unions. It appears that the use of the term *consultation* interchangeably in both questions, confused respondents, resulting in a mixing of factors and responses. It can be deduced that respondents did not understand the gist of the question posed.

Table 6.9: Factor analysis of Section C of the questionnaire.

Public Policy Implementation	Component		
	1	2	3
The training you received regarding the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was sufficient?	.447	.504	.158
You implement the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum policy documents rigidly.	.098	.584	.216
In the planning, preparation and implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).	.164	.802	.197
An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes place.	.136	.807	-.157
The implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess.	.129	-.128	-.752
So far, you have not encountered any problems in implementing the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.825	.220	-.157
Learners are coping well with the demands of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.894	.034	.070
There is strong correlation between the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate.	.734	.258	.290
I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	.122	.621	.262
The <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was successfully implemented at my school.	.524	.321	.543
If there were concerns regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum, there is adequate support from the <i>FET History Curriculum Specialist</i> .	.419	.146	.616

The above table indicates an overlapping of and mixing of factors. This means that the questions in the overlapping components did not specifically measure what it set out to measure or that the component split along themes. One possibility is that respondents did not clearly distinguish between the questions constituting the components. This could be that respondents lacked the requisite interpretative skills or were unable to distinguish what the questions were measuring.

Section C of the questionnaire on Public Policy Implementation revealed that the variables that constituted the components did not load perfectly to one factor. This aspect of the questionnaire yielded three component responses. An examination of questions 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 highlights the words *NCS FET History curriculum*, which appears in all of these questions. It suggests that respondents could not discern what these questions were actually measuring or did not understand the question; hence a mixing of responses occurred.

Table 6.10: Factor analysis of Section D of the questionnaire.

Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation	Component
	1
There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History curriculum</i> .	.337
Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History curriculum</i> takes place throughout the academic year.	.795
All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History curriculum</i> at school level.	.817
The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the <i>NCS FET History curriculum</i> are implemented at school.	.814

Table 6.10 reveals that the variables that constituted the components loaded perfectly along one factor. This means that the questions (variables) that constituted these components, perfectly measured the component. That is, the component measured what it was intended to be measured.

6.5 SECTION ANALYSIS

Focuses on Section B, C and D of the quantitative questionnaire (Annexure F).

This aspect analyses each section of the questionnaire that was given to respondents. The subsequent tables and figures indicate the mean scores, that is the average scores (and percentages) for each of the questions within the respective sections in the questionnaire. The mean scores are independent of all other variables. This aspect will be discussed chronologically in Section B.

6.5.1 Section B: Questions related to Public Policy

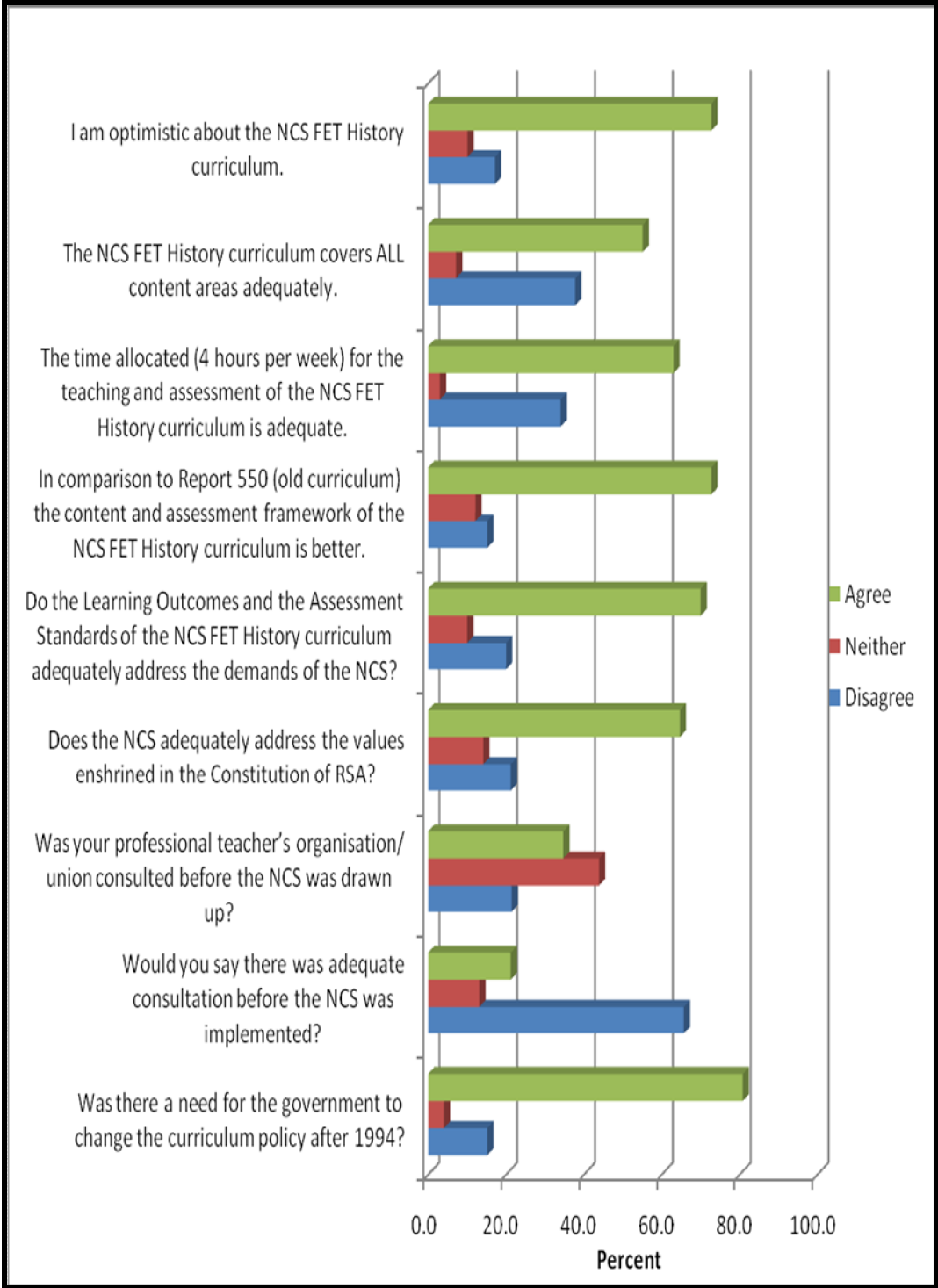
The tables and graphs below indicate the frequency and average score responses of the statements that constituted this component. Respondents in this section of the questionnaire indicated their choice on the Lickert Scale on questions related to Public Policy.

Table 6.11: Section analysis of Section B of the questionnaire.

QUESTIONS	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Mean
Was there a need for the government to change the curriculum policy after 1994?	15.2	4.0	80.8	4.16
Would you say there was adequate consultation before the <i>NCS</i> was implemented?	65.7	13.1	21.2	2.34
Was your professional teachers organisation/ union consulted before the <i>NCS</i> was drawn up?	21.4	43.9	34.7	3.15
Does the <i>NCS</i> adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?	21.2	14.1	64.6	3.60
Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the <i>NCS</i> ?	20.0	10.0	70.0	3.73
In comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum is better.	15.2	12.1	72.7	3.83
The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum is adequate.	34.0	3.0	63.0	3.36
The <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum covers ALL content areas adequately.	37.8	7.1	55.1	3.24
I am optimistic about the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum.	17.2	10.1	72.7	3.73

The information in Table 6.11 above is depicted graphically in Figure 6.6 below.

Figure 6.6: Graphical representation of responses to Section B of the questionnaire.



All of the statements except for the second and third, indicate a reasonably high level of agreement. Refer to Table 6.11 and Figure 6.6.

In Section B of the questionnaire, the second and third questions focus on whether there was adequate consultation before the *NCS* was drawn up. It is evident from the respondents that there was a lack of consultation among the various stakeholders regarding the transformation of South Africa's national curriculum. This is borne out by the fact that 65.7% of the respondents indicated that there was no consultation or discussion at the grass roots level regarding the *NCS*. Since most respondents were not consulted about the new curriculum there is bound to be a sense of non-compliance with the implementation of *NCS* policy. This could have long-term negative implications for curriculum transformation especially when respondents are required to implement a curriculum, which they were not involved in developing. It is evident that respondents are keen on being consulted and being involved in the curriculum development process from its inception until the implementation phase. This open and transparent process will augur well for curriculum policy development and implementation.

On the other hand many respondents were positive about the *NCS*. Over 80% of the respondents agreed that the government had to change the national curriculum after 1994. It demonstrates a willingness and readiness amongst educators to embrace changes initiated in the new curriculum. The positive attitude of respondents is corroborated by the almost 73% stating that the content and assessment aspects of the *NCS* were better than the old apartheid curriculum. This is also reinforced by 73% of respondents indicating that they were optimistic about the *NCS* FET History curriculum. Furthermore, 70% of the respondents noted that the FET History curriculum addresses the demands of the *NCS*. Almost 65% of the respondents were convinced that the *NCS* adequately addresses the values as enshrined in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996).

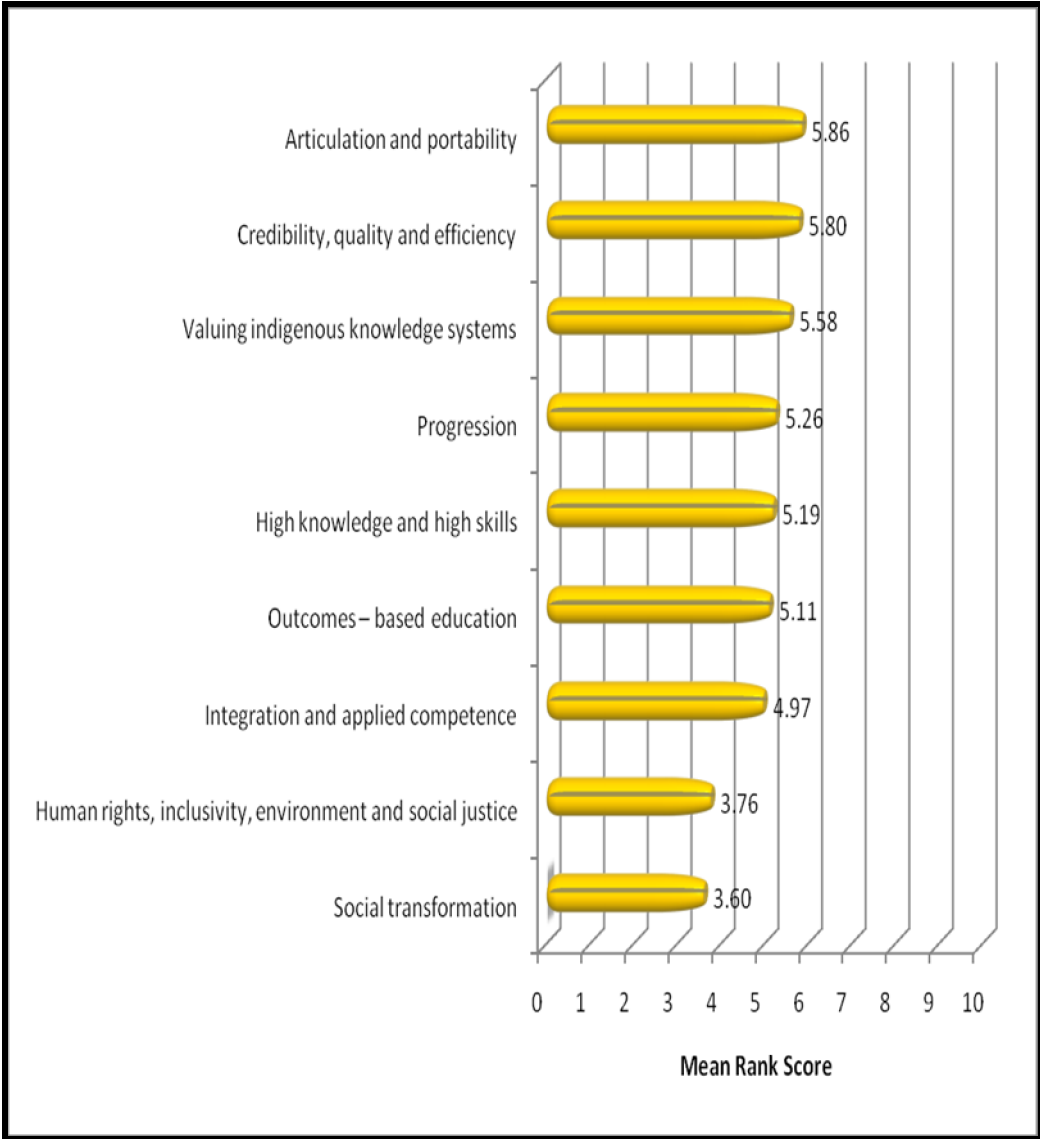
The implications of these responses would have had positive spin-offs for the implementation of the *NCS*. For as long as educators are supportive of the *NCS* then the teaching and learning of the new curriculum becomes a success

and over the long term will have a positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning and ultimately result in improved National Senior Certificate (NSC) results.

6.5.1.1 Key principles and values in the National Curriculum

Respondents in this section have indicated their preference in rank order as to which principles and values of the national curriculum they consider would be achievable. Figure 6.7 points out the mean rank scores for each of them.

Figure 6.7: Representation of question 1.5 from Section B of the questionnaire.



It is evident from Figure 6.7 that there are two groupings of average ranks. The similar highest ranks are for social transformation and human rights issues. Respondents may have grouped these principles because they fall into a similar category. Social transformation forms an important part of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996), endeavouring to ensure that educational imbalances imposed by the apartheid government were redressed. It also makes an effort at ensuring that equal educational opportunities are provided for all South Africans. This is made abundantly clear in Section 29 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996), which states:

- (1) Everyone has the right -
 - (a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and
 - (b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.

It is apparent that the *NCS* for FET History is infused with the principles of human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice as outlined in Chapter 2 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996). Since both of the above-mentioned principles emanate from the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996), respondents may have seen this connection and therefore ranked them identically.

The remaining variables have a less than one score rank between the highest and the lowest, implying that the respondents have scored these fairly closely (together).

The rest of the principles (Outcomes-based education, high knowledge and high skills, integration and applied competence, progression, articulation and portability, valuing indigenous knowledge systems and credibility, quality and efficiency) were ranked almost similarly because they are related to the core features of curriculum.

6.5.2 Section C: Questions related to Public Policy Implementation

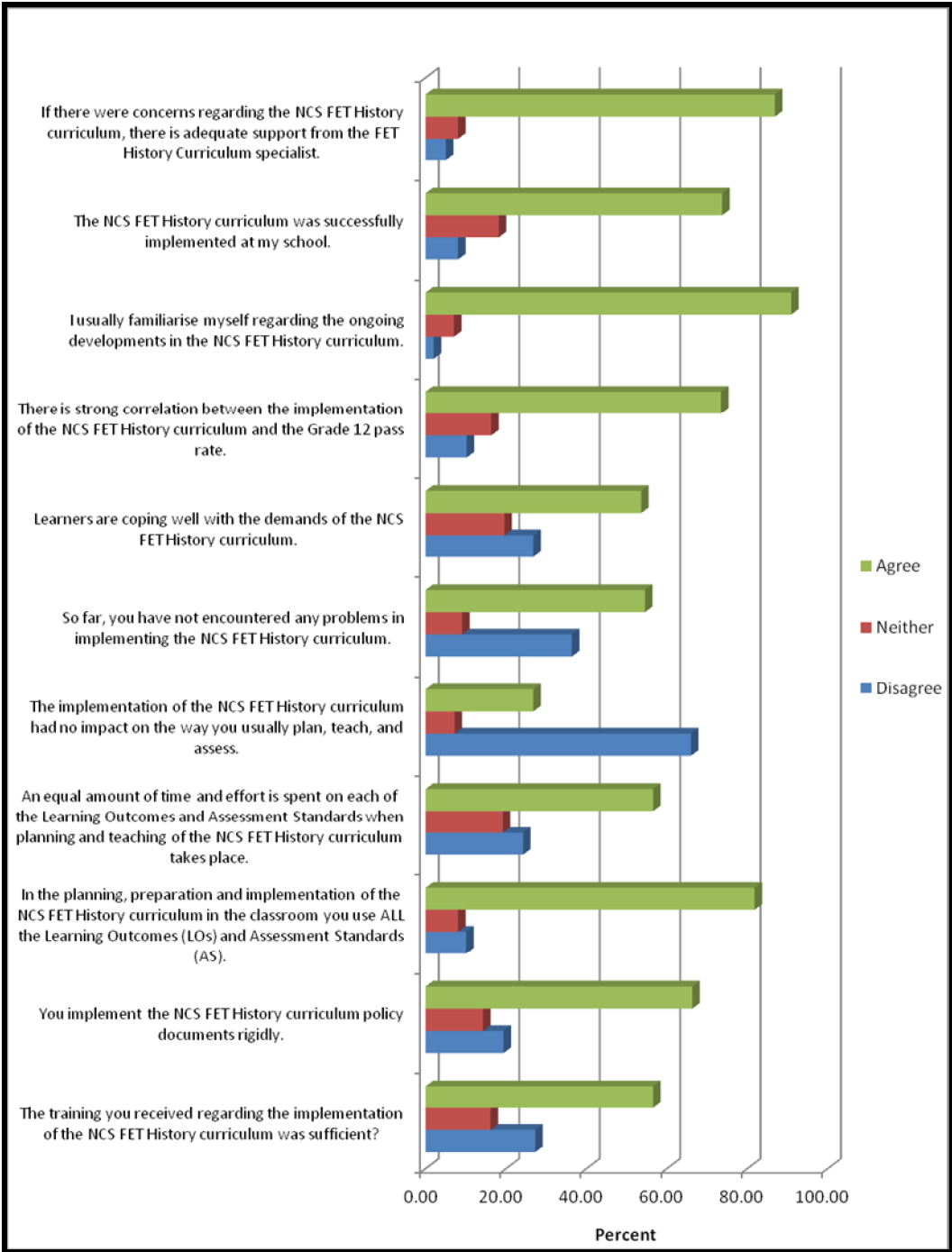
Table 6.12 and Graph 6.8 indicate the frequency and average score of responses to the statements that constituted this component. Respondents in this section of the questionnaire indicated their choice on the Lickert Scale on questions related to Public Policy Implementation.

Table 6.12: Section analysis of Section C of the questionnaire.

QUESTIONS	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Mean
The training you received regarding the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was sufficient.	27.27	16.16	56.57	3.47
You implement the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum policy documents rigidly.	19.39	14.29	66.33	3.63
In the planning, preparation and implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).	10.10	8.08	81.82	4.01
An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes place.	24.24	19.19	56.57	3.47
The implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess.	65.98	7.22	26.80	2.42
So far, you have not encountered any problems in implementing the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	36.36	9.09	54.55	3.25
Learners are coping well with the demands of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	26.80	19.59	53.61	3.36
There is strong correlation between the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate.	10.20	16.33	73.47	3.85
I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	2.02	7.07	90.91	4.33
The <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was successfully implemented at my school.	8.08	18.18	73.74	4.01
If there were concerns regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum, there is adequate support from the FET History Curriculum Specialist.	5.05	8.08	86.87	4.43

From Table 6.12 it is noticeable that the mean scores indicate a pattern of agreement (close to or more than 4) or disagreement (close to or less than 2). Some statements averaged around 3, indicating that there were as many respondents who agreed with the statements, as there was that disagreed. These can be verified by the frequency distribution of the scoring patterns.

Figure 6.8: Graphical representation of Section C of the questionnaire.



From Figure 6.8 it is evident that there are on average 60% to more than 80% levels of agreement with the statements in this category. This means that respondents were generally positive about the implementation of the NCS. The mean average score for Question 2.3 (*In the planning, preparation and implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum in the classroom you use all the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards*) in Section C of the questionnaire (refer to Annexure F) was 4.01. This score suggests that respondents were indeed using the design features of the NCS (Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards) during the teaching and learning process of FET History. It can also be inferred that respondents focused specifically on teaching of the design features of the NCS rather than the content of the FET History curriculum.

The mean average score for Question 2.9 (*I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the NCS FET History curriculum*) was 4.33. This indicates that most of the respondents were committed to the implementation of the NCS, as they showed a keen interest in reading and familiarising themselves with the developments and demands of the new curriculum.

Question 2.10 (*The NCS FET History curriculum was successfully implemented at my school*) had a mean average score of 4.01. Generally, respondents were in agreement that there was success in the way the NCS was implemented at their schools. This also illustrates that most of the respondents were prepared to make the new curriculum a success despite the challenges that confronted them.

The overwhelming number of respondents (mean average score 4.43) gave a positive response to question 2.11 (*If there were concerns regarding the NCS FET History curriculum, there is adequate support from the FET History Curriculum Specialist*). This mean average score suggests that the FET History Curriculum Specialist played a pivotal and significant role in supporting educators with curriculum development in the Umlazi District. This also reveals a strong partnership between the FET History educators and the Curriculum Specialist regarding the implementation of the NCS. This will augur well for the

development of FET History as a subject and will also instil confidence in educators to implement the *NCS* effectively with their learners.

The means scores of more than 4 show that there is a pattern of agreement amongst respondents. In fact, there is a correlation between the adequate support provided by the Curriculum Specialist and commitment by respondents to ensure that the implementation of the *NCS* FET History curriculum was a success.

In contrast, respondents indicated a substantial disagreement with two questions. These included Question 2.5, '*The implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess*' which revealed that respondents experienced challenges when they had to plan, teach and assess the *NCS* FET History curriculum. In addition, respondents indicated their concern about this aspect of the *NCS* because the subject statement was rather prescriptive and expected complete compliance with the policy documents. In this regard, the subject policy document prescribed that FET History educators have a portfolio containing, amongst others, a work schedule, lesson plans and assessment requirements (test, memoranda, diagnostic analysis, record of learners marks and remedial activities). This is a mandatory requirement and educators are obliged to comply.

The second question that respondents showed a level of disagreement was Question 2.6 '*So far you have not encountered any problems in implementing the NCS FET History curriculum.*' This reveals that respondents did experience challenges while implementing the *NCS* FET History curriculum. This was largely due to educators initially receiving only four days of training on the *NCS*. They were subsequently expected to implement the new curriculum. Arguably, there was insufficient training and support of FET History educators by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education's FET Curriculum Unit regarding the implementation of the *NCS*.

6.5.3 Section D: Questions related to Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation

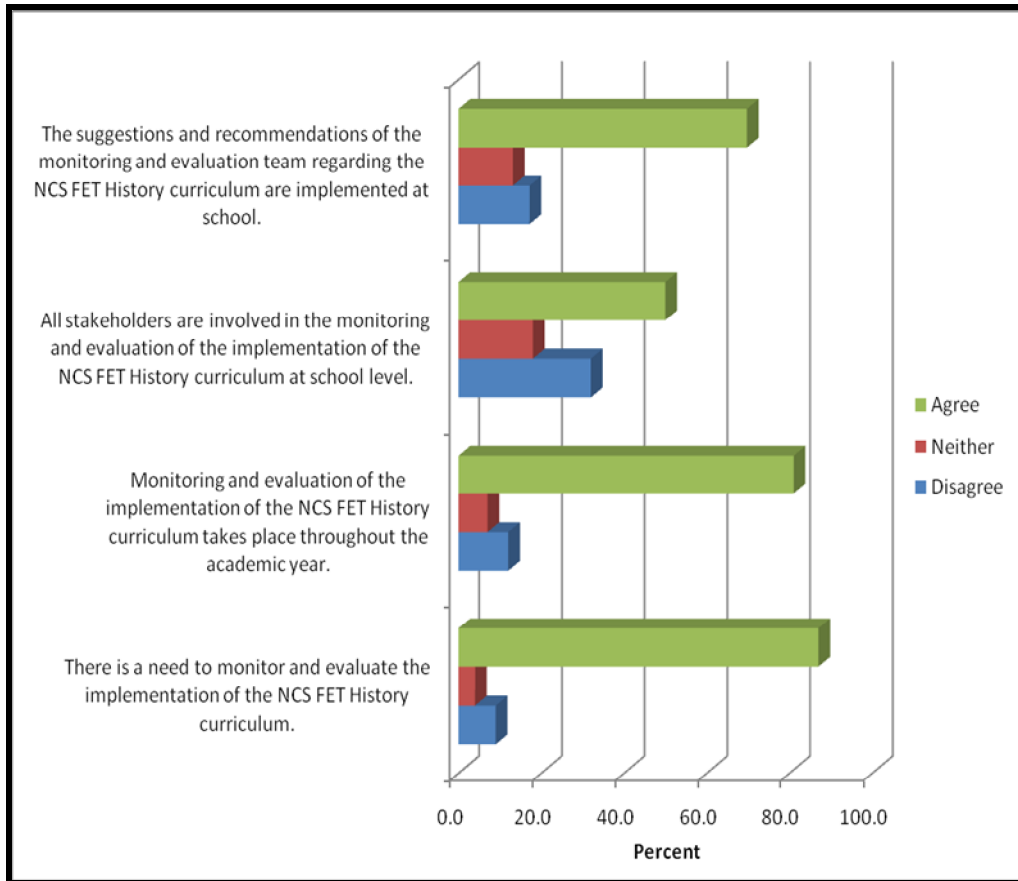
Table 6.13 and Figure 6.9 and 6.10 reveal the frequency and average score of responses to the statements that constituted this component. Respondents to this section of the questionnaire indicated their choice on the Lickert Scale on questions related to Public Policy Monitoring and Evaluation.

Table 6.13: Section analysis of Section D of the questionnaire.

QUESTIONS	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Mean
There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	9.0	4.0	87.0	4.22
Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes place throughout the academic year.	12.0	7.0	81.0	4.02
All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum at school level.	32.0	18.0	50.0	3.29
The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum are implemented at school.	17.2	13.1	69.7	3.71

It is evident from the above table that the mean average score (4.0) suggests a general pattern of agreement among respondents. The information from Table 6.13 is deconstructed in the following graph.

Figure 6.9: Graphical representation of Section D of the questionnaire.



From Figure 6.9 it is evident that there are generally levels of agreement with the statements posed in this category. All of the other statements have average values close to agreement (4.0).

Question 3.3 in the questionnaire, ‘*All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum at school level*’ had a mean average score of 3.29. This average score indicates a degree of neutrality, that is, there were as many respondents who agreed with the statement, as there were those who disagreed.

This finding indicates that at school level, some of respondents experienced first-hand that the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the *NCS* was taking place effectively. Whilst other respondents may have discerned that the *NCS* was not being monitored and evaluated by their immediate supervisors. This may be attributed to weak and ineffective school

management, which leads to the non-delivery of the *NCS* that eventually contributes to the high failure rate and the dysfunctionality of the system of education. Another factor for this malaise could be the lack of monitoring tools to evaluate curriculum delivery among educators within schools. Owing to this, educators simply do not comply with the policies related to the implementation of the *NCS*.

Figure 6.10: Graphical representation of respondents views to Section D of the questionnaire.

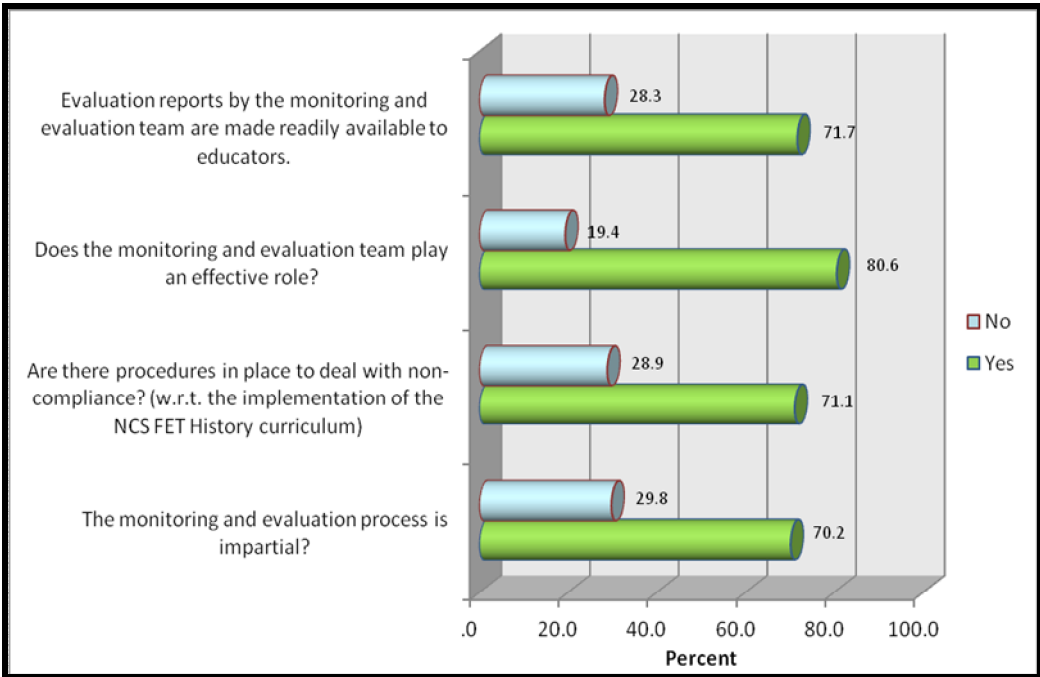


Figure 6.10 shows fairly high levels of agreement among respondents with each of the items posed. Almost 72% of the respondents indicated they have access to reports by monitors and evaluators. This shows that their monitoring teams had access to pre-designed monitoring and evaluation tools, which were used to ascertain the efficacy of the implementation of the *NCS*. It also suggests that the process was transparent and that appropriate feedback was given to respondents. This shows a willingness among respondents to first, receive a critical report and second, it demonstrates a desire to improve on the identified weakness and share their good practice as well.

This observation is corroborated by over 80% of the respondents stating that the monitoring and evaluation plays an effective role in executing their job.

This also reveals that respondents have observed and supported the work undertaken by the monitoring and evaluation team and hence are willing to implement suggestions and recommendations in order to enhance the teaching and learning process of FET History.

Almost two thirds (71%) of the respondents are in agreement that there are procedures in place to deal with non-compliance regarding the implementation of the FET History curriculum. This indicates that respondents are aware that compliance, with *NCS* policy is of paramount importance and if there is non-compliance then appropriate corrective steps are taken to rectify the situation. Since respondents are aware of the consequences on non-compliance every effort is made to comply with the implementation requirements of the FET History curriculum.

More than 70% of the respondents agreed that the monitoring and evaluation process is impartial. The main objective of the process is to ensure that respondents are purposefully involved in implementation of the FET History curriculum. It is noteworthy that respondents are mindful that the process is not punitive in nature but rather serves to enhance and streamline the implementation of the *NCS*. Monitoring and evaluation is not undertaken to undermine the professional integrity of respondents but rather serves to provide a supportive and developmental role. A small percentage (19,4%) of respondents indicated that the monitoring and evaluation process is not impartial. One can surmise that this small minority of respondents may have not complied with the *NCS* policy and therefore indicated their dissatisfaction about the process.

6.5.4 Section E: Open ended questions regarding NCS Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation

The following aspect focuses on respondents' comments on the open-ended questions. Each of the items posed to respondents in the questionnaire is captured separately in the table below. Responses were open-ended and the tabulation of information is based on that.

Questionnaire: Section E (Refer to Annexure F)

Question 4.1

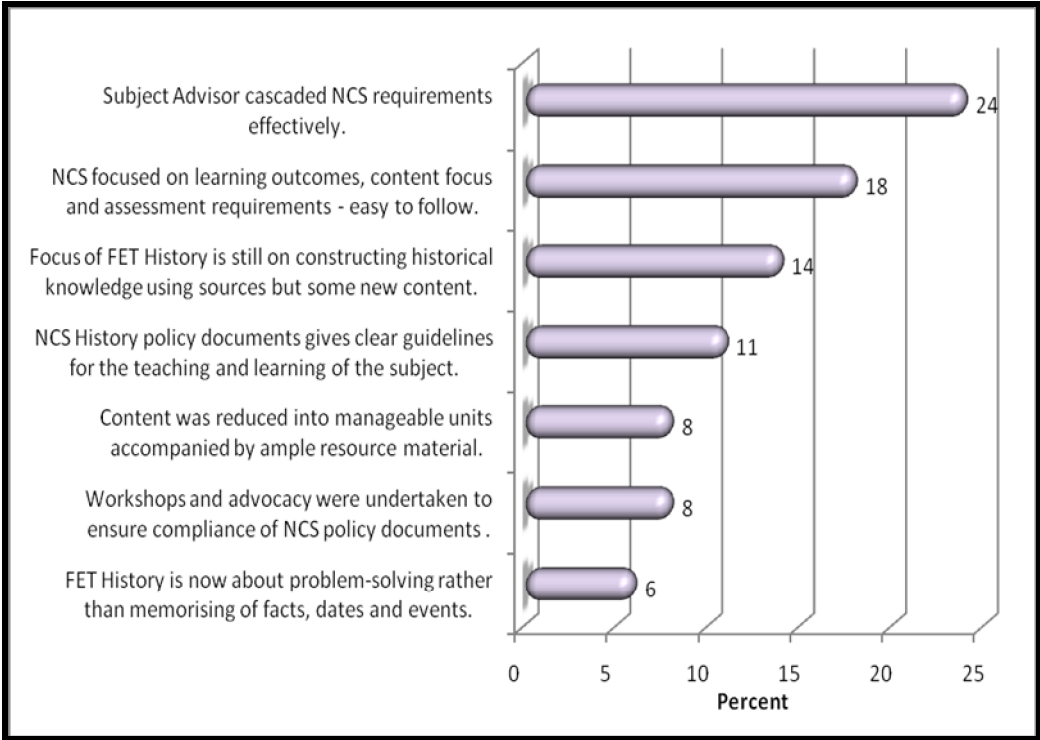
Do you understand the changes that occurred in FET History curriculum? Explain your answer.

Table 6.14: Frequency and cumulative percentages to Question 4.1

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	89	89.0	96.7	96.7
	Yes and No	3	3.0	3.3	100.0
	Total	92	92.0	100.0	
Missing	System	8	8.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Almost all of the respondents (96.7%) indicated that they understood the changes in the FET History curriculum. The explanations to their responses are given in Figure 6.11.

Figure 6.11: Respondents explanations to Question 4.1 in Section E of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).



It is evident from Figure 6.11 above, that 24% of the respondents indicated that the Curriculum Specialist played a significant role in cascading the requirements of the *NCS*. This demonstrates that respondents were workshopped on the necessary *NCS* policy documents for timeous implementation in the classroom.

In total, 18% of the respondents stated that the FET History curriculum now focuses on learning outcomes, content focus and assessment requirements. This shows that respondents had to adapt their teaching methodology as prescribed by the requirements of the FET History subject policy.

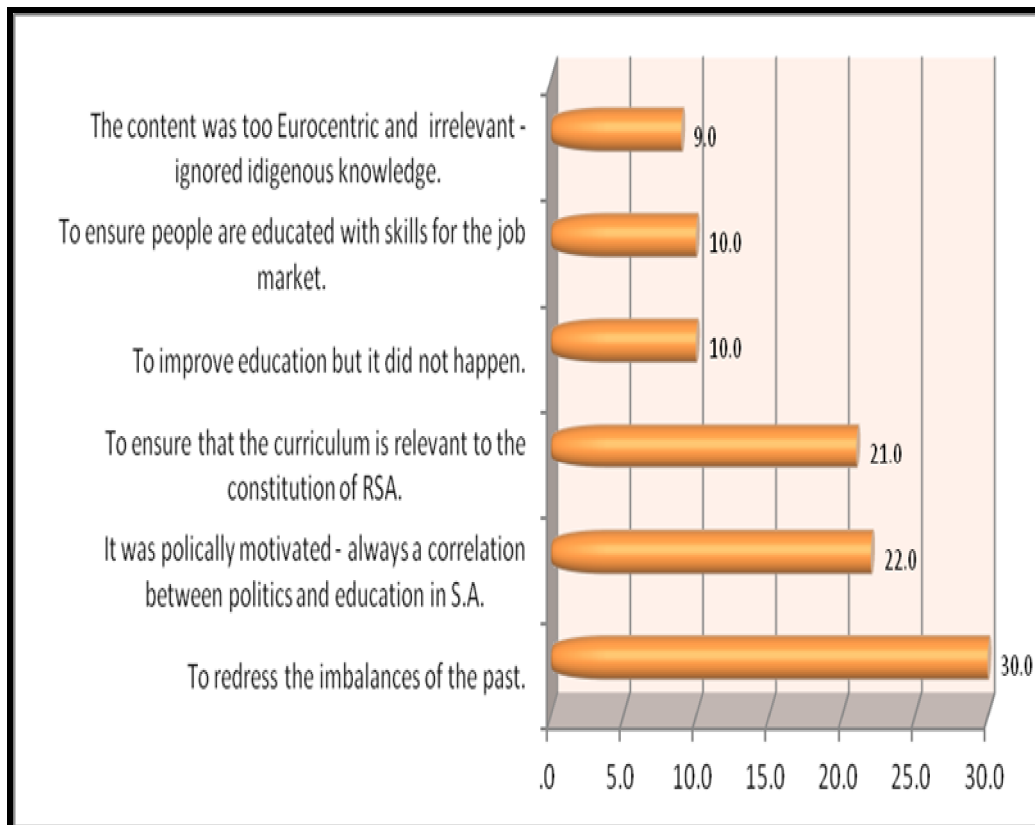
Only 14% of the respondents indicated that the FET History curriculum has some new content but the approach of working with sources to construct historical knowledge remains largely the same. While 11% of respondents suggested that the *NCS* FET History policy documents outline clearly what needs to be done during teaching and learning process.

In total, 8% of the respondents revealed that the prescribed content was reduced into manageable units accompanied by ample resource material, while another 8% of the respondents suggested that workshops and advocacy campaigns were undertaken to ensure compliance with the *NCS* and another 6% of the respondents noted that the *NCS* adopted a problem-solving approach rather than memorisation of facts, dates and events.

Question 4.2

Explain what you think was the purpose for curriculum changes in South Africa after 1994.

Figure 6.12: Explanations to Question 4.2 in Section E of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).



In total, 30% of the respondents stated that curriculum changes had to take place after 1994 in order to redress the imbalances of the past. Pampallis (1991: 184) supports the notion of redress because South Africa's curriculum

policies, before 1994, in particular for Black South Africans, were oppressive and discriminatory. Therefore, in the light of this inequitable system, a significant change in curriculum policy development became inevitable for the democratic government after 1994. The new curriculum policy was a radical shift from Christian National Education as espoused by the apartheid government, to a one that was based on the principles of human rights, democracy, and liberty.

In total, 22% of the respondents indicated that curriculum changes that occurred after 1994 were politically motivated. The democratically elected government, which was dominated by elected officials from the African National Congress (ANC), ensured that the system of education was revamped. The ANC wanted an immediate discontinuation of the apartheid system of education, which was to be replaced with an education policy that was new, different, relevant, unbiased and could meet the challenges of the twenty-first century. Former Minister of Education, Kader Asmal noted that the NCS would ensure that learners acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes the idea of grounding knowledge in local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives (DoE-NCS, 2003a: viii).

More than 20% of respondents stated that curriculum change had to take place after 1994 because South Africa had a new constitution and the new education policy should be aligned to it. The constitution focuses on human rights issues and other democratic principles and the education policy should reflect this in some detail.

As shown in Figure 6.12, in total 10% of the respondents indicated that the purpose of the curriculum changes in South Africa after 1994 was to instill the requisite values in learners. It was envisaged that the NCS would produce learners that would be imbued with values that are enshrined in the constitution such as social justice, democracy, equality and human dignity.

These sentiments were resonated in *The Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy*, which affirmed the following about values in education:

Values and morality give meaning to our individual and social relationships. They are the common currencies that help make life meaningful than might otherwise have been. An education system does not exist to simply serve a market, important as that may be for economic growth and material prosperity. Its primary purpose must be to enrich the individual and, by extension, the broader society (DoE, 2001: 9-10).

Another 10% of the respondents noted that it was an attempt to educate people with skills for the job market. This was attributed to the legacy of apartheid education, which sought to engineer Black South Africans in receiving inferior education that suited the demand for the unskilled labour market. According to Levy (in Unterhalter *et al*: 1991: 32) the dearth of African students beyond primary school level is one of the most debilitating effects of Bantu Education on generations of students (refer to Chapter 2). It is against this background that respondents indicated that curriculum change should focus on skills development so that access to decent jobs becomes readily available among the previously marginalised Black South Africans.

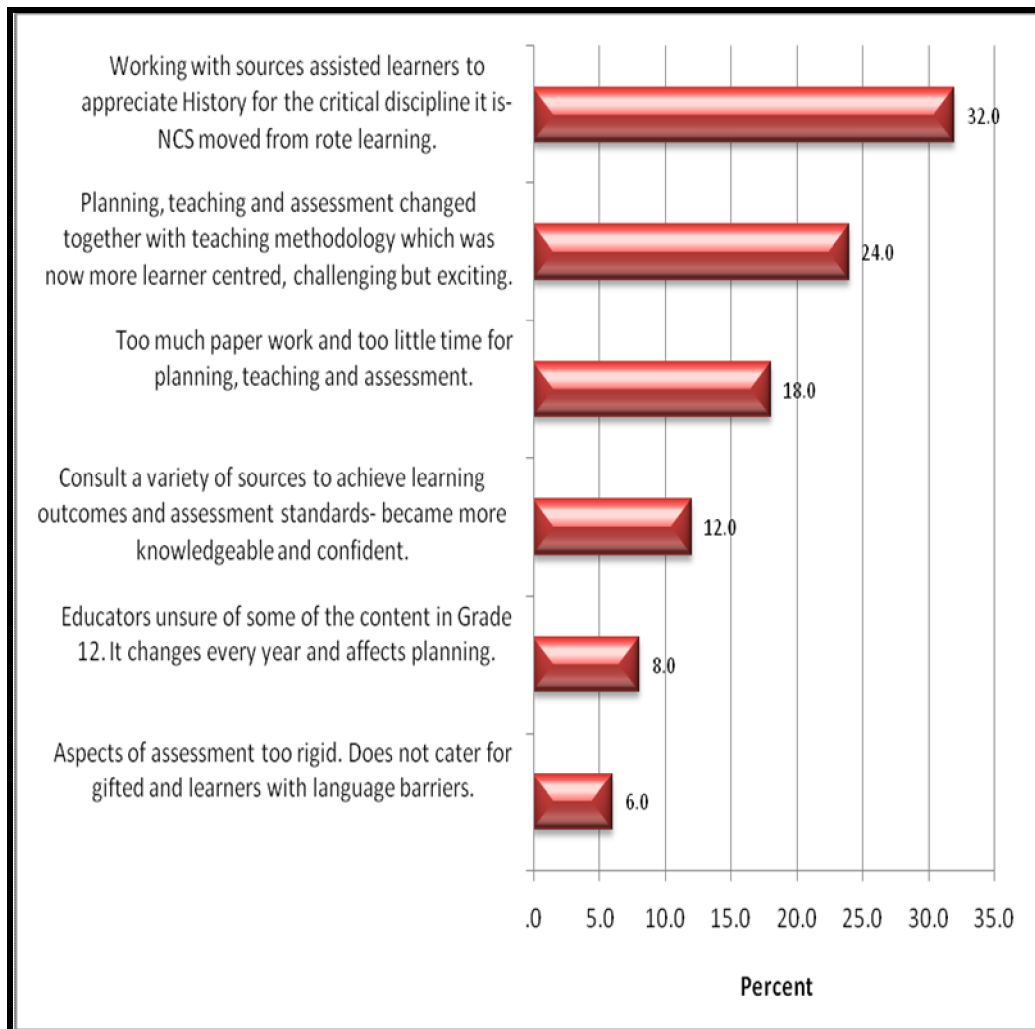
A mere 9% of the respondents indicated the History content in the FET phase was irrelevant and too Eurocentric and ignored indigenous knowledge and therefore supported the changes to South Africa's curriculum. This is a contentious observation by respondents. The content coverage in the NCS FET History was to a large extent different and more relevant than the old prescribed *A Resume of Instructional Programmes in Schools, Report 550 (2001/08)*' curriculum. Ideally, the FET History curriculum should have also incorporated themes that were relevant to the South African, African and global context. This would have allowed learners to interact with a diverse body of historical knowledge and in the process acquire the necessary historical skills that are to a large extent in keeping with the spirit of South Africa's constitution.

Question 4.3

How have the changes to the FET History curriculum impacted on your classroom planning, teaching and assessment?

The responses to Question 4.3 of the questionnaire are represented graphically in Figure 6.13 below.

Figure 6.13: Graphical representation of responses to Question 4.3 of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).



The six statements depicted in the Figure 6.13, indicate the most commonly observed percentage frequency on whether the changes to the FET History curriculum impacted on teachers' classroom planning, teaching and assessment. The four with the highest percentage frequencies are discussed below.

In total, 32,0% of the respondents agreed that changes to the FET History curriculum impacted on their planning, teaching and assessment. They noted that the NCS encouraged '*working with sources assisted learners to appreciate History for the critical discipline it is.*' This demonstrates that History is no longer about the regurgitation of facts but is based on critical skills.

The NCS History Subject Policy defines History as the study:

Of change and development in society over time and space. It draws on archaeology and oral history to interrogate the past. The study of History enables us to understand and evaluate how past human action impacts on the present and influences the future. History promotes non-discrimination, raises debates, confronts issues and builds capacity in individuals to address current social and environmental concerns... A rigorous process of historical enquiry encourages and assists constructive debate through careful evaluation of a broad range of evidence and diverse points of view... (DoE, 2003b: 9).

Only 24% of the respondents to Question 4.3 stated that '*planning, teaching and assessment changed together with teaching methodology which was now more learner centred, challenging and exciting*'. This shows that FET History educators had to change the way they planned, taught and assessed their work. This ultimately ensured a more learner centred approach to teaching and learning which respondents noted was more challenging but exciting. Many educators used the latest technology to undertake extensive research on the new content, to plan as well as consistently monitor and evaluate the implementation of the FET History curriculum. Other educators liaised and

networked with neighbouring schools by establishing a cluster to assist with the FET History curriculum and assessment related matters. These cluster of schools ensured effective networking amongst educators and encouraged the sharing of resources, information, teaching methods, and knowledge on how to effectively implement the FET History curriculum.

A total of 18% of the respondents indicated that the FET History curriculum involved too much paper work and too little time for planning, teaching and assessing. This shows that during the first year (2006) of implementation of the NCS, educators had to start their planning, preparation and assessment afresh. Therefore, educators became accountable for what they taught and how they assessed learner work. This aspect of the NCS became mandatory and formed an integral part of the Continuous Assessment (CASS) requirements. In this regard, educators and learner portfolios had to be produced for moderation purposes at school, cluster and district level. Owing to the rigour of the process, some of the respondents noted that the FET History curriculum involved too much of paper work.

A small percentage (12%) of the respondents indicated that the changes to the FET History curriculum helped them to *'consult a variety of sources to achieve learning outcomes and assessment standards, became more knowledgeable and confident'*. In essence this reveals that FET History educators had to be well prepared before they taught a lesson. The emphasis now, was the ability of the educator to research information from a number of sources, hence enhancing their research skills leading to more knowledgeable and confident History educators. This has a cumulative impact on the quality of education that a FET History learner receives, as outlined in the NCS policy document of the Department of Education. It states that the kind of learner envisaged is:

One who will be imbued with the values and acts in the interests of a society based on respect for democracy, equality, human dignity and social justice as promoted in the constitution... In addition, learners emerging from the Further Education and Training band must:

- *Have access to, and succeed in, lifelong education and training of good quality;*
- *Demonstrate an ability to think logically and analytically, as well as holistically and laterally; and*
- *Be able to transfer skills from familiar to unfamiliar situations (DoE, 2003a: 17).*

Question 4.4

Do you think the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was a success or a failure?

Table 6.15: Frequency and cumulative percentages of the success and failure of the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Responses	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Success	71	71.0	71.0	71.0
Failure	9	9.0	9.0	80.0
Both	9	9.0	9.0	89.0
Not very successful	4	4.0	4.0	93.0
Initially challenging	5	5.0	5.0	98.0
Difficult to say	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

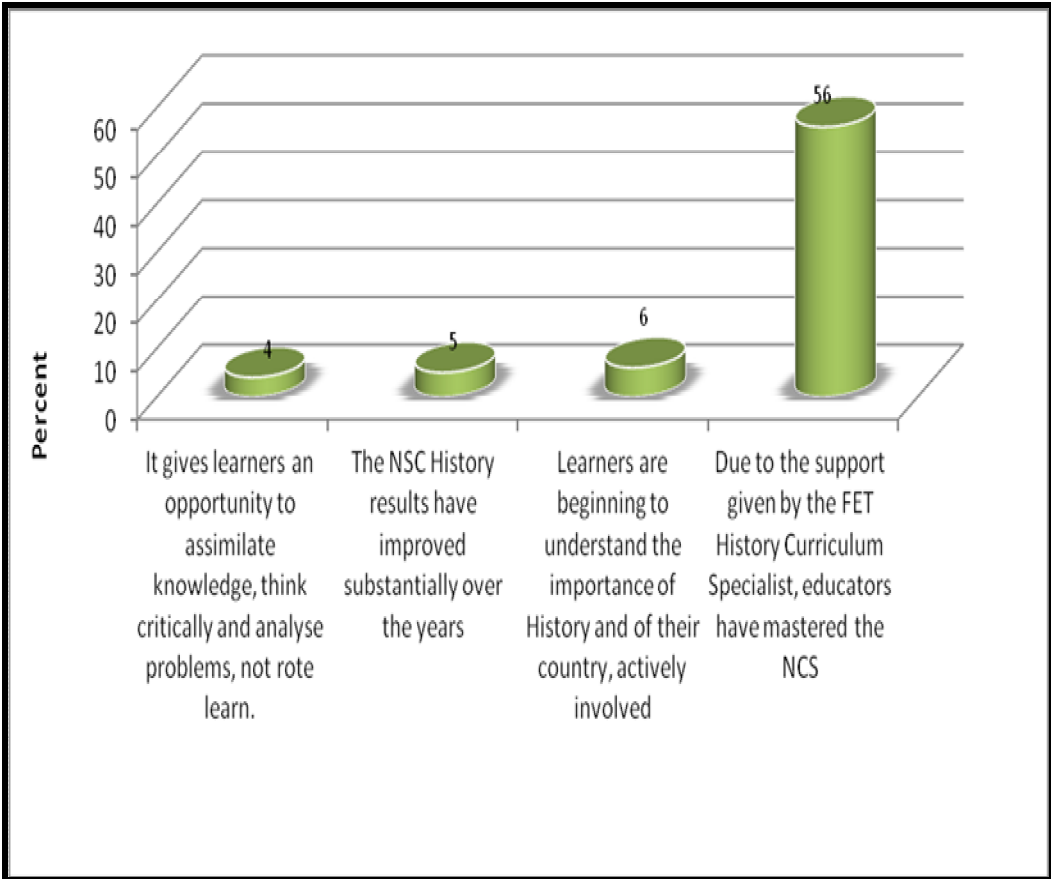
Nearly three-quarters (71%) of the respondents believed that the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was successful. This percentage correlates very closely with the question posed in Section C of the questionnaire, which enquires whether *'the NCS FET History curriculum was successfully implemented at my school'*. In this regard almost 74 % of the respondents agreed with the question posed. This shows that respondents from the Umlazi District were consistent with their responses regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum. It is also evident that these respondents were engaging positively with the curriculum and were implementing it to the best of their ability. However, a very small percent (9%) of the respondents indicated that curriculum implementation was a failure. This

could be correlated to two factors. First, almost 8% of schools failed Grade 12 History in the 2010 National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations (KwaZulu-Natal DoE, 2010: 31). Second, almost 20% of the respondents stated in Section B of the questionnaire that their professional teachers' organisation/union were not consulted before the NCS was drawn up. This may have resulted in respondents indicating their reluctance to implement the NCS FET History curriculum and hence stated it was a failure.

Figure 6.14, below indicates some of the other reasons that respondents put forward regarding the success or failure of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Question: Do you think the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was a success or a failure?

Figure 6.14: Graphical representation of the three highest frequencies.



It is evident from Figure 6.14, that a large frequency (56%) pointed out that *'Due to the Curriculum Specialists support, educators have mastered the NCS'*. This is the case because FET History educators have been workshopped on an ongoing basis and have received the necessary resource materials, policy documents and have been mentored on how to effectively use them in the teaching and learning of History. Generally, there are three full-days of content and assessment workshops during a given academic year. In addition, the curriculum specialist undertakes meaningful school visits to support and guide History FET educators.

Altogether 6% of the respondents noted that *'learners are beginning to understand the importance of History in general and the History of South Africa'*. This reveals that the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was successful in conscientising learners about the importance of History and the History of South Africa. This also shows that the new curriculum was relevant to the South African context and has made a meaningful contribution to both educators and learners understanding the value of studying History. The importance and value of History is reinforced and highlighted in the NCS History Subject Statement which states:

History is a field of study, which encompasses the totality of human experience. It is a distinctive and well-established discipline with its own methods, discourses and production of historical knowledge... Until recently, the Western world really only valued logical, mathematical and verbal linguistic abilities and rated people as 'intelligent' only if they were skilled in these ways of knowing. This dictated the way history was written and interpreted. Now people recognise that there is a wide diversity of knowledge systems through which people make meaning of the world in which they live (DoE, 2003b: 10).

Only 5% of the respondents believed that the NCS FET History curriculum was a success because *'The NSC History results have improved substantially over the years.'* This is an accurate assessment of the NSC History results in

the Umlazi District since there was a steady increase from 82% in the 2008 to 92% in the 2010 NSC examinations. The high percentage pass rate obtained by learners studying History in the Umlazi District is indicative that teachers had a thorough understanding of the curriculum and assessment requirements of the NCS. This also reveals the commitment of respondents to the teaching and learning of FET History at their respective schools.

In total, 4% of the respondents noted that the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was a success because *'It gives learners an opportunity to assimilate knowledge, think critically and analyse problems, not rote learn'*. This observation by respondents is accurate to a large extent because the NCS FET History Subject Statement policy document states:

Learners who study History use the insights and skills of historians. They analyse sources and evidence, and study different interpretations, divergent opinions and voices. By doing so, they are taught to think in a rigorous and critical manner about society. Their work draws on and influences all fields of human endeavour. This process is enriched by the application of historical imagination. Learners will increase their conceptual knowledge as a framework of analysis. Using this framework, they will interpret and construct historical knowledge and understanding and be encouraged to communicate this in a variety of ways (DoE, 2003b: 10).

It is therefore evident that the study of History by FET learners within the context of the NCS teaches them how to analyse evidence, organise ideas, think logically and construct lucid and well-balanced arguments.

Do you think the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was a success or a failure?

Figure 6.15 gives a graphical representation of the three lowest frequencies that were given by respondents.

Figure 6.15: Graphical representation of the three lowest frequencies.

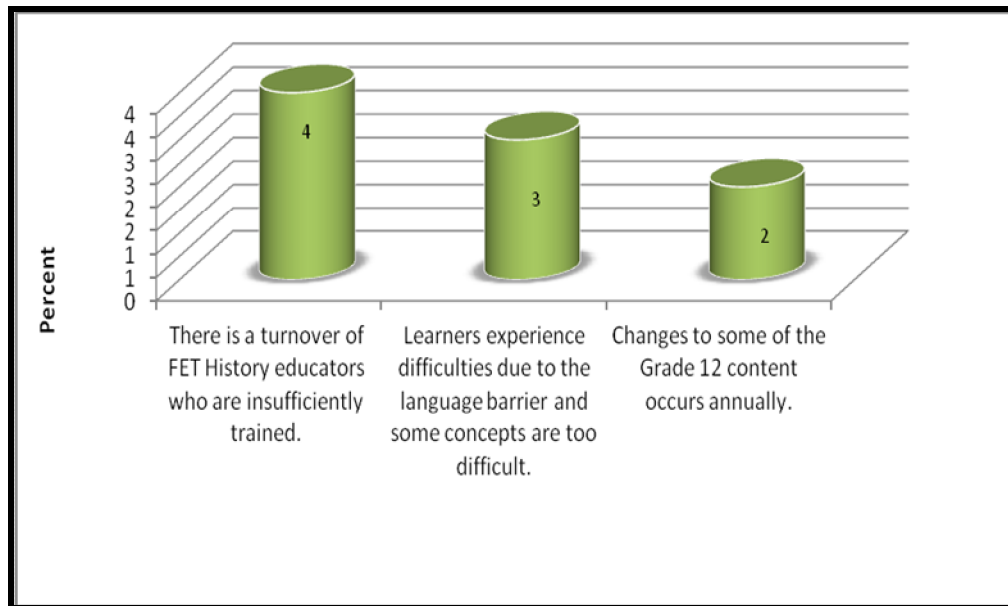


Figure 6.15 shows the lowest frequency observed from the statements given by respondents. In total, 4% of the respondents indicated that the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was not successful because *'There is a turnover of FET History educators who are insufficiently trained'*. This may be the case because educators may have not attended NCS FET History training workshops or alternately may be newly appointed FET History educators. This statement is not necessarily true, as the researcher is the Curriculum Specialist in the Umlazi District. There were several interactive workshops on the FET History curriculum and assessment that were held on an ongoing basis from the inception of the NCS in 2006.

This information can be corroborated with the evidence in Table 6.15, which shows that 71% of the respondents indicated that the implementation of the NCS was a success.

A small percentage (3%) of the respondents noted that the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was not successful because *'Learners experience difficulties due to the language barrier and some concepts are too difficult'* This criticism is valid because a large number of learners taking FET History as a subject are classified as African who either attends township or rural schools. Refer to Table 6.3 for clarification. Historical resources for the current curriculum are made available and taught mainly in the medium of English, and if the subject is not taught well through this medium, then answering the NSC examination papers becomes all the more difficult for learners of the subject whose first language is not English. However, to assist learners, they are given a compilation of past year papers and other learning resources so that they have sufficient practice to adequately answer the NSC examination.

'Changes to some of the Grade 12 content occur annually' Only 2% of the respondents noted this factor as a failure for the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum. This is a valid criticism as some of the topics in the Grade 12 History curriculum are changed on an annual basis. This is so for one of the topics in Paper One and two of the topics in Paper Two. The changing of the Grade 12 History content on an annual basis, impacts negatively on most educators. It affects planning and preparation and puts the FET History educator under enormous pressure to master the content of the new topic. This practice is counter-productive and should be rectified immediately so that there is stability and continuity in the NCS FET History curriculum.

Question 4.5

Were the FET History training workshops undertaken by the Department of Education effective?

Table 6.16: Frequency and cumulative percentages on the effectiveness of the FET History training workshops.

Responses	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	85	85.0	86.7	86.7
No	7	7.0	7.1	93.9
Not very effective	5	5.0	5.1	99.0
To Some extent	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing System	2	2.0		
Total	100	100.0		

In total, 85% of the respondents believed that the training workshops were effective. This reveals that the majority of the respondents were positive about the *NCS* FET History training workshops and were satisfied with the related curriculum policy documents and resources that were given. It also demonstrates that they understood and internalised the *NCS* policy requirements that were presented by the Curriculum Specialist and were to a large extent successful in implementing it. A very small percentage (7%) of respondents indicated that the workshops were ineffective. Detailed responses as to whether the *NCS* FET History training workshops were effective or not are discussed hereafter.

Were the FET History training workshops undertaken by the Department of Education effective?

Table 6.17: Most common reasons for effective FET History training workshops.

Below is a list of the most common reasons given by respondents.

Responses	Percent
Well planned and presented content workshops.	30.0
Provision of detailed resources and workbooks.	24.0
The NSC results gradually improved as a result of effective FET workshops.	15.0
Information on how to manage educator/learner portfolios; setting of quality assessment tasks.	9.0
Initially difficult to grasp the demands of new content and assessment requirements but with the support of the Curriculum Specialist it became easier.	7.0
Too little monitoring and support after training workshops.	3.0
Workshops were good for the dissemination of information but training was insufficient; content overload.	2.0
The NCS training workshops were effective but more time should have been spent on new content areas.	2.0

The first three explanations that have the highest percentage scores are discussed below.

In total, 30% of the respondents stated that FET History workshops were ‘*well planned and presented on content workshops*’. It is evident that some of the respondents were positive and satisfied about the information they acquired at the training workshops, which assisted in the implementation of the NCS FET History at their respective schools. Furthermore, when training workshops are well planned and presented they instil confidence among educators to adequately cascade this information to their learners with commitment and dedication. Thus, it is vital that educators are exposed professionally to the relevant NCS policy documents so that the process of teaching and learning is not compromised to the detriment of impacting negatively on the assessment scores of learners.

A total of 24% of the respondents pointed out that there was '*provision of detailed resources and workbooks*' at the FET History training workshops. This suggests that respondents were afforded the opportunity to listen to presentations as well as receive resources so that they could ensure effective FET curriculum implementation in the classroom. On the contrary, if respondents failed to attend the training workshops, they were at a disadvantage. The cumulative impact would be educators underperforming in the classroom and children who become increasingly disinterested with school and education. Jansen says '*if you give a child poor education and there is nothing going on to change that, they simply succumb and drop out. The truth is that schooling is so unattractive for kids that if they are given the opportunity to leave early, they will do it*' (*The Mercury*: 22 February 2010). In support of Jansen's argument, the Centre for Education Policy Development noted that in 1998 a total of 1 444 018 learners enrolled for Grade 1 in South Africa's public schools, however, by 2009, only 599 626 learners registered to write the Grade 12 NSC examinations. This shows that a total of 58% of those who started school in 1998 actually dropped out of school before they reached Grade 12 in 2009 (*The Mercury*: 22 February 2010). This scenario cannot be allowed to continue. Although there could be a range of reasons for this, it becomes necessary for educators to take the implementation of the NCS seriously by attending ongoing training workshops and to keep abreast of curriculum developments and innovation.

A total of 15% of the respondents revealed that '*the NSC results gradually improved as a result of effective FET workshops*'. This demonstrates that training workshops that FET History educators attended had the desired impact on the teaching and learning process. It also suggests that respondents used the information obtained from the training workshops in a meaningful manner whilst interacting with learners. History educators are mindful that the prescribed historical content as contained in the FET History Subject Statement cannot be taught in isolation but in tandem with the design features of NCS, which are articulated in the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).

According to the NCS FET History policy document, is:

A Learning Outcome is a statement of an intended result of learning and teaching. It describes knowledge, skills and values that learners should acquire by the end of the Further Education and Training band. Learning Outcomes are packed into subjects.

Assessment Standards are criteria that collectively provide evidence of what a learner should know and be able to demonstrate at a specific grade. They embody the knowledge, skills and values required to achieve the Learning Outcomes. Assessment Standards within each Learning Outcome collectively show how conceptual progression occurs from grade to grade. (DoE, 2003b: 11).

The four Learning Outcomes, although written separately, complement each other and remain similar throughout the FET band. However, the Assessment Standards changes from Grade 10 to Grade 12, in other words, assessment standards become incrementally more difficult as the learner progresses through the various grades in the FET phase (DoE-NCS, 2003c: 16-23). It builds on the historical skills that learners have acquired in the previous grade and serves to map progression throughout the FET band. To illustrate how it works, Table 6.18 provides an example of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards that are prescribed by the FET History policy for Grade 12.

Table 6.18: Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards that are used to assess learners historical knowledge in Grade 12.

LEARNING OUTCOMES	ASSESSMENT STANDARDS THE ABILITY OF THE LEARNER TO:
Learning Outcome 1 (Historical enquiry)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Formulate questions to analyse concepts for investigation within the context of what is being studied. 2. Access a variety of relevant sources of information in order to carry out an investigation. 3. Interpret and evaluate information and data from sources. 4. Engage with sources of information evaluating the usefulness of the sources for the task, including stereotypes, subjectivity and gaps in the evidence available to the learners.
Learning Outcome 2 (Historical concepts)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Analyse historical concepts as social constructs. 2. Examine and explain the dynamics of changing power relations within the societies studied. 3. Compare and contrast interpretations and perspectives of events, people's actions and changes in order to draw independent conclusions about the actions or events.
Learning Outcome 3 (Knowledge construction and communication)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify when an interpretation of statistics may be controversial and engage critically with the conclusions presented by the data. 2. Synthesise information to construct an original argument using evidence to support the argument. 3. Sustain and defend a coherent and balanced argument with evidence provided and independently accessed. 4. Communicate knowledge and understanding in a variety of ways including discussion (written and oral) debate, creating a piece of historical writing using a variety of genres, research assignments, graphics, oral presentation.
Learning Outcome 4 (Heritage)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Explain ideologies and debates around heritage issues and public representations. 2. Compare the ways in which memorials are constructed in different knowledge systems (e.g. monuments, ritual sites including graves sites). 3. Investigate the relationship between archaeology, palaeontology and other knowledge systems in understanding heritage.

Source: DoE (2003b:16-23).

On the other hand, a total of 7% of the respondents stated that the FET History training workshops were not effective. Respondents cited the following reasons: *‘Too little support and monitoring after training workshops’*,

'Workshops were good for the dissemination of information but training was insufficient; content overload' and 'The NCS training workshops were effective but more time should have been spent on new content areas'.

Some of the criticisms that respondents noted as to why the FET History training workshops were ineffective can be corroborated with reasons respondents gave in Question 2.1 (Section C) of the questionnaire (Refer to Annexure F).

Question 4.6

List a few recommendations that you would put forward for the successful implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Table 6.19: Recommendations regarding the successful implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Responses	Percent
More focused content and assessment training workshops should be provided on especially the newer Grade 12 topics.	26.0
Provision of essential resources to schools e.g. textbooks, audio-visual aids etc. should be done before the academic year begins.	22.0
Limit the plethora of documents/policies and administrative paperwork.	13.0
Closer monitoring and supervision of the implementation of the NCS from school management teams and departmental officials.	9.0
Greater involvement and consultation of teachers, teacher unions and other stakeholders in the implementation process of the NCS.	7.0
Educators should be given the opportunities to study further and upgrade their qualifications . incentives should be provided.	5.0
Networking with other history educators to share and gain more knowledge on the subject related matters . create history educator forums.	4.0
Do not change some of the Grade 12 content topics every year.	3.0
Facilitators should be highly qualified and skilled to present curriculum implementation matters to educators.	2.0
Greater inclusion of more exciting and relevant content topics should be considered e.g. focus on modern History with an African perspective . a balance should found.	2.0
History should be made a compulsory subject in the FET band.	2.0
Historical tours and excursions should be organised for learners; also invite guest speakers to promote the subject.	2.0
Information technology (IT) should become available in all schools to assist FET History educators with planning and preparation.	2.0
Communication - notice for workshops and meetings should be sent out timeously.	1.0

Of the aforementioned list of recommendations suggested by respondents, the three that have the highest frequencies are discussed below.

More than quarter (26%) of the respondents recommended that *'More focused content and assessment workshops should be held on the newer Grade 12 topics'*. This reveals that respondents were uneasy about new content that was introduced at the beginning of each academic year. This had a negative impact on the planning and preparation process for the Grade 12 year. In this regard, the History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines prescribes the examinable content for the period 2009 to 2012. The table below specifically highlights the new prescribed content from 2009 to 2012 for both History Papers 1 and 2.

Table 6.20: Prescribed History Grade 12 for content for Papers 1 and 2 for the period 2009 to 2012.

HISTORY GRADE 12 : PAPER 1

NO.	KNOWLEDGE FOCUS AREAS/CONTENT
1.	THE IMPACT OF THE COLD WAR IN FORMING THE WORLD IN THE 1960s
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extension of the Cold War China and Vietnam (to be examined in 2010) Cuba and the Middle East (to be examined in 2011) Angola (to be examined in 2012)
2.	HOW WAS UHURU REALISED IN AFRICA IN THE 1960s AND THE 1970s?
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on decolonisation and challenges in the following countries: Ghana and Tanzania (to be examined in 2009; 2011) Kenya and the Congo (to be examined in 2010; 2012)

HISTORY GRADE 12 : PAPER 2

NO.	KNOWLEDGE FOCUS AREAS/CONTENT
1.	WHAT WAS THE IMPACT OF THE COLLAPSE OF THE USSR IN 1989 ON: RE-IMAGINING THE NATION IN THE 1990s—A CASE STUDY FROM CENTRAL, WEST AND NORTH AFRICA
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on the following case studies: Central Africa (Angola and Congo: to be examined in 2009) West Africa (Benin and Guinea: to be examined in 2010) North Africa (Egypt to be examined in 2011)

Source: Adapted from DoE (2009: 6-7,10).

Table 6.20 confirms the respondents' views that FET History educators are required, as per policy, to change their plans and preparation for each new academic year according to the content stipulations for that particular year. For example, in History Paper One, educators will have to focus on China and Vietnam in 2010, Cuba and the Middle East in 2011 and Angola in 2012. FET History educators are under enormous anxiety and pressure to research, prepare and plan on an annual basis, to meet the demand of the new content areas. In terms of the Public Administration paradigm, Du Toit and Van der Walt (1995: 15-16) identify planning as a critical part of a management process. They argue that planning is a process of making decisions as to what should be done by whom, how, when and where in an endeavour to achieve what is envisaged by the policy (Du Toit and Van der Walt, 1995:16). Therefore, with regard to the History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines, it is obvious that the architects of the document did not envisage the negative impact this would have had on the planning and preparation of lessons for these new sections. FET History educators would have had to purchase new resources only to find that they are obsolete a year later, resulting in fruitless and wasteful expenditure.

Another factor that was not taken into account by the authors of the *History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines* is that the *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997)* was intended to transform public service delivery in South Africa. In other words, to make service delivery more customer-friendly in an endeavour to meet the basic needs of all South Africans and to find ways to eliminate wastage and inefficiency. Kroukamp (1999: 302) concurs that policy developers should be mindful of ordinary citizens when developing policy.

Furthermore, the *White Paper* contained eight Batho Pele (means people first) principles, which are:

- Consultation;
- Service standards;
- Access;

- Information;
- Courtesy;
- Openness and transparency;
- Redress; and
- Value for money (Batho Pele Handbook on Service Delivery, 2003: 14).

Of these eight principles, it is abundantly clear that the developers of History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines did not take the value for money principle into account (Du Toit, 2002: 109). Educators had to expend an inordinate amount of time and money in acquiring textbooks, audio-visual aids and other related materials in order to prepare for new Grade 12 content, as shown in Table 6.20. Consequently, educators did not get value for money regarding some of the content changes, despite it being a priority of government.

In total, 22% of the respondents stated that the *'Provision of essential resources to school e.g. textbooks, audio-visual aids etc. should be done before the academic year begins'* This shows that respondents could not begin the school year without critical resources to support the teaching and learning of History. Preferably, school management teams in KwaZulu-Natal should place their orders for resources, such as textbooks at least a year in advance, so that the procurement and subsequent delivery can be undertaken timeously. The effective use of textbooks is critical in ensuring that teaching and learning of History in the FET band is successful.

The *'Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement'*, proposes that the comprehensive use of textbooks was discouraged during the implementation of NCS and teachers were persuaded to prepare their own resource materials. The report also states that both local and international research has shown that the textbook is the most effective tool to ensure consistency, coverage, appropriate pacing and better quality instruction in implementing a curriculum (Dada *et al*, 2009: 9). Currently, the quality of History textbooks is poor in some cases, while in other cases some of the textbooks lacked information on the new topics especially with respect to the Grade 12 curriculum. This resulted in some

teachers complaining that textbooks lacked the relevant content and that they had to resort to developing their own resource material, which was often time-consuming and tedious.

In total, 13% of the respondents recommended that the NCS policy document should *'Limit the plethora of documents/policies and administrative paperwork.'* This is a valid recommendation because FET History educators received a host of separate but related NCS policy documents such as, the NCS Overview, the History Subject Statement, the Learning Programme Guidelines, the Subject Assessment Guidelines, History Examination Guidelines, and a host of KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Continuous Assessment and other content related resources. Cumulatively FET History educators have access to a series of policy documents, which they refer to constantly in the planning and preparation for curriculum delivery. Too many related documents may impact on the teachers' effort to plan in a co-ordinated manner to ensure effective classroom delivery. It can be concluded that the process is time-consuming and can lead to unnecessary confusion because of a plethora of policy documents. For instance, in the FET Grade 12 History, for example, there is no correlation between the Subject Statement and the Examination Guidelines. These policy documents contradict each other and there is often a lack of alignment between the various documents which impact negatively on the teaching and learning of FET History.

Ideally, teachers should have fewer policy documents that should not contradict one another. It ought to be designed in a user-friendly manner, which teachers can refer to with ease so that effective teaching can take place.

Question 4.6 List strategies that you would put forward for the successful implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Table 6.21: Strategies for the successful implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Responses	Percent
Content and assessment workshops on the new Grade 12 topics should be held before the new academic year; this would help educators to plan and prepare in advance.	26.0
Textbooks and other critical resources should be procured and delivered to schools at least three months before the new academic year.	22.0
NCS policy documents should be streamlined for easy reference.	13.0
School management teams and Curriculum Specialists should supervise and monitor the implementation of the NCS on an ongoing basis; educator and learner files should be moderated to ensure compliance of the History subject policy.	9.0
Constructive workshops/training sessions should be held with all stakeholders regarding the implementation of the NCS.	7.0
DoE should provide incentives for educators to improve their professional qualifications by offering bursaries.	5.0
Establish subject forums so that educators can network on professional matters for e.g. publish journal articles on historical matters.	4.0
FET curriculum should be the same for at least a three year cycle - new content should not be introduced.	3.0
Facilitators should be selected on specific criteria such as expertise, skill and qualifications.	2.0
FET History role players should be involved in the development of the curriculum ensuring relevant and balanced content is chosen.	2.0
Launch school history clubs or societies to instil the importance and value of history; effort to popularise the teaching and learning of history.	2.0
Organising and planning of purposeful historical tours and excursions based on the FET curriculum.	2.0
DoE should put plans in place so that all schools have internet facilities; it will make interconnectivity easy and save on the unnecessary use of paper.	2.0
Communication of information should be done electronically or via a hotline/nodal points.	1.0

The strategies proposed by the respondents match the recommendations that were alluded to in Table 6.21. The strategies put forward by the respondents are generally workable and attainable. A discussion of the three strategies that have the highest frequencies are elaborated below.

In total, 26% of the respondents stated that *'Content and assessment workshops on the new Grade 12 topics should be held before the new academic year; this would help educators to plan and prepare in advance'*. This is a valid strategy and the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education's Provincial FET Directorate should ensure that planning and preparation for resource development in the new academic year should be given priority. Logistical issues such as the development of resources for the new content and the schedule of dates and venues for the training workshops should be cascaded to schools at least three months in advance, before the actual start of the programme. Preferably, workshops should be held earlier, so that educators would not be left guessing as to what to teach and assess. Within the context of the Public Administration paradigm, this is regarded as project management. According to Maylor (1996: 3) project management includes planning, organising, directing and controlling activities. Conducting content and assessment workshops, especially on the new content focus areas can be regarded as a project that needs careful planning, implementation and evaluation and moves through the following three phases (Van der Waldt & Knipe, 1998: 58):

Preparation phase: During this phase the needs of the project are determined; a problem analysis is conducted; a plan for the project is formulated; the project is designed and finally a budget is allocated for the project.

Implementation phase: Ensure that the organisational arrangements are made; manage the process by means of financial control mechanisms and decision-making; perform project activities; monitor the project and obtain feedback.

Evaluation phase: Ensure that the project is evaluated against a set of quantifiable criteria as outlined in the original plan; determine whether

objectives of the project were achieved and ascertain the quality of the process. Good practice should be identified and possibly shared with other subjects in the FET band (Du Toit, 2002: 234-235).

The adoption of the above strategy will ensure that the new content in the FET History curriculum is effectively cascaded to educators.

'Textbooks and other critical resources should be procured and delivered to schools at least three months before the new academic year' in total, 22% of the respondents proposed this as a strategy to counteract the resource challenge that FET History educators were confronted with. This seems to be a tangible strategy because it would ensure that educators undertake their planning and preparation ahead of the new academic year. This guarantees that educators would heed President Jacob G Zuma's, State of the Nation Address, 10 February 2011, where he stated:

The focus in basic education this year is Triple T: Teachers, Textbooks and Time. We reiterate our call that teachers must be at school, in class, on time, teaching for at least seven hours a day. The administration must ensure that every child has a textbook on time, and that we assist our teachers to create the right working environment for quality teaching to take place.

In total, 13% of the respondents suggested that *'NCS policy documents should be streamlined for easy reference'* as a strategy to ensure that it is successfully implemented. Due cognisance should be given to this strategy, wherein all related information regarding FET History, for example, is contained in single, clearly demarcated policy documents which are accessible to educators for easy reference. Educators would then have the opportunity to use time judiciously to prepare interactive and creative lessons.

Question 4.7

Suggest tangible ways on how you think the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum can be improved? Focus on content, assessment and resources.

Table 6.22: Suggestions on how to improve the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.

Responses	Percent
Content should be stated clearly and in an unambiguous manner. It should be profiled according to the age of the learner . grade wise.	22.0
FET History content ought to be relevant to learners; topics should have a South African bias but should be grounded in an African and global context.	18.0
Assessment requirements for source-based questions should indicate the level of question and the associated mark scheme for each level.	11.0
Content should be developed chronically using the cause and consequence approach of history so that learners' historical knowledge can be incrementally scaffolded.	10.0
The mark scheme for level three questions is too high- it needs to be reworked.	8.0
Training workshops on how to set and assess source-based and extended writing questions should be undertaken on an ongoing basis.	8.0
Educator and learner files should be thoroughly moderated at school and cluster levels to ensure quality assurance and standardisation is maintained.	6.0
Standardised assessment tasks and the moderation thereof should be encouraged at cluster level; it should be done on an ongoing basis.	5.0
Learners should be encouraged to get more than the prescribed 30% pass rate. Mediocrity should not be encouraged and tolerated.	4.0
Provision of adequate resources such as textbooks, resource packages, multi-media should be given to all schools.	3.0
DoE should make access to education websites and the internet sites a priority . this can facilitate e-learning, which is relevant in the modern world.	3.0
Educators should be encouraged to network in their clusters regarding the sharing of resources, assessment exercises and team teaching.	2.0

A discussion of the three suggestions that have the highest frequencies follows.

In total, 22% of the respondents stated, *'Content should be stated clearly and in an unambiguous manner. It should be profiled according to the age of the learner, grade wise'*. It is apparent from this suggestion that aspects of the content focus areas in the FET History curriculum are unclear. This anomaly is noticeable in the Grade 12 History FET curriculum as indicated in Table 6.20. It has led to unnecessary confusion and anxiety among respondents as to what to actually teach and assess. To obviate further uncertainty, the FET History curriculum should be streamlined into simple, manageable units so that preparation becomes practicable.

In total, 18% of the respondents suggested *'FET History content ought to be relevant to learners; topics should have a South African bias but should be grounded in an African and global context'*. To a large extent this is a compelling observation. The current FET History curriculum begins in Grade 10 with the theme, *'The World in the fifteenth century'* and commences with the case study on the Songhay Empire, followed by Ming China and so on. Preferably, learners studying History in the FET phase should begin with content that is related to South Africa, and then progress to the histories of African countries and then the History of the rest of world. This interrelated approach to History teaching and learning should be ideally based on specific case studies, which learners can engage with in a meaningful manner.

A minority (11%) of the respondents suggested, *'Assessment requirements for source-based questions should indicate the level of question and the associated mark scheme for each level.'* Respondents' suggestions in this case are well-founded, because both the Subject Assessment Guideline and Examination Guideline policy documents do not mention the appropriate mark scheme for specific levels of questions. In the absence of these prescribed assessment tools, educators are unable to set quality examination/test questions with the appropriate mark scheme, which leads to misunderstanding and consequently may compromise the learners' continuous assessment and final examination marks. Moreover, it is incumbent on the FET Directorate of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to ensure that History educators receive comprehensive training on how to use the relevant assessment

rubrics, to accurately assess learners' paragraph and extended writing responses.

Question 4.8

How can school management teams, educators, learners and the broader community be empowered to successfully implement the NCS?

Table 6.23: Proposals on how various education stakeholders can be empowered to successfully implement the NCS.

Responses	Percent
Relevant advocacy campaigns should be held on an ongoing basis among the various stakeholders on NCS policy requirements (e.g. subject packages, assessment requirements, etc.).	22.0
Proper consultation and training workshops with all stakeholders should be undertaken at least once a term.	18.0
School management teams should be compelled to attend training workshops so that they can support and evaluate NCS policy implementation.	13.0
DoE officials should be encouraged to support and monitor stakeholders consistently on NCS policy related matters.	12.0
The DoE should not change curriculum policy . it causes confusion and leads to apathy.	9.0
Parents in particular should support their children by attending school meetings on the NCS.	8.0
Educators need to be passionate about the teaching and learning of History and should strive to promote it.	7.0
Incentives should be provided to motivate educators to put more effort into teaching.	6.0
Information updates and policy adjustments should be conveyed timeously to stakeholders.	5.0

From the above table, a discussion of the three proposals that have the highest frequencies takes place below.

In total, 22% of the respondents pointed out, '*Relevant advocacy campaigns should be held on an ongoing basis among the various stakeholders on NCS policy requirements (e.g. subject choices, continuous assessment requirements, additional tuition, etc.)*'. This suggests that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education needs to find creative ways of networking with various stakeholders so that crucial information regarding the NCS is made

available to various stakeholders. It also emphasises that if parents, in particular, are aware of the *NCS* requirements, then they would be able to assist their children in a host of school related matters in a meaningful way. Eventually, this type of intervention and evaluation of *NCS* delivery at school level by parents would have the cumulative positive impact on improving the quality of education in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

A mere 18% of the respondents stated '*Proper consultation and training workshops with all stakeholders should be undertaken at least once a term*'. In the current democratic South Africa, for any state policy to be successfully implemented, it is imperative that appropriate consultation and meaningful training workshops among stakeholders are undertaken. Moreover, advocacy programmes on the nitty-gritty of the policy imperatives should be undertaken on an ongoing basis so that implementation of the *NCS* is strengthened.

In total, only 13% of the respondents noted, '*School management teams should be compelled to attend training workshops so that they can support and evaluate NCS policy implementation*'. It has been observed that many school management teams do not attend curriculum related meetings and if they do, they do not cascade the information to educators at school. Staff development on curriculum related matters are absolutely essential for the success of a school. Recent evidence has revealed that poor leadership leads to the demise of an institution, like a school. In this regard, Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1999: 15-16) describe the concept *leading* as a process by which others are influenced to do what they would probably not have done under normal circumstances. Consequently, in the context of school, management, especially the principal, should be able to influence educators to undertake, for example, the effective implementation of the *NCS* in order to achieve the desired results and to help develop learners with the requisite skills for the twenty-first century.

6.6 PEARSON CHI-SQUARE TEST

Determining statistical significance between variables

The traditional approach to reporting a result requires a statement of statistical significance. A p-value is generated from a test statistic. A significant result is indicated with " $p < 0.05$ ". These values are highlighted in yellow.

The Pearson Chi-square test was employed to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables (rows vs. columns). These variables are used to explain any statistically significant relationships between the two groups. According to Tuckman (1978: 262) these variables can be used for almost any number of independent variables but are normally used for two, three or even four variables. The null hypothesis states that there is no association between the two. The alternate hypothesis indicates that there is an association. The table below presents the Chi-Square tests for public policy, public policy implementation and public policy monitoring and evaluation.

Table 6.24: Pearson Chi-Square test results.

Pearson Chi-Square Tests								
Questions	Age	Gender	Race	Highest Qualification	Post held at school	Type of school	Circuit	Years' of Experience
Was there a need for the government to change the curriculum policy after 1994?	0.874	0.98	0.433	0.214	0.481	0.207	0.818	0.476
Would you say there was adequate consultation before the NCS was implemented?	.017*	0.262	0.702	0.441	0.513	0.591	0.075	0.081
Was your professional teacher's organisation/ union consulted before the NCS was drawn up?	0.224	0.295	0.217	0.748	0.932	0.438	0.136	0.319
Does the NCS adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?	0.535	0.13	0.284	0.834	0.884	0.086	0.06	0.321
Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the NCS FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the NCS?	0.392	0.28	0.077	0.397	0.893	.017*	0.273	0.64
In comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the NCS FET History curriculum is better.	0.155	0.892	0.747	.037*	0.255	.031*	.018*	0.279
The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the NCS FET History curriculum is adequate.	0.782	0.752	0.175	0.863	0.458	0.11	.039*	0.869
The NCS FET History curriculum covers ALL content areas adequately.	0.642	0.279	0.077	0.245	0.184	0.277	0.454	0.316
I am optimistic about the NCS FET History curriculum.	0.532	0.745	0.563	0.421	0.458	0.155	0.358	0.313
The training you received regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was sufficient?	0.366	0.367	0.176	0.33	0.185	0.708	0.689	0.708

You implement the NCS FET History curriculum policy documents rigidly.	0.806	0.374	0.671	0.457	0.43	0.37	0.431	0.176
In the planning, preparation and implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).	0.496	0.86	0.676	0.576	0.997	.002*	0.327	0.096
An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the NCS FET History curriculum takes place.	0.743	0.476	.023*	0.824	0.449	.042*	.044*	0.406
The implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess.	0.078	.036*	0.898	0.531	0.866	0.707	0.741	0.752
So far, you have not encountered any problems in implementing the NCS FET History curriculum.	0.248	0.313	0.397	0.7	0.105	0.157	0.566	0.645
Learners are coping well with the demands of the NCS FET History curriculum.	0.987	0.054	0.368	0.485	0.276	0.236	0.547	0.326
There is strong correlation between the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate.	0.323	0.867	0.402	0.671	.031*	0.829	0.849	0.251
I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the NCS FET History curriculum.	0.37	0.471	0.057	0.591	0.642	.002*	0.441	0.226
The NCS FET History curriculum was successfully implemented at my school.	0.627	0.4	0.779	0.822	.001*	0.842	0.405	0.595
If there were concerns regarding the NCS FET History curriculum, there is adequate support from the FET History Curriculum Advisors.	0.16	0.158	0.651	0.109	.000*	0.063	0.637	0.42

There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum.	0.171	0.188	0.056	0.604	0.168	0.126	.027*	0.282
Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum takes place throughout the academic year.	0.315	0.253	0.137	0.364	.001*	0.293	0.824	.019*
All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum at school level.	0.898	0.067	0.123	0.819	0.173	0.574	0.36	0.816
The monitoring and evaluation process is impartial?	0.807	0.527	0.187	0.241	0.722	0.167	0.22	0.731
Are there procedures in place to deal with non-compliance? (w.r.t. the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum).	0.078	0.116	0.098	0.189	0.319	.037*	0.641	0.198
Does the monitoring and evaluation team play an effective role?	0.938	0.092	0.41	0.342	0.094	0.571	0.803	0.108
Evaluation reports by the monitoring and evaluation team are made readily available to educators.	0.757	0.222	0.979	0.419	0.225	0.262	0.844	0.081
The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the NCS FET History curriculum are implemented at school.	0.33	0.132	0.177	0.446	.032*	0.604	0.642	0.758

The highlighted results in yellow indicate that there is a relationship between the column and row variables. In cases where the p-value is less than 0.05, it implies that the variable played a role in terms of how the respondents answered the question. A discussion of this relationship is undertaken below.

The p-value for χ^2 Age vs. χ^2 Would you say there was adequate consultation before the NCS was implemented? is 0.017. Since the p-value is less than 0.05, it implies that age did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for χ^2 Type of school vs. χ^2 Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the NCS FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the NCS? is 0.017. Since the p-value is less than 0.05, it implies that the type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for χ^2 In a comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the NCS FET History curriculum is better vs. χ^2 highest qualification is 0.037; vs. χ^2 type of school is 0.031 and vs. χ^2 circuit is 0.018. Since the p-values are less than 0.05, it implies that the highest qualification, type of school and circuit did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for χ^2 The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the NCS FET History curriculum is adequate vs. χ^2 circuit is 0.039. Since the p-values are less than 0.05, it implies that the type of circuit did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for χ^2 In the planning, preparation and implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs) vs. χ^2 type of school is 0.002. Since the p-values are less than 0.05, it implies that the type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for χ^2 An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the NCS FET History curriculum takes place vs. χ^2 race vs. χ^2 type of school and circuit is 0.023, it implies that race and the type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "The implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess" vs. "gender" is 0.036, it implies that gender did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "There is strong correlation between the implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate" vs. "post held at school" is 0.031, it implies that the post held at schools did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the *NCS FET History* curriculum" vs. "type of school" is 0.002, it implies that the type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "The *NCS FET History* curriculum was successfully implemented at my school" vs. "post held at school" is 0.001, implies that the post held at school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value "If there were concerns regarding the *NCS FET History* curriculum, there is adequate support from the *FET History Curriculum Specialist*" vs. "post held at school" is 0.000, it implies that the post held at school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value "There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum" vs. "circuit" is 0.027, it implies that the circuit did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value "Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum takes place throughout the academic year" vs. "post at school" is 0.021 and "years of experience" is 0.019 it implies that post at school and years of experience did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "Are there procedures in place to deal with non-compliance? (w.r.t. the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum)" vs. "type of school" is 0.037. It implies that type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

The p-value for "The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the NCS FET History curriculum are implemented at school" vs. "type of school" is 0.032. It implies that type of school did play a role in terms of how respondents answered this question.

In summing up, the p-values that had a significant influence on most of the respondents are the "post held at school", "the type of school", and "the circuit in which they taught at". These variables suggest that the post held at school and the type of school where respondents taught at, played a significant role in influencing their responses.

All p-values greater than 0.05 implies that there is no significant relationship between the row and column variables. In this case the p-value for "Does the NCS adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?" vs. "type of school" is 0.086, implies that the type of school respondents taught at did play a role in terms of how they responded.

PART B

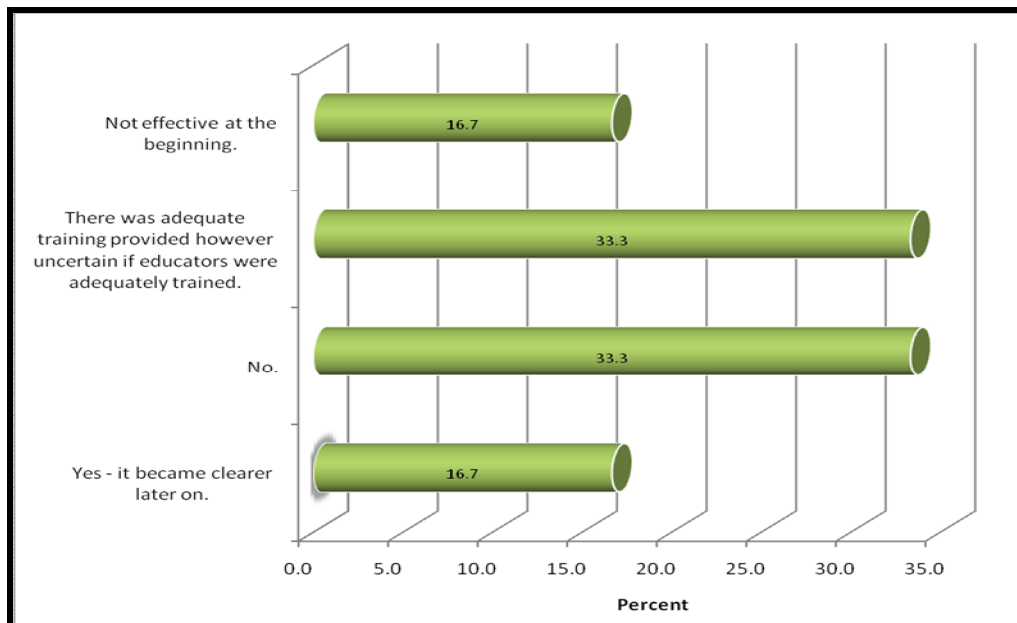
6.7 QUALITATIVE RESULTS: FOCUS GROUP OF FET HISTORY CURRICULUM SPECIALISTS FROM THE KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The following results are based on responses gathered from the semi-structured interview (Annexure G) that was conducted with six KwaZulu-Natal FET History Curriculum Specialists from selected Districts and Head Office (refer to Chapter Five). Responses were open-ended and the tabulation of information is based on the frequency counts of the most common statements. The qualitative data obtained from the respondents was extrapolated using the content analysis method. Krippendorp as cited in (Cohen, *et.al*, 2007: 475) defines it as research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use. In this regard the common areas of focus from the interviewees was extrapolated to ascertain specific trends and make deductions regarding curriculum implementation in the province of Kwazulu-Natal.

Question 1

Were FET History educators adequately trained and equipped to implement the NCS?

Figure 6.16: Responses to Question 1 of Annexure G.

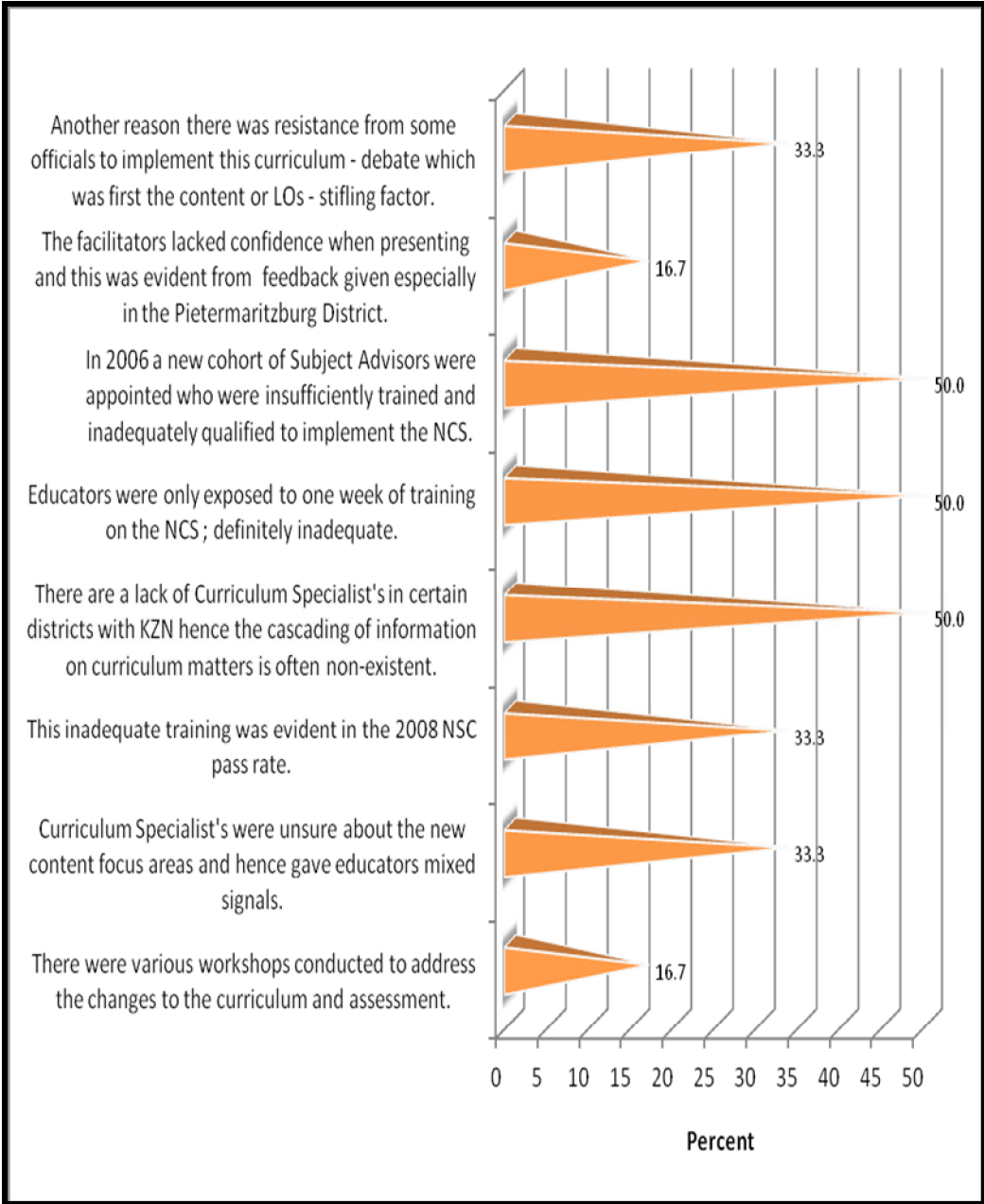


In total, 33% of the respondents indicated that FET History educators were not adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*, at the same time another 16.7 % of the respondents pointed out that the training was not effective at the beginning. In contrast 33% of the respondents noted, *'There was adequate training provided, however, uncertain if educators were adequately trained'* while 16.7% of the respondents stated *'Yes - it became clearer later on'*.

It can be concluded from the above responses that the FET *NCS* History training was not entirely effective in other districts as compared to the responses educators from the Umlazi District gave. The two respondents from the Provincial Head Office noted that the Curriculum Specialists were adequately trained by the FET Curriculum unit, but were unsure if the training of educators in all twelve districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal was similar.

Question 1.1 How did you ascertain whether FET History educators were adequately trained and equipped to implement the NCS?

Figure 6.17: Illustrates the reasons given by respondents to Question 1.1 of Annexure G.



Since most of the respondents stated that the *NCS* training was generally ineffective, three of the reasons showing the highest frequencies are discussed below.

In total, 50% of the respondents stated *'There are a lack of Curriculum Specialists in certain districts within KZN hence the cascading of information on curriculum matters is often non-existent'*. This is a legitimate concern, since curriculum delivery cannot occur if specialists are not available to cascade the relevant policy documents. Currently, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education does not have a policy regarding the number of Curriculum Specialists per district. In some instances, the Sisonke District, for example, has had no FET History Curriculum Specialist for the past three years, while Obonjeni District has three FET History Curriculum Specialists. This uneven distribution of Curriculum Specialists across districts in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, contributes to low educator morale, since they have no information on curriculum and assessment policies. This leads to an unsatisfactory Grade 12 History pass rate. For example, the results of the 2010 National Senior Certificate Examination in KwaZulu-Natal shows that the Sisonke District was ranked last (12th) producing an overall pass rate of 62% as compared to the Umlazi District which was ranked first producing an overall pass rate of 78.8%. The pass percentage for History in the Sisonke District was 62% as compared to the Umlazi District producing 92%. This demonstrates that where districts have adequate Curriculum Specialists, educators are aware of content and examination requirements, which contributes to overall good results.

Another 50% of the respondents stated that *'Educators were only exposed to one week of training on the NCS; definitely inadequate.'* The National Department of Education, in implementing the *NCS* rolled out a four-day training programme for all FET History Curriculum Specialists. This was undertaken for Grades 10 to 12 and was held in Pretoria. It is against this background, that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: FET Curriculum Directorate decided to have a four day training workshop for FET History educators. In implementing a new FET curriculum, both the National

and Provincial Departments of Education were short sighted to allocate only four days for the training of educators. In hindsight, this was too short a time for educators to internalise a new policy on content and assessment and expect that it would be implemented without continuous support and guidance. The lack of training and support regarding the implementation of the *NCS* was evident in the dismal performance of learners in the first NSC examinations written in 2008. The National and the KwaZulu-Natal provincial pass rates for the NSC examination was 62.6% and 57.6% respectively.

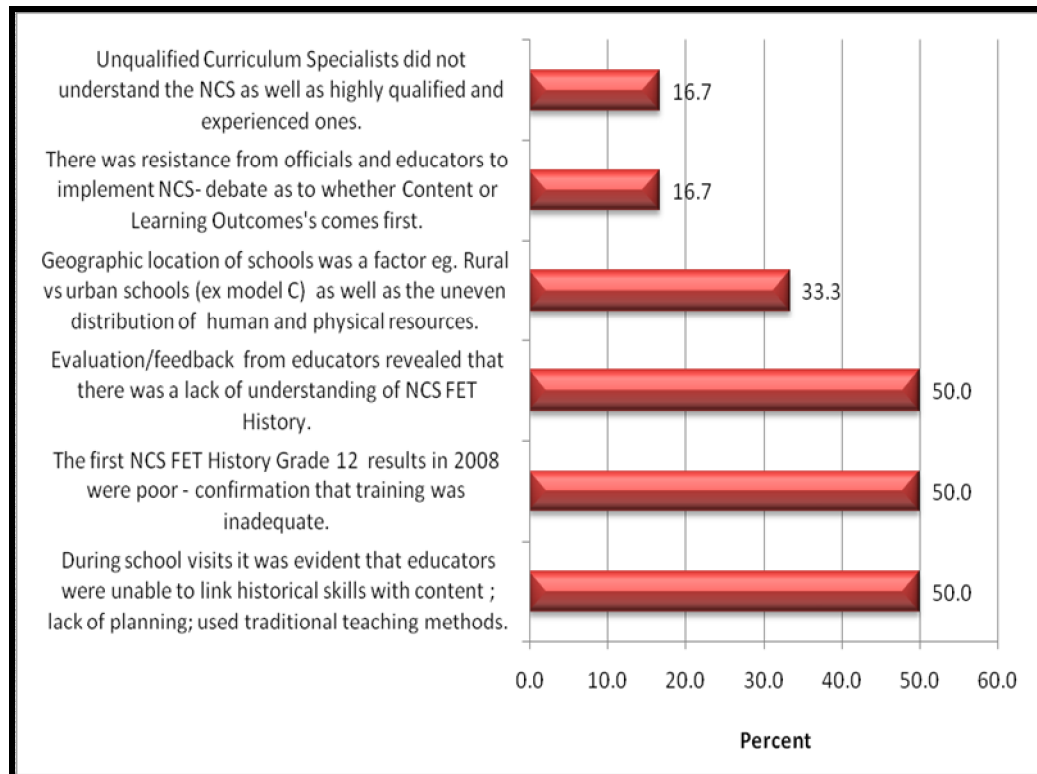
A significant number of respondents (50%) pointed out '*In 2006 a new cohort of Curriculum Specialists were appointed who were insufficiently trained and inadequately qualified to implement the NCS*'. This is a justifiable observation by the respondents. After 2006 nine new FET History Curriculum Specialists were appointed. The training and support they received was not always adequate. Some of the Curriculum Specialists were well qualified and had the necessary expertise but the others were not. The '*Policy Handbook for Educators*' states preference should in all cases be given to appropriately qualified applicants for any educators post and the minimum requirement with regard to years of experience for Curriculum Specialist post is seven (Brunton, 2003: C-74).

Although these are the minimum requirements as prescribed by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) for office based management posts, ideally speaking, incumbents should be appointed on merit. This should involve a rigorous process of interviews and the writing of a competency test. Further, the minimum qualification for this high level post should be a master's degree. Incidentally, apart from the researcher, only one out of the total of seventeen FET History Curriculum Specialists has a Master of Arts in History degree. It is probably this scenario, where most of the FET History Curriculum Specialists lack academic qualifications that may have contributed to the an uneven cascading of *NCS* policy documents to educators in some of the districts, therefore resulting in the high failure rate among learners studying History as a subject in the FET band.

Other reasons given by respondents to Question 1.1

1.1 How did you ascertain whether educators were adequately trained and equipped to implement the NCS?

Figure 6.18: Reasons given by respondents on whether FET History educators were adequately trained to implement the NCS.



The three highest frequencies are discussed below.

Altogether 50% of the respondents noted *'During school visits it was evident that educators were unable to link historical skills with content; lack of planning; used traditional teaching methods'*. This reveals that FET History educators probably received limited exposure and training by the FET Provincial Directorate regarding the requirements of NCS policy documents. This may have contributed to poor classroom practice of the NCS. To overcome this state of affairs, it is suggested that FET History educators are workshopped on an ongoing basis until the requirements of the NCS are complied with.

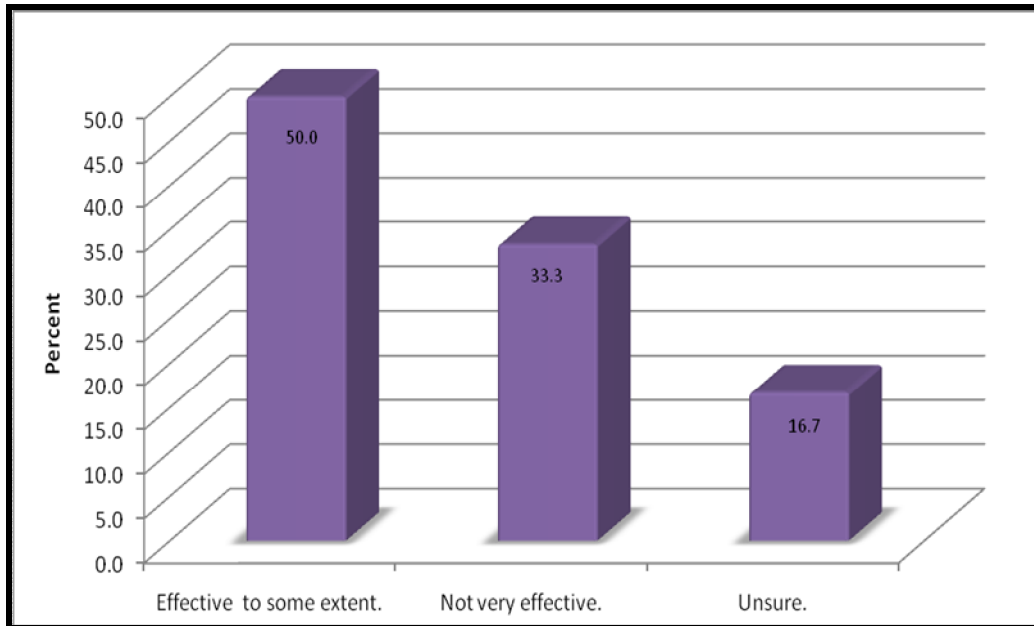
In total, 50% of the respondents stated, *'The first NCS FET History Grade 12 results in 2008 were poor - confirmation that training was inadequate'* This is an accurate observation as the Grade 12 History results were of a poor quality in the 2008 NSC examinations. This may be attributed to the new content focus areas contained in the curriculum as well as the new format of the Grade 12 NSC examination papers. It can be deduced that FET History educators were not *aufait* with the new content and assessment requirements and in addition were not adequately workshopped on the demands of the NSC examinations, therefore the poor performance of learners.

Another 50% of the respondents pointed out that the *'Evaluation/feedback from educators revealed that there was a lack of understanding of NCS FET History'* This reveals that FET History educators gave negative feedback about the training workshops they received regarding the *NCS*. It also suggests that educators did not understand the initial policy underpinnings of the *NCS* as presented by the Curriculum Specialists and co-facilitators. In essence, FET History educators would not have the necessary knowledge and skills regarding the curriculum to confidently present it to their learners. Hence, it can be deduced that the poor results that learners obtained in the 2008 NSC examinations is indicative of the poor training that educators received.

Question 2

Explain whether the FET *NCS* History training workshops provided in your district were effective in helping educators to implement the *NCS* in the classroom?

Figure 6.19: Responses to whether the FET *NCS* History training workshops provided was effective.

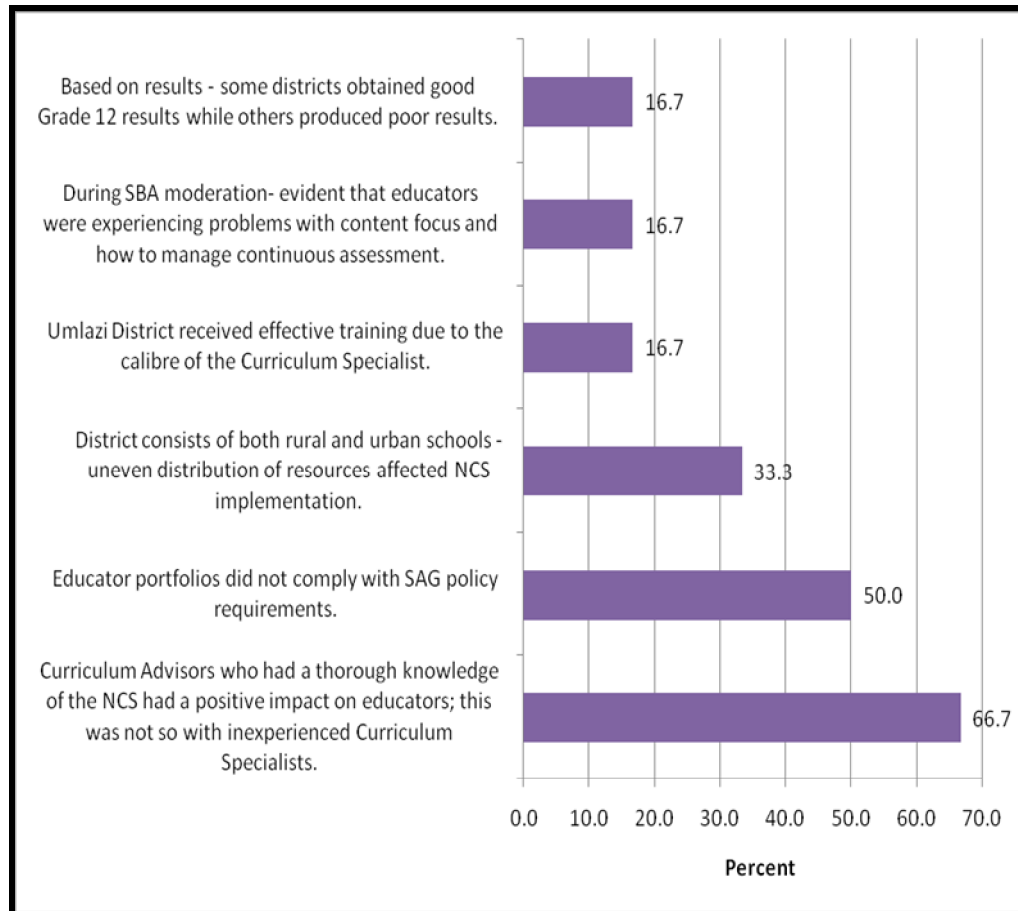


It is evident from Figure 6.19 that 50% of the respondents stated that the FET *NCS* History training workshops provided in their districts was *'not very effective'* in helping educators to implement the *NCS* in the classroom. While 33.3% of the respondents noted that the FET *NCS* History training workshops were *'effective to some extent'*, almost 17% of the respondents indicated that they were *'unsure'* whether the FET *NCS* History training was effective or not.

Question 2.1

Follow-on question. How do you know this? How do you measure this?

Figure 6.20: Reasons as to whether FET History training workshops were effective.



The three highest frequencies are discussed below.

It is evident from Figure 6.20 that 66.7% of the respondents noted, '*Curriculum Specialists who had a thorough knowledge of the NCS had a positive impact on educators; this was not so with inexperienced Curriculum Specialists*'. As mentioned earlier, a number of new Curriculum Specialists were appointed in 2006. This was a year after the National Department of Education trained Curriculum Specialists regarding the policy imperatives of the NCS FET History. Therefore, the new cohort of Curriculum Specialists lacked the requisite knowledge and expertise on the FET History NCS as opposed to

their older more experienced counterparts who were trained in 2005. This obviously impacted negatively on districts that had appointed new Curriculum Specialists. Furthermore, in 2006 there was an outcry in the local KwaZulu-Natal newspapers, *The Witness* (26/05/2006) and *Sunday Tribune* (31/12/2006) regarding the appointment of level one educators (regular school teachers) to post levels 5 and 6 (senior managerial posts for specific subjects and school principals). Most of the new appointees had little or no understanding of the new NCS because they were not part of the teams that were trained by the National Department of Education in 2005. Concerns were raised as to the quality of training FET educators would receive and the cumulative impact on the Grade 12 results (*The Witness*, 26 May 2006).

In total, 50% of the respondents stated, '*Educator portfolios did not comply with SAG policy requirements.*' The Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG) gave educators clear guidelines on how to go about assessing the NCS. Consequently, the Department of National Education published the SAG document in 2007, the purpose of which was to:

...provide guidelines for assessment in the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General). The guidelines must be read in conjunction with The National Senior Certificate: A Qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the relevant Subject Statements. The Subject Assessment Guidelines will be applicable for Grades 10 to 11 from 1 January 2007 and for Grade 12 from 2008 (DoE: 2007: 1).

The SAG document also outlined FET History educators with clear guidelines on assessment requirements for Grades 10 to 12. The following example, taken from the SAG document is the Programme of Assessment for Grade 12 History.

Assessment in Grade 12 consists of two components, which includes a Programme of Assessment (PoA), which counts for 25% of the total mark and an external examination, which counts for 75% of the mark. The History POA comprises seven tasks, which are internally assessed. The external examination is externally set and moderated.

Table 6.25: Annual assessment requirements for Grade 12 History.

TERM 1	TERM 2	TERM 3	TERM 4
3 tasks	2 tasks	2 tasks	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Source-based and extended writing • Heritage investigation • Test under controlled conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Either enrichment assignment or second source-based and extended writing task • Midyear examination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test under controlled conditions • Trial examination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final external examination
25% of total year mark = 100 marks			75% of total year mark = 300 marks

Source: DoE (2007: 12).

Since the assessment requirements for FET History are clearly outlined in the SAG document it is of great concern as to why there is a lack of compliance with this specific policy document. It may be concluded that either FET History educators either did not receive the SAG document or alternately were not adequately workshopped. Therefore, educator portfolios did not comply with the requirements of SAG policy.

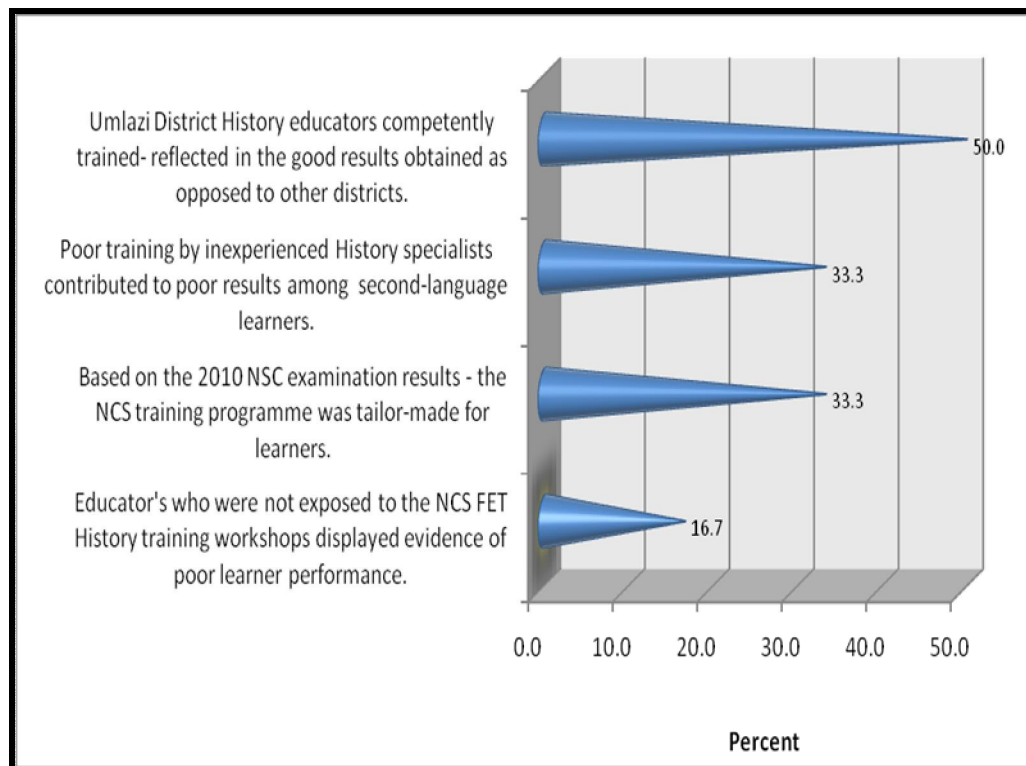
Question 3

Do you think there is a correlation between the FET History training programme and learners' results?

All the respondents from the focus group stated *yes* to this particular question.

3.1 Follow-on question: How do you know this? How do you measure this?

Figure 6.21: Correlation between the FET History training programme and learner's results.



The three highest frequencies are discussed below.

It is evident from Figure 6.21 that 50% of the respondents stated '*Umlazi District History educators competently trained – reflected in the good results obtained as opposed to other districts*'. This observation is indicative that NCS FET History policy and related documents were workshopped and timeously given to educators. Furthermore, a large majority of respondents (86%), have tertiary qualifications, refer to Figure 6.4. The cohort of FET History educators

were first, qualified and second, committed to the teaching and learning of History and third, were passionate about their jobs. Triangulation of other variables such as the number of years of teaching experience in History, the location of the school and post level at the school may also contribute to the high pass rate in the Umlazi District.

In total, 33% of the respondents indicated *'Poor training by inexperienced History specialists contributed to poor results among second-language learners.'* As purported earlier, a large number of new and under-qualified Curriculum Specialists were appointed as FET History specialists. The lack of experience and appropriate qualifications has contributed to ineffective training of FET educators. This scenario, if perpetuated, would spell disaster for education in general in South Africa. The Department of Public Service and Administration should seriously consider revisiting the criteria used to employ public servants, especially in critical leadership posts, like Curriculum Specialists.

Question 4

Explain to what extent you think the training programmes for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in ALL the districts within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal?

Figure 6.22: Responses to whether the training for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in ALL the districts.

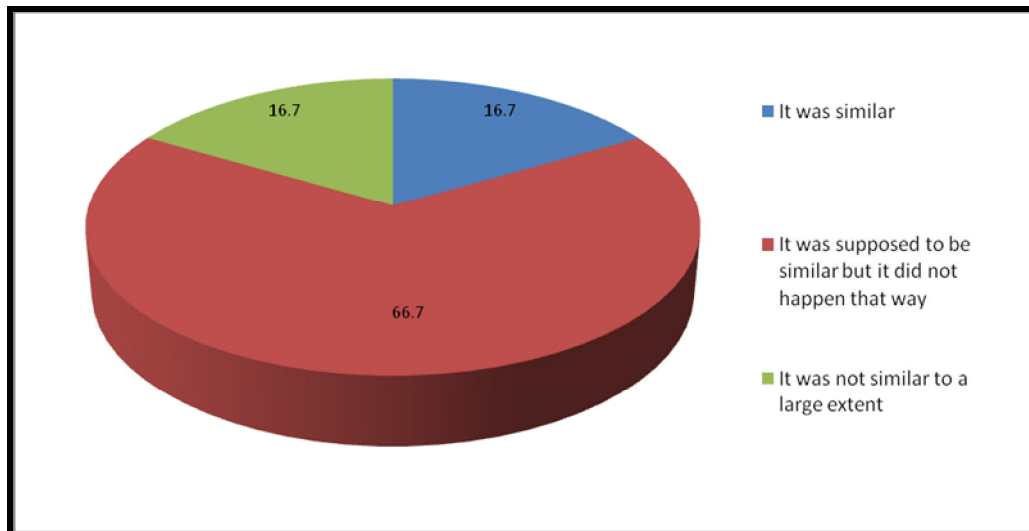
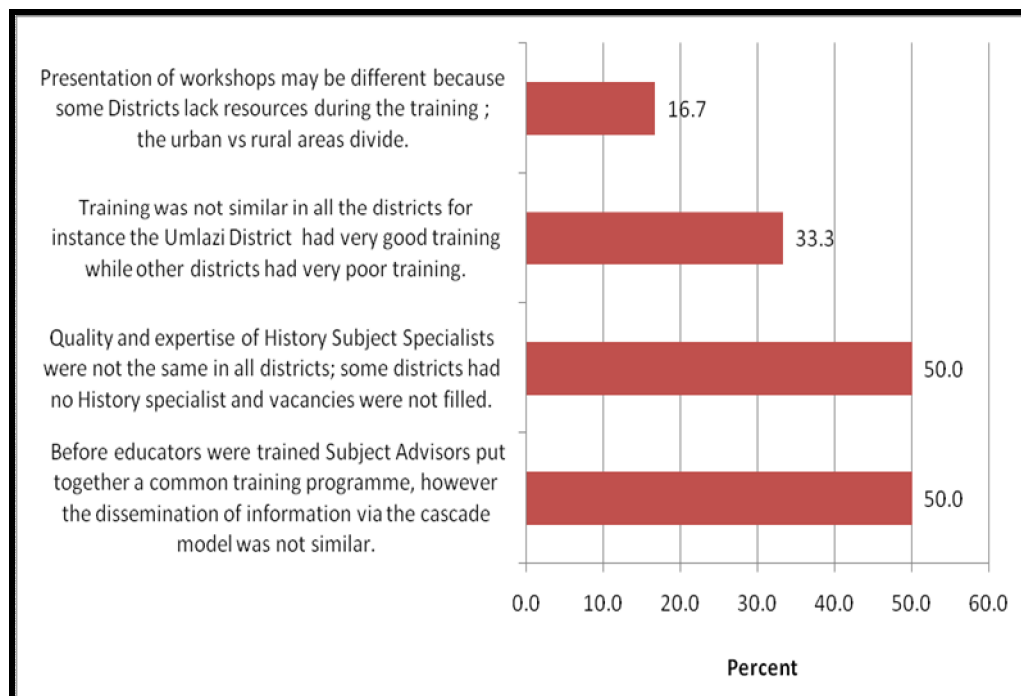


Figure 6.22 illustrates that 66.7% of the respondents stated that the training programmes for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was *'supposed to be similar but it did not happen that way'*, while 16.7% of the respondents indicated that the training *'was not similar to a large extent'*. Only 16.7% of the respondents noted that the training *'was similar'*. It is apparent that the overwhelming majority of respondents believed that the training programmes for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was not similar in all of the twelve districts within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Although the National Department of Education presented a common FET History training programme that was intended to be presented in the nine respective provinces across the Republic of South Africa by FET History Curriculum Specialists using the cascade model, this did not necessarily take place.

Evidently, districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal vary in terms of, amongst others, expertise among the Curriculum Specialists: some districts are rural and lack the necessary resources and a few districts do not have History Curriculum Specialists. However, without adequate support and guidance from FET History Curriculum Specialists, educators would find it extremely difficult to keep abreast with the changes that are constantly taking place. In order to ensure compliance, monitoring and evaluation becomes essential so that curriculum delivery occurs in line with the requirements of the NCS FET History.

4.1 Follow-on question: How do you know this? How do you measure this?

Figure 6.23: Reasons as to whether the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in all districts.



The three highest frequencies are discussed below.

It is evident from Figure 6.23 that 50% of the respondents stated, *'Before educators were trained Curriculum Specialists put together a common training programme, however the dissemination of information via the cascade model was not similar'*. This reason supports what respondents stated regarding that the NCS training programme, which was not done on a similar basis in all districts. Respondents from the KwaZulu-Natal, Head Office noted the unevenness of FET training in the various districts, from their on site monitoring of the FET History training workshops.

In total, 50% of the respondents noted, *'Quality and expertise of Curriculum Specialists was not the same in all districts; some districts had no History advisors and vacancies were not filled'*. This was an accurate observation by respondents because some of the FET History Curriculum Specialists were

not appointed on merit or competence. The article in *The Witness* (26 May 2006) entitled 'Promoting Folly' asserts:

'...that widespread corruption in the province's educational system is already seriously undermining efforts to ensure that the province's children all receive the sort of quality education which we so desperately need if this country is to prosper in the years ahead. At the root of this corruption lies a promotion system that strikes me as actively supporting a 'worst – case scenario' model of educational transformation. Think of the least expert, the most venal, the least experienced or any combination of the foregoing characteristics in an applicant, and that person is almost certain to get the job. Far too many individuals in these important middle management posts are little more than political commissars, having come to their new posts with a reputation for being more diligent in their attendance on union business than in their schools, from which they were all too frequently absent...'

A critical article about the promotion debacle that hit the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education in 2006, but it does to a large extent reflect the malaise that existed in the appointment of senior officials to high ranking critical posts. Therefore, the majority of schools in the province are staffed by inadequately trained educators who are ironically supervised by inexperienced Curriculum Specialists. This inadvertently contributes to poor teaching and learning and leads to a decline in learners' results.

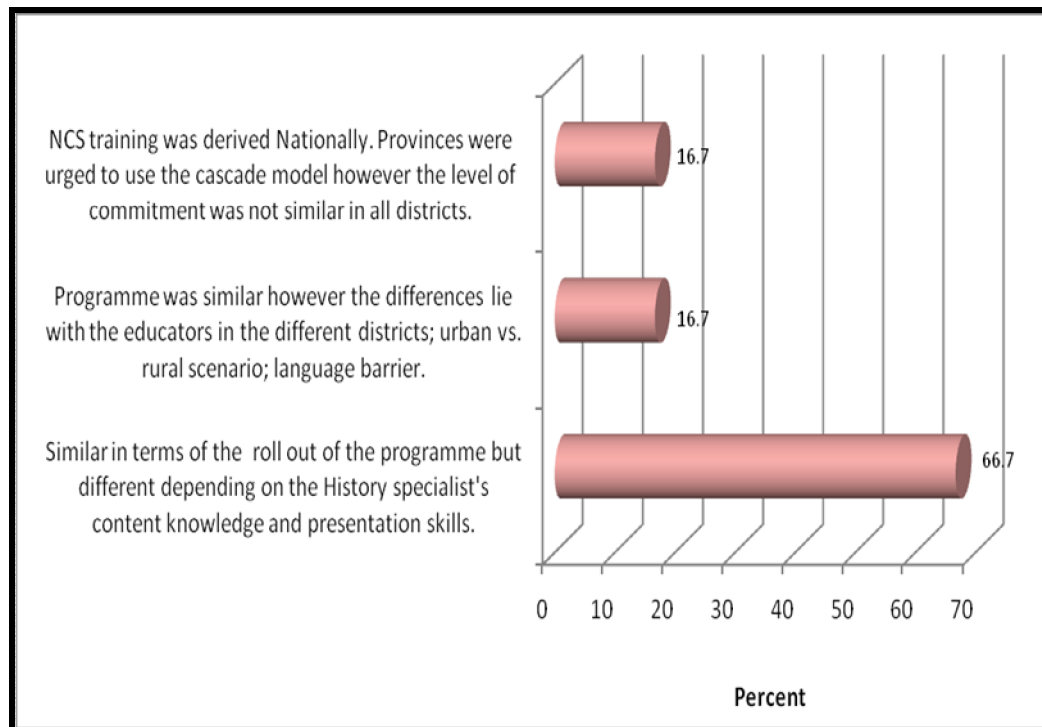
Almost 34% of the respondents stated, *'Training was not similar in all the districts, for instance the Umlazi District had very good training while other districts had very poor training'*. Respondents have made this deduction because the pass rates of learners studying Grade 12 History has been consistently good in the NSC examinations. Several factors can be attributed for this trend, the most compelling is, the commitment and dedication shown by a large cohort of qualified and experienced FET History educators currently teaching in the Umlazi District.

Question 5

Why do you think the FET History curriculum training programmes were similar or different in ALL the districts within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal?

All of the respondents stated that the policy documents for the FET History curriculum training programmes were similar. However, respondents also indicated that the manner on how the policy documents were cascaded to FET History educators in the various districts might have been different. The reasons for this are reflected in Figure 6.24 below.

Figure 6.24: Respondent's views on whether the FET History training programmes were similar across districts.



The three highest frequencies are discussed below.

In total, 66.7% of the respondents stated the *NCS* training programmes were '*Similar in terms of the roll out of the programme but different depending on the History specialist's content knowledge and presentation skills*'.

Although the National Department of Education trained FET History Curriculum Specialists who were expected to cascade the same programme in their provinces, this inadvertently did not occur. This was largely attributable to the Provincial Curriculum Directorate not capacitating inexperienced Curriculum Specialists on how to go about cascading the NCS policy documents to FET History educators across the province. Consequently, this resulted in patchy and inconsistent training in some of the districts.

Almost 17% of the respondents indicated that the *'Programmes were similar but whether FET History educators got the same message is doubtful; this was largely due to the language barrier and rural vs. urban divide'*. KwaZulu-Natal is a province of extremes; large parts of the province are largely rural in its geographical and socio-economic character. Indeed, educators who teach in rural schools are confronted with a host of socio-economic problems, such as poverty, the scourge of HIV-AIDS and child-headed households. A major stumbling block is that both teachers and learners are fluent in their mother tongue, which is isiZulu, but they are forced to study their subjects through the medium of English. This actually stymied the effective roll out of the NCS. Political commentator and community activist Max du Preez noted that the *soul of the people in South Africa is not English... we will lose too much of ourselves if we lose our languages. We need a master strategy to ensure that all our local languages stay alive, while at the same time making sure that all our children can speak and write English properly* (*Daily News*, 8/5/2002). Former Minister of Education Naledi Pandor noted that 22% of all South Africans understand English well enough to fill in tax returns and use ATMs amongst others (Pillay, 2007: 56). She further noted that English should still receive preference as a practical subject at schools but children should also be taught in the indigenous language of their choice.

The *Mail and Guardian* (26 August to 1 September 2011 edition) supports Pandor's contention and states:

Research shows that learners who are taught in their mother tongue - that is when their medium of school instruction is the mother tongue - are more successful academically when they do switch to English. This is because they acquire the cognitive academic language proficiency needed for academic success. For example, once you have learned the concept of telling the time in your mother tongue, you can easily transfer this concept to another language.

Therefore, learners can pursue studying indigenous languages as subjects because adequate provision is made in the FET NCS to do so (Pillay, 2007: 54).

In total, 16.7% of the respondents stated that the '*NCS training was derived Nationally. Provinces were urged to use the cascade model, however the level of commitment was not similar in all districts*'. This further highlights that the National Department of Education developed NCS policy and therefore were responsible for the training of provincial FET Curriculum Specialists. In addition, the National Department of Education assumed that the cascade model would be effectively used by all History Curriculum Specialists to unpack the NCS in a similar manner across schools in the Republic of South Africa, without a monitoring and evaluation unit in place. Owing to the lack of monitoring, the efficacy of NCS presentations was not similar across districts in KwaZulu-Natal.

Question 6

List recommendations and strategies that you would put forward for the successful implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum. Focus on content, assessment and resources.

Table 6.26: Recommendations and strategies that respondents enlisted regarding the successful implementation of the FET History *NCS*.

Responses	Percent
Curriculum Specialists and facilitators should be vigorously workshopped on content and assessment related matters, including moderation of CASS, etc.	50.0
More focused workshops should be conducted with a smaller group of teachers especially on the new content focus areas.	50.0
All <i>NCS</i> documents should be compiled into a single booklet for ease of reference for FET History educators.	50.0
There are sufficient resources at schools especially textbooks which should be used effectively to inculcate an environment of learning.	33.3
Use resource material in a multi-dimensional manner and should desist from using only one textbook and focusing only on past examination papers.	33.3
Reintroduction of in-service training for educators - ensure professional development is sustained.	33.3
At school the role of SMT's should be to monitor curriculum implementation and report problems to the District officials for rectification.	33.3
Poor communication - educators are not given timeous notice of workshops, circulars - better communication channels should be developed.	33.3
Responsibility of the Department to provide adequate and user- friendly resources to all schools.	33.3
Curriculum Specialists should co-present content and assessment related matters at District level-ensure a balance between weaker and knowledgeable curriculum specialists.	33.3
Multi-media such as DVD's, source material (e.g. newspapers) and internet access should be made available to all schools.	33.3
Educators at cluster level should be empowered on how to set quality assessment items especially on sources.	33.3

The three recommendations and strategies from Table 6.26 that have the highest frequencies are discussed as follows.

Half the respondents (50%) noted that *'Curriculum Specialists and facilitators should be vigorously workshopped on content and assessment related matters, including moderation of CASS, etc'* on an ongoing basis. This is a valuable recommendation. Indeed, Curriculum Specialists should be first vigorously workshopped on content and assessment related matters by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education's FET Curriculum Directorate. This would obviate educators receiving often confusing and contradictory information from Curriculum Specialists. High quality training that is carefully planned and presented would ensure that Curriculum Specialists have the requisite knowledge to confidently workshop FET History educators on content and assessment matters. Preferably this should be done on an ongoing basis.

In total, 50% of the respondents recommended, *'More focused workshops should be conducted with a smaller group of teachers especially on the new content focus areas'*. Under normal circumstances this recommendation would be feasible. However, FET History educators cannot be taken out of classrooms during school hours, for workshop purposes. Preferably, if these professional development workshops are to be conducted, it should occur over the weekends or during the school holidays. It should be made compulsory for FET History educators whose learners have consistently underperformed during the mid-year or final examinations to attend these workshops.

Another 50% of the respondents recommended, *'All NCS documents should be compiled into a single booklet for ease of reference for FET History educators.'* This is a realistic recommendation made by respondents. Currently FET History educators consult a plethora of curriculum and assessment policy documents before they can start planning and preparation of what exactly to teach. Numerous documents confuse educators and can also be very time-consuming. Some of the documents are either repetitive and contradict each other. For example, the *National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General): History* and the *Subject Assessment Guideline: History* policy documents outline the prescribed content and assessment that an educator

needs to follow. However, a subsequent Circular E2 of 2007 refers to ~~A~~ Amendments to the History Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG)q Many FET History educators were confused as to which policy document to actually follow, because Circular E2 of 2007 was not aligned to the original NCS and SAG-FET History policy documents. Owing to these contradictory documents, the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial FET Directorate and Provincial History Curriculum Specialists Committee developed a single user- friendly document titled *KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: History CASS Guideline document*, which conflated and streamlined all relevant content and assessment requirements. It was developed separately for each grade in the FET band.

Question 7

How can school management teams, educators, learners and the broader community be empowered to successfully implement the NCS?

Table 6.27: Suggestions made by respondents regarding how various stakeholders can assist with the implementation of *the NCS*.

Responses	Percent
Focused capacitation workshops for school management teams on <i>NCS</i> implementation.	50.0
Both learners and parents should know what the content and assessment requirements are for the specific grades in History and parents should monitor progress.	50.0
The parents and community should be kept updated about the <i>NCS</i> via circulars, newsletters, the internet, newspapers, labour unions and even at governing body meetings.	33.3
Principals should be trained on <i>NCS</i> policy matters so that they can monitor implementation more effectively.	33.3
Curriculum training should be opened to SGB's, Ward Managers and other role players.	33.3
The SMT should be committed to the implementation of the <i>NCS</i> and ensure that it is appropriately taught. Often the problem of non-compliance lies with the SMT.	33.3
All role players should be committed to curriculum delivery and seek assistance when the need arises.	33.3
The community should support the learners to complete projects, research assignments and encourage reading by urging learners to use community libraries.	33.3
Responsibility of the SMT to ensure that the SGB as well as the community are kept informed of the <i>NCS</i> .	33.3
The Curriculum Specialists must stay abreast of curriculum matters and should play a key role in cascading this to the broader school community.	33.3

The first three suggestions in Table 6.31 that have the highest frequencies are discussed below.

In total, 50% of the respondents stated, '*Focused capacitation workshops for school management teams on NCS implementation*' should be held. This is a noteworthy suggestion, since school management teams (SMTs) should be playing a pivotal role in ensuring that the core business of teaching and learning, which is curriculum delivery, is not compromised. Professional development workshops should be held, so that SMTs are conversant with the requirements of the NCS, particularly issues pertaining to timetabling, time allocation for specific subjects, promotion requirements for learners, rotation of staff, overcrowding of classes and the management of the curriculum. A recent report released by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education - Provincial Intervention Team (PIT) revealed that schools that were classified as underachieving in the Umlazi District were not following the prescribed policy guidelines regarding the scheduled teaching time per post level (KZNDoe, 2011: 3). Emanating from this report, educators including SMTs are now compelled to teach according to the prescribed schedule for teaching time as recommended by the *Education Labour Relations Council - Policy Handbook for Educators* (2003). It stipulates that educators should be at school for seven hours a day including breaks. Of these seven hours, secondary school educators should be teaching for a minimum time as prescribed by the following percentages:

Post Level 1 : Between 85% and 90%

Post Level 2 : Up to 85%

Deputy Principal : Up to 60%

Principal : Between 5% and 60% depending on which post level appointed to (Brunton, 2003: C-63).

By doing this, educators would be able to gainfully interact with the curriculum so that their role as custodians of the *NCS* can be affirmed.

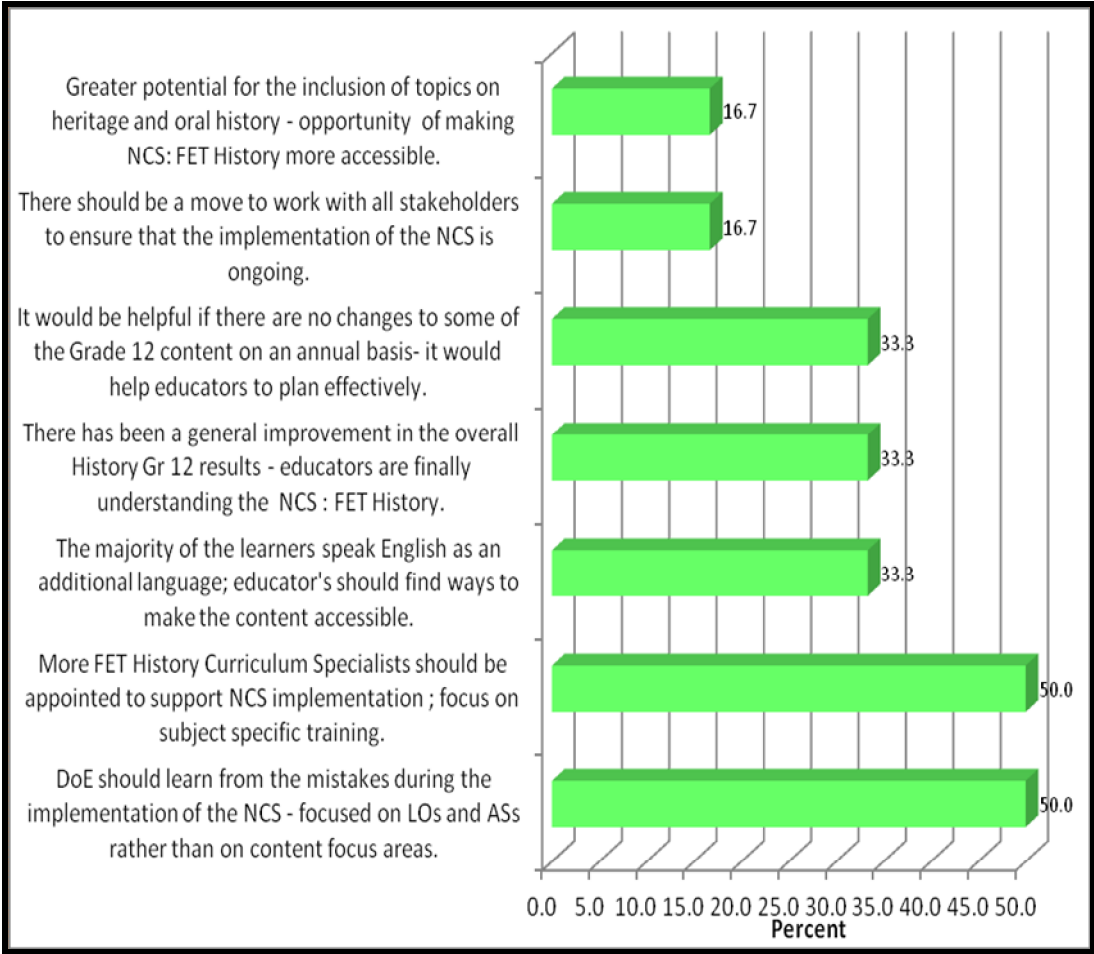
Half the respondents (50%) indicated, *'Both learners and parents should know what the content and assessment requirements are for the specific grades in History and parents should monitor progress'* If both learners and parents are aware of the content and assessment requirements for each subject, then there is a sense of responsibility and accountability to complete curriculum tasks timeously which would eventually lead to an improved pass rate and have a positive impact on South Africa. Parents should become actively involved in their children's education, they need to monitor and support them on an ongoing basis.

Almost 34% of the respondents indicated that, *'The parents and community should be kept updated about the NCS via circulars, newsletters, the internet, newspapers, labour unions and even at governing body meetings'*. This is, indeed, a well-founded recommendation by respondents. Making information about the *NCS* available to various stakeholders is crucial. It may assist in ensuring that the community at large knows about curriculum and assessment matters. These awareness campaigns about the *NCS* are expected to have a positive spin-off with regards to parent and learner attitudes to the importance of education.

Question 8

Would you like to make any final comments regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History Curriculum?

Figure 6.25. Respondent’s final comments regarding the implementation of the NCS FET History Curriculum.



The three responses that have the highest frequencies are discussed below.

In total, 50% of the respondents pointed out the, *'DoE should learn from the mistakes during the implementation of the NCS - focused on LOs and ASs rather than on content focus areas'* This comment on implementing the NCS is justifiable. To a large extent teachers spend a substantial amount of time on planning and preparing lessons in the FET History band, around the four Learning Outcomes and eleven Assessment Standards, which are the central design features of the NCS. This is a futile exercise, especially if educators are not planning their lessons around the prescribed content. In addition, learners are subjected to a series of activities without having an understanding of what content they should have learnt. Moreover, some of the prescribed Assessment Standards are not entirely clear. For example, in the FET History: Grade 12 Learning Outcome 1 and Assessment Standard 4 states, *'The ability of the learner to engage with sources of information evaluating the usefulness of the sources for the task, including stereotypes, subjectivity and gaps in the evidence available to the learners'* (DoE, 2007d: 14). This is confusing and also impossible to attain with the prescribed content for FET History: Grade 12. The Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards often divert the teachers' attention from preparing good lessons and continuing with their core function, which is the teaching of FET History.

It was suggested by 50% of the respondents that, *'More FET History Curriculum Specialists should be appointed to support NCS implementation; focus on subject specific training.'* Presently some of the districts do not have FET History Curriculum Specialists, for example, the Sisonke District. To ensure effective curriculum support, all districts should ideally have one appointed FET History Curriculum Specialist. As a matter of urgency all vacant curriculum specialist posts, should be advertised. This would ensure that curriculum delivery gaps are filled. Moreover, the training workshops for the new FET History Curriculum Specialists should be of high quality and include aspects pertaining to both content and assessment; this would reinforce the implementation of the NCS.

Almost 34% of the respondents stated, *'The majority of the learners speak English as an additional language; educator's should change their teaching methods to ensure that the content becomes accessible.'* The total number of candidates that enrolled for the NSC examination in 2010 was 150 929. Of this, 122 576 wrote English as First Additional language and 118 984 wrote IsiZulu as Home language. This reveals that more learners wrote English First Additional language than IsiZulu in the 2010 NSC examination. Furthermore, approximately 81% of the total number of candidates that wrote the 2010 NSC examination were second language learners (KZNDoE, 2010: 8; 17). A similar percentage (80%) of the total number of candidates that wrote the NSC Grade 12 History examination, also studied English as a first additional language. Since the study of History is largely a literary-based subject, the use of the English language plays a critical role in communicating historical knowledge, FET History educators are urged therefore to be cautious as to how they plan and prepare lessons. It is recommended that they use innovative teaching methods and accessible resource materials during the teaching and learning of History to ensure that meaning is conveyed to learners whose mother tongue is not English.

6.8 CONCLUSION

This Chapter focused on the presentation and interpretation of data that was gleaned from the quantitative and qualitative questionnaires that were administered to respondents. Several statistical techniques were used for interpretation and analysis of data. This was dependent on the type of data being analysed. For example, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to interpret the qualitative data that was presented by respondents. Furthermore, factor analysis was used primarily for data reduction purposes. This technique helped in establishing the communality of a given variable. The Varimax Method with Kaiser Normalisation was used to minimise the number of variables so that scientific deductions could be made. Inferential statistical measures such as the Cronbach's alpha test was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Moreover, the Pearson Chi-square test was

employed to establish whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the various variables.

Qualitative data was derived from the semi-structured interviews that were conducted with respondents. Information obtained from these interviews was recorded verbatim. The editing style was utilised to analyse data from the semi-structured interview.

Emanating from the empirical evidence of this study, the results and findings were examined against the background of education policy making and implementation within the context of a public administration paradigm. Quantitative and qualitative data were analysed under specific headings and sub-headings and were presented in an integrated manner using interactive statistical tables and graphs.

Finally, arising from the interpretation and analysis, numerous suggestions and recommendations were proposed. These would be elaborated on, in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter focuses on the findings of the empirical study undertaken on the efficacy of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in the Umlazi District. These findings are presented against the background of what was examined in previous chapters, notably the literature review of South Africa's *NCS* within the context of public administration, the various theories and conceptual perspectives of public policy development and a comparative study of curriculum trends in other countries of the world.

Arising from the presentation and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data in the previous Chapter, particular trends and scenarios emerged, which assisted in specific conclusions being drawn. On the basis of these conclusions, several recommendations regarding the implementation of the *NCS* in various districts within the province of KwaZulu-Natal are made. The cumulative impact of these recommendations should lead to the formulation of policy for effective curriculum delivery and the impact of which would be the overall improvement in the quality of education provided by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. The results of this study led to the development of a model that should be used for the future implementation of any public policy in education.

The subsequent section focuses on the findings and conclusions drawn from the data presented as well as tangible recommendations are proposed regarding the efficient and successful implementation of the *NCS*. This is triangulated from the data presented from the quantitative and qualitative interviews.

7.2 FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Emanating from this study, various tangible and practical conclusions and recommendations are discussed below.

7.2.1 Lack of consultation

Conclusions

An overwhelming number of respondents (81%) to the quantitative questionnaire indicated that there was a need for the new democratic government to change the curriculum policy after 1994. This is a clear indication that most of the respondents were acutely aware of the dreadful effects of the *Bantu Education Act* that was imposed by the apartheid government and the urgent need for the transformation of South Africa's system of education. However, almost 70% of the respondents indicated that they were not adequately consulted about the implementation of the *NCS*.

Regarding consultation prior to the formulation of the *NCS* FET History policy, a brief background as to how the process unfolded is undertaken. Former Minister of Education Kader Asmal appointed a Ministerial Project Committee, which oversaw the writing of the National Curriculum Statements Grades 10-12 (Schools), in all 28 subjects. This Committee consisted of members from the National Department of Education as well as externally based experts for the various fields, such as Human Sciences and Languages. A stakeholder group or Reference Group which consisted of 48 people was appointed. Their responsibility was to critique the *NCS* as it was being developed. It consisted of the following:

- One representative from each of the nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa.
- Seven were from other national departments.
- Three were from teacher unions.
- Three represented Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

- The remainder came from the Publishers Association of South Africa, the Independent Examinations Board, Umalusi, the Gender Commission and from subject associations such as the South African Society for History Teaching, the SA Association for Language Teaching, the Association for Mathematics Educators of South Africa (Chisholm, 2005: 17).

The primary responsibility of the Subject Working Group was to develop the subject statement or the curriculum for each of the specific subjects. The Ministerial Project committee appointed subject experts that were recommended by the Provincial Departments of Education. These recommendations were based on the individual expertise in specific subjects that were to serve on the Subject Working Group. However, there were no specific criteria as to how members were appointed to serve as panel members.

With regard to History Subject Working Group, the Draft NCS FET History document states that six people were involved in developing the subject statement. Of the six representatives, three were from the South African History Project (SAHP), one from the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), one from the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department and the other from the Northern Cape Department of Education. It was noted that the SADTU representative left the group before the curriculum writing process was completed.

Although the History Subject Working Group consisted of historians that had experience as teachers in schools or colleges it generally lacked representation from:

- The seven other provinces in the Republic of South Africa
- Non-governmental organisations
- Other professional teachers organisations
- Higher Education Institutions

- Teachers of History in the Republic of South Africa and
- Other role players (Kros, 1996: 27).

Evidently, the History Subject Working Group could not provide holistic recommendations, as many stakeholders were not represented.

The History Subject Working Group began developing the FET curriculum in 2002 and was convened by a representative from the SAHP. The Working Group met in Pretoria for a week at a time, to develop, reflect and make critical inputs. The convenor would also brief the Ministerial Project Committee about progress and obtain feedback. The process of developing a National Curriculum Statement was rigidly controlled by the Department of National Education. Further, it influenced the direction and form the *NCS* should take. Consequently, the classroom teacher had little or no influence as to how the process would unfold and develop (DoE, 2003: 16).

It is evident from the information presented above that History educators throughout the Republic of South Africa were not consulted on the national curriculum, and therefore it can be surmised that the process was closed to a specific group of elite or handpicked historians to shape curriculum for the whole country. The process was not democratic but rather clandestine and lacked openness and consultation.

Furthermore, the covert manner in which the *NCS* FET History was developed reveals that educators were accurate in their observation that they were not consulted when the curriculum was developed. Actually only one professional teacher body (SADTU) was represented at the working group and its representative left the process before completion. Other professional teacher organisations were not represented. Although all teachers are members of professional teacher organisations, it is evident that their interests were not represented at the History Subject Working Group since they did not have access to information regarding the *NCS* FET History curriculum. Although the researcher is an appointed Curriculum Specialist and a member of the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial History Committee, at no

stage was any information regarding the new FET History curriculum cascaded at the Subject Committee meetings. As a result, the researcher, as a FET History Curriculum Specialist was not in a position to furnish FET History educators in the Umlazi District with information on the shape and form that the curriculum was taking.

In addition, Anita Rampal, Dean of Education at the University of Delhi (India), speaking at the Round Table Conference on education that was convened by the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) in South Africa noted that:

We should not dismiss teachers' unions and teachers' perceptions. Any teacher would be appalled by the notion that one should dictate to them exactly what they have to do every day of the week, and their views should certainly be taken into account when we formulate education policies and processes (2011: 37).

Therefore, the development of the FET History curriculum lacked a consultative process and was undertaken in an autocratic and dictatorial manner. The Ministry of Public Service and Administration expects all public servants to subscribe to the Batho Pele principles (refer to Chapter Six). In this regard one of the Batho Pele principles is consultation, which was not adhered to when the History Subject Working Group (public servants) developed the FET History curriculum. Consultation implies that citizens must have a say regarding the services that are rendered to them. Therefore, with the development of the FET History curriculum, the overwhelming number of ordinary History teachers and other relevant role players were not consulted regarding the nature and general outlook of the new curriculum. They also did not have access to information on the NCS because it was not opened for public comment. This resulted in the content and assessment policy aspects of the FET History curriculum being very prescriptive. This meant that educators did not have the opportunity to interact with the content and assessment policy aspects of the FET History curriculum and therefore could not conceptualise or make sense of it. For this reason, History educators

became mere implementers of the *NCS* and were required to teach the prescribed content irrespective of whether the content was relevant, topical and interesting for learners in specific grades.

Recommendations

Consultation among various stakeholders, especially with regard to the formulation and implementation of the *NCS FET History* is essential if there is going to be proper teaching and learning of the subject. Consequently, the participation of a broad spectrum of History education stakeholders regarding policy formulation and implementation becomes essential if success is to be attained. Sparius (in Du Toit, 2000: 269) defines a stakeholder as someone with real or imagined interest in policy formulation and its outcome. Stakeholders, he argues, should be actively involved in the development of policy. There is symbiotic relationship between the policy development and its stakeholders. Policy formulation and implementation cannot exist without stakeholders and, conversely, stakeholders rely, to some extent, on policy implementation for their existence. Critical to the process of policy formulation and implementation is continuous stakeholder engagement, it allows stakeholders the opportunity to become part of the policy making process from the onset. Sparius (in Du Toit, 2000: 271) suggests that stakeholders should ideally be involved in public participation, which includes:

- Making the public aware of the policy development.
- Allow the public to make inputs and suggestions timeously.
- Invite stakeholders to assist in advocacy campaigns on the new policy.

In the light of the above it becomes necessary for the National Department of Education to make public announcements through advertisements in the media inviting suitably qualified experts to participate in the writing of the new curriculum. Thereafter, candidates for the writing panel should be representative of race, gender and provincial representation. Officials responsible for the formulation of significant

education policy development like the National Curriculum Statement, which make every endeavour to be as transparent and as open as possible. In this case education stakeholders such as teachers, school management teams, district and provincial curriculum officials, parent and teacher unions should have been invited to be vigorously involved in shaping and implementing the *NCS*. After the draft FET History curriculum is complete, the DoE should have called for public comment. Relevant public inputs must be incorporated into the draft FET History curriculum so that it is strengthened. In this way FET History teachers would be more amenable to implement the new curriculum. Finally, if this were done then the implementation of the *NCS* would have been far more effective.

7.2.2 *NCS* FET History training workshops: lack of depth

Conclusions

In 2005 the National Department of Education, led by the History Subject Working Group trained all FET History curriculum specialists from all nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa in Johannesburg. The training was undertaken over a four-day period. Facilitators presented information on FET History content and assessment. Curriculum Specialists from the various provinces were encouraged to replicate similar programmes in their respective provinces using the cascade model. According to Jansen (in Sayed, 2001: 275) the supposition that the purported message of the new curriculum will be passed on to educators without any problems using the cascade model, especially when educators have varying levels of capacity and experience, was not a well thought-out policy decision. Therefore, the training of FET History educators in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal was presented as prescribed by the National Department of Education, by using the cascade model. This method of transmitting important policy decisions and documents was flawed from the outset and was instrumental in contributing to the unsuccessful implementation of the *NCS*. The triangulation, however, of the quantitative and qualitative data revealed the following about the *NCS* FET History training workshops.

The majority of the respondents (97%) in the Umlazi District indicated that they had a fairly thorough understanding of the *NCS*, which was due to the presentation and resources provided to them by the FET History Curriculum Specialist. However, despite having a thorough understanding of the *NCS* policy, they noted that the duration (four days) allotted for the training was too short, particularly on issues related to the new content and specific areas of assessment such as how to integrate the prescribed learning outcomes and assessment standards to set quality source-based questions. Undoubtedly, it takes a tremendous amount of time and patience to embrace curriculum transformation of the magnitude of the *NCS*, therefore respondents needed an extended period to interact with the design features of the new curriculum so that implementation could be effective.

In contrast, half (50%) of the respondents to the qualitative interview stated that the training they received on specific aspects of content and assessment was inadequate. This was largely due to some of the facilitators being unprepared and lacking the necessary content and assessment knowledge to undertake presentations satisfactorily. Furthermore, there was inconsistency in terms of the content and assessment resources that was given to FET History educators, which caused confusion with regard to what to teach and assess, inevitably impacting negatively on learners final examination results.

In addition, respondents noted that the four days allotted for the FET History training workshops were simply not enough, to unpack all the content and assessment requirements. The respondents from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: Head Office: FET Curriculum Directorate noted that presentations that were held across the twelve districts within the province were not similar regarding the depth and breadth of what was being presented and Curriculum Specialists or facilitators who conducted these presentations.

Accordingly, it is evident from the above findings that the cascade model was ineffective in conveying a common message regarding the *NCS* FET History policy documents to all History educators within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. This was attributed to first the differences in the expertise and

experience of presenters and second the rural versus urban divide of districts, which is compounded by the uneven access to resources (human and physical).

Moreover, the duration (four days) allocated for the roll out of the *NCS* was insufficient and inadequate. It was actually inconceivable to expect educators to implement a new curriculum after four days of training without adequate support on an ongoing basis.

It is evident that the duration of the training for the FET History curriculum was inadequate and the cascade model that was prescribed by the National Department of Education for the roll out of the training programmes was ineffective.

Recommendations

Cascade model

The National Department of Education needs to ensure that training programmes that are offered to educators should not include the cascade model. The hope that a group of trainers would mentor another group of facilitators to train teachers to teach and assess the similar content to learners in the classroom was a poorly conceptualised idea.

Instead of the cascade model Curriculum Specialists from both the National and Provincial Departments of Education, together with lecturers from Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) should establish teams of History subject experts to facilitate training workshops for educators throughout the country. In this way loopholes in the system would be closed and there would be consistency in terms of the content and assessment material that is being presented to educators, the effectiveness of presentations and the evaluation of these workshops by attendees would indicate whether further workshops are required.

Training of History educators

The duration of the training workshops for the NCS was too short. The training workshops on the new curriculum were not accompanied by any details as to how educators would actually implement the radical new ideas, especially in under-resourced schools. It may be argued that many of these training workshops became ~~t~~elling sessions rather than ~~l~~earning by doing training workshops.

Training on specific aspects of new content and assessment should be ongoing depending on the need of FET History educators in specific circuits within the district. It becomes incumbent on the Curriculum Specialist to determine the needs of particular FET History educators. This can be ascertained in the following ways:

- Evaluate the History Grade 12 learners' results that were obtained in the National Senior Certificate examinations and compare the pass percentage with the other districts, the provincial and national pass rates. If learners produce results below a particular threshold, for example, 60% then it can be assumed that the FET History educator does not have the necessary content and assessment knowledge to deliver the curriculum effectively to learners.
- Assess FET History educators' content knowledge and the most logical way of doing this, is to administer a test or, alternatively educators, may indicate that they require training to improve their knowledge-base on specific aspects of the curriculum.

In this regard, the MEC of Education in KwaZulu-Natal, Senzo Mchunu, was alarmed at the poor Mathematics and Physical Science results in the 2010 NSC Grade 12 examinations. In response, the MEC of Education held an Education Summit from 11 to 13 February 2011 for all education role players in KwaZulu-Natal. One of the resolutions at the Education Summit, was *'...develop a new affordable but qualitative approach to issues of teacher development. Hence a rigorous programme must be developed to capacitate*

educators, particularly with regard to Maths and Physical Science with immediate effect' (KZN DoE, 2011: 2). In response to this resolution, the MEC Senzo Mchunu, requested the Provincial FET Curriculum Directorate to plan and prepare (resources and venues) for the up coming weekend workshops, which was initially held for Mathematics and Physical Science educators whose learners produced less than 60% in the 2010 NSC examinations.

The programme was later extended to 22 other NSC Grade 12 examinable FET subjects that had a high learner enrolment and educators who had serious gaps in the content knowledge to teach in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The training workshops were held on weekends. It started at 16:00 hours on Friday afternoon with Grade 12 History educators writing a pre-test to ascertain their content knowledge and it ended at 20:00 hours on the same day. A subsequent analysis of the pre-test results revealed that the marks Grade 12 History educators obtained ranged from 50% to 84%. Emanating from these results, a focused content and assessment training workshop was conducted from 08:00 to 20:00 on Saturday. The Sunday programme began at 08:00 hours and finished with the administering of a post-test at 13:00 hours. An analysis of the post-test results revealed an improvement in the performance of FET History educators, with marks ranging from 62% to 86%. There were six weekend workshops held for Mathematics and Physical Science educators, while the other subjects had only two weekend workshops.

From the feedback given by educators, it seems that the model introduced by the MEC for Education in the province of KwaZulu-Natal is a laudable one. However, this must not be seen as a once off training session to improve under-performing and under-resourced educators. It is recommended that this model be adopted to enhance and develop FET History educators on other key aspects of NCS policy such as teaching methodology and assessment.

A further recommendation is that KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education should have in-service training programmes for FET History educators for the following reasons:

- More than 80% of the FET History educators in the Umlazi District obtained their pre and post matric education qualifications before 1994. Therefore, these educators were not exposed to the new content and assessment requirements of the new curriculum that was implemented in Grade 10 in 2006. Furthermore, many of these educators were not exposed to the latest trends in education, especially the shift from educator-centred to learner-centred pedagogy.
- In-service training should be offered to educators who consistently produce unsatisfactory Grade 12 results.

This should be developed in liaison with HEIs that are preferably provincially located. An Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) that offers relevant content and assessment focus areas should be developed and offered to underperforming FET History educators. After the course is completed, educators would have been sufficiently retrained to tackle the new aspects of the NCS FET History. Once the results of learners show an improvement, incentives such as salary bonuses should be offered to these relevantly qualified, dedicated and committed educators.

In this regard, Brazil did indeed turn their system of education around by offering salary incentives to successful educators. According to a round table conference convened by the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE), a subsequent report noted:

Brazil recognised the need to create new career paths for teachers, involving promotion on five levels and larger salary increases for each. Promotion to the next level could involve a salary increase of 25 percent. This meant that the salary of a good teacher could increase fourfold in the course of their career. Conditions include improved attendance, continuity in

the same school, and further study in the subject being taught... the bonuses proved attractive and successful. By 2010, of 227 000 eligible teachers and staff, 210 000 received some kind of bonus (Bernstein, 2011: 11).

It is a model or policy imperative that the South African government should seriously consider adopting or emulating if it desires to turn the system of education around in the near future.

A further recommendation worth considering by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is the re-opening of the erstwhile Teacher Training Colleges of Education, which was a policy decision taken at the ANC's 52nd National Conference held in Polokwane, Limpopo Province in 2007. One of the Polokwane Resolutions on education stated that, ~~the~~ the new curriculum must be accompanied with skills development of teachers. These colleges were closed by former Minister of Education, Kader Asmal in 2004. The re-opening of Colleges of Education can be used for sustained training of FET History educators on specific content focus areas, assessment requirements as well as other related methodology to ensure that teaching and learning is substantially improved. In this regard the Department of Basic Education should produce a policy outlining a coherent and cohesive plan of action highlighting these key policy initiatives that need to be introduced to improve the capacity of FET History educators *via* vigorous training.

7.2.3 Too many documents and administrative burdens

Conclusions

Respondents to both the quantitative and qualitative questionnaire indicated that there was a plethora of documents, in some instances, some of the policy documents were contradictory.

With the launch of the NCS FET History curriculum in 2006, educators were given the following policy documents:

- Overview Policy document on the *NCS*,
- The Subject Statement for FET History,
- The Learning Programme Guideline (LPG),
- Subject Assessment Guideline (SAG) document (2007),
- History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines (2009) and
- KwaZulu-Natal CASS Guideline Document-Grades 10 to 12.

In addition to these documents educators had to consult the LPG which prescribed the following when planning their programme for the year:

- Philosophy and policy,
- National Curriculum Statement Principles,
- Conceptual progression within and across the grades,
- Time allocation and weighting,
- Integration of learning outcomes and assessment standards,
- Learner Teacher Support Materials (LTSMs),
- Inclusivity and diversity,
- Assessment,
- Contexts and Content and
- Learning and teaching methodology (DoE, 2006: 6).

FET History educators had to wade through a sea of documents before they could plan their lessons, understand the new content and assessment requirements and then present this to learners. This is against the backdrop of having received only four days of training regarding the *NCS* policy and its implementation. It led to a lot of confusion and uncertainty among FET

History educators because many of the documents lacked alignment, were duplicated and in some instances contradictory; for example, *The Subject Statement for FET History and History Grade 12 Examination Guideline* had different content focus areas and examination requirements. Jansen concurred with these findings stating that the plethora of policies that teachers had to contend with led to confusion and placed heavier administrative demands on them. This translated into teacher spending less time in the classrooms (Daily News, 18/5/2009). It was not surprising that the indecisiveness on the part of the National Department of Education as to the content and assessment requirements impacted negatively on the morale of FET History educators and on the overall performance of learners. This was evident in the 2008 Grade 12 NSC examinations, which revealed an overall National pass rate for Grade 12 History of 70%, the province of KwaZulu-Natal obtained a pass rate of 60.9 % and the Umlazi District had 78% pass percentage (DBE, 2010a: 3). Furthermore, it seems that the National Department of Education: FET Directorate embarked on the implementation of the NCS as a work in progress project because the Subject Assessment Guideline Documents were only made available to educators in 2007, two years after the launch of the NCS.

Recommendations

In the light of the overload of policy documents that were given to FET History educators the following are recommended:

- One comprehensive document should be developed by relevant stakeholders. It should contain explicit information on the content and assessment requirements per grade in the FET band.
- Documents should be developed in a manner that is easy to read, understand and implement in the classroom. Essentially, it should be unambiguous and user-friendly.
- Access of the NCS policy documents must be made available to all stakeholders in the education fraternity, including Provinces, District Offices, Circuit Offices, Schools, and School Governing Bodies in either

printed or digital form. Intense advocacy campaigns regarding these policy documents should become the priority of all education stakeholders.

- The *NCS* policy document should have a life span of at least five years, so that there is consistency and stability within the system for quality and uninterrupted curriculum delivery to take place.

7.2.4 Design features versus content

Conclusions

The *NCS* FET History policy document is characterised by specific design features as stipulated in the overview document. These pivotal design features are referred to as Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs). There has been a substantial amount of literature on ~~Outcomes-Based Education~~ (OBE), which has been interchangeably and incorrectly used to refer to Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statement. In effect OBE has not been legislated as government policy regarding curriculum transformation in South Africa after 1994, it was actually one of the principles that underpinned the *NCS*.

According to respondents from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: FET Directorate there was ongoing debate among Curriculum Specialists as to what FET History educators should first focus on, Content or Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs) (refer to Chapter Six). This debate continued for months without any consensus being reached. It is inconceivable with a subject like History to start a lesson based on the prescribed LOs and ASs and thereafter teach the content. This method is unworkable with History because the content focus areas in the *NCS* FET are chronologically arranged according to a timeline, which needs to be rigidly followed. Therefore, it became imperative to begin with, the content first and thereafter refer to the LOs and ASs. However, many FET History educators began their lessons by focusing on prescribed LOs and ASs and thereafter made reference to the content not in any specific chronological

order. This caused untold confusion and anxiety amongst many FET History educators because it affected how teachers planned and prepared their formal and informal assessment for learners. Furthermore, there was no way of guaranteeing that by focusing on the LOs and ASs that critical areas of the content as well as key historical concepts would be adequately covered. The KwaZulu-Natal History Subject Specialists Committee made several submissions to the National Department of Education seeking clarity on this specific issue. It was only in 2007 that this anomaly clarified was by the National Department of Education when the Subject Assessment Guideline (SAG) policy was released to schools. It noted

In the National Curriculum Statement, assessment activities will be derived from the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards and the content will provide for assessment. Planning will begin with the allocation of content (DoE, 2007: 7).

Some of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards are not applicable to certain content focus areas in the FET History curriculum, for example in Grade 12, Learning Outcome 3 (Knowledge construction and communication) and Assessment Standard 1 (Identify when an interpretation of statistics may be controversial and engage critically with the conclusions presented by the data). In this case the FET History educator can only test this prescribed historical skill by teaching a specific content area that lends itself to this assessment standard.

Recommendations

Although the design features (LOs and ASs) form a critical part of the NCS, it must always be taught in collaboration with the prescribed content in the FET History curriculum. FET History educators should desist from focusing exclusively on teaching the LOs and ASs but rather focus on the content and the associated historical skills.

It is evident that not all LOs and ASs can be covered with specific content areas. Therefore, it is recommended all LOs and ASs should be covered at

least once a term (3 months) using the relevant content that is extracted from the educators work plan.

Another recommendation is that educators should ensure that the teaching and learning of FET History is undertaken in an integrated manner. Every lesson should demonstrate an assimilation of the content, the historical skills as reflected in the LOs and an assessment of whether learners have grasped the historical knowledge as prescribed in the ASs. Consideration should also be given to the level of question, the historical skill being assessed and the appropriate mark scheme. Ideally, educators should be workshopped on how to go about acquiring these important assessment skills. Further acquisition of knowledge on assessment related matters can be obtained through educators networking with a cluster of neighbouring schools to set high quality questions, which may be used for formal and informal assessments.

7.2.5 Monitoring and evaluation of the NCS

Conclusions

An overwhelming majority (87%) of the respondents to the quantitative questionnaire indicated that there was a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the NCS. This view was also shared among the respondents to the qualitative questionnaire. Theoretically, the FET History curriculum contained radically new content and assessment that needed to be understood before being taught to learners. This necessitated educators to be trained and in some cases retrained to ensure that the correct content and assessment message was being transmitted to learners in the classroom. However, the National Department of Education in re-engineering the entire system of education and implementing a new curriculum did not have a proper mechanism to monitor and evaluate whether the content and assessment aspects of the NCS policy were being accurately effected. This was evident when FET History educators complained incessantly about the new content areas and the lack of resource materials to assist them as well

as the poor performance of Grade 12 learners in the 2008 NSC examination (refer Chapter Two for details).

The lack of monitoring and evaluation of the NCS was identified and highlighted in the Diagnostic Report of the National Planning Commission (NPC) in June 2011. The NPC was established by President JG Zuma and led by Minister Trevor Manuel. It noted that the South African system of education was in crisis and it specifically stated the following:

Efforts to raise the quality of education for poor children have largely failed. Apart from a small minority of Black children who attend former White schools and a small minority of schools performing well in largely Black areas, the quality of public education remains poor. Literacy and numeracy test scores are low by African and global standards, despite the fact that government spends about 6 percent of GDP on education and South Africa's teachers are among the highest paid in the world (in purchasing power parity terms). Research evidence highlights the significance of factors or problems within the education system itself. These include the ongoing changes and amendments to curricula, the type of teacher training, inadequate support to teachers, teaching time compared to other activities and the availability of learning and teaching materials such as text books. Several other complex issues play a role in the quality of education. Curriculum design; language issues; the use of technology. Without dismissing any of these factors, our conclusion is that the main problems lie in teacher performance and the quality of school leadership. Furthermore teachers are poorly supported by the administration within education departments. Their task is made harder by the sporadic provision of books and other learning materials. Several efforts to upgrade teachers' skills have been largely ineffective (NPC, 2011: 14-15).

Recommendations

It is recommended that a Monitoring and Evaluation unit be established at the National, Provincial and District level to identify and address specific difficulties and challenges that especially FET History educators experience with regard to curricula changes.

This recommendation would be in line with the Ministry of Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation, located in the President's Office. The aim of the ministry is to ensure the continuous improvement in service delivery across three spheres of government (National, Provincial and Local) as well as other organs of state through performance monitoring and evaluation (www.thepresidency.gov.za). Therefore, it becomes necessary that the National and the KwaZulu-Natal Departments of Education introduce appropriate mechanisms so that effective monitoring and evaluation of all policies, such as the *NCS* takes place, in the pursuit of quality education.

Further, it is recommended that the Monitoring and Evaluation unit be managed by personnel from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, who have the necessary experience and expertise in curriculum as well as school management. In addition it should function independently of the monitors and implementers of the curriculum. Its task would be to first train and empower all education stakeholders including district officials, school management teams, educators and even school governing bodies on the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the *NCS* policy. Thereafter, the monitoring and evaluation of the *NCS* becomes mandatory and should be undertaken on an ongoing basis by Provincial and District Curriculum Specialists as well as the SMT to ensure compliance. Moreover, an instrument should be developed by the Monitoring and Evaluation unit to measure non-compliance regarding, for example, incapacity to implement the *NCS* policy. In this case, the FET educator who is not performing up to the expected standard should be first warned about the lack of compliance then face a disciplinary hearing and as a last resort be dismissed. This would send a strong message to other non-complaint FET educators and may be a

strategy of ensuring that there is adherence to education policy in the desire to achieve quality public education (Hanekom, 1987: 98-99).

7.2.6 Resource materials

Conclusions

The inadequate provision of Grade 12 History resources in particular, was a specific concern that respondents to the quantitative questionnaire raised. In order for the *NCS* to be implemented satisfactorily, educators required good quality resource materials to supplement their teaching, especially in the new content areas. Therefore, it is without doubt that more attention should be paid to the type of textbooks and learning materials that are provided to FET History educators. Some of the textbooks that appeared on the catalogue were questionable in terms of depth and quality.

Another finding showed that most FET Grade 12 History textbooks did not include the prescribed content that was to be examined in that particular year. This was attributed to the content being changed. Refer to Chapter Two: Grade 12 content changes from 2009 to 2012. In that regard, the FET History Curriculum Specialists had to develop resources for content areas that did not appear in school textbooks. Alternatively, in some cases FET History educators decided to develop their own curriculum support materials by referring to a number of different textbooks, which were not up to standard and these were indiscriminately given to learners. It is difficult to ascertain whether all Grade 12 History learners received copies of these resource materials.

At the Education Summit held in February 2011, the MEC for Education in the KwaZulu-Natal province noted that a major challenge facing most schools is the retrieval of school textbooks. He pointed out that the DoE could not, on a yearly basis, provide schools with new textbooks for learners. This was financially unsustainable and therefore urged schools to establish a proper retrieval system for textbooks with immediate effect.

The Provincial Intervention Team (PIT) was established by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education to support underperforming schools in all twelve districts throughout the province. At a recent feedback meeting in the Umlazi District, which was attended by the MEC, the Head of Department (HOD), District officials and School Management Teams, it was reported that many FET educators were not using textbooks as a resource to teach learners. This was largely because the NCS did not emphasise the use of textbooks in the teaching and learning process, it encouraged teachers to develop their own notes. This method worked to a large extent with teachers that were either committed or those that taught at well-resourced schools. Bloch (2009: 102) makes a controversial observation in this regard by stating that teachers simply do not know how to use a textbook and are even less adept at knowing how to get students to engage with the books. This may be attributed to a large cohort of educators, who teach in schools across South Africa are second language speakers of English and therefore not comfortable in teaching and reading books that are written in English. This invariably negatively impacts on the quality of tuition that the majority of learners obtain because in the final analysis, the Grade 12 NSC examination papers are set either in the English or Afrikaans.

This is of great concern since textbooks serve as a critical resource in ensuring that the curriculum is effectively implemented. For example, most FET History textbooks contain detailed and chronological flow of information on the content being covered, which is interspersed with historical sources, definitions of key concepts and a litany of graded assessment activities. In addition, textbooks play a significant role in consolidating the lesson that was taught in terms of content coverage as well as serving as a ready reference for assessment activities that learners can engage with in class or complete as homework.

Another finding that emerged after triangulating the responses from both the quantitative and qualitative questionnaire is that some schools simply did not order the prescribed textbooks. This is so because the *South African Schools*

Act 84 of 1996 created two categories of public schools namely Section 20 and Section 21.

Section 20 schools have their financial matters controlled by the administrative section in the Department of Education. From the budget allocated to a specific school, the stationery and textbooks allocations are procured by the Department of Education for that school. In addition, these schools have their utility accounts paid directly by the Department of Education. Section 21 Schools use the finances that are allocated by the Department of Education to order and pay for stationery, textbooks and also make payments for utility accounts and undertaking their own maintenance (KZN DoE, 2002: 17). In the light of this, many of the Section 21 schools do not use the money that is allocated for the purchase of textbooks, the monies are re-directed for example, to repair school infrastructure. Therefore, the insufficient acquisition and use of textbooks has impacted negatively on how learners have engaged with the FET History curriculum, leading, in some cases, to poor results (KZNDoe, 2011: 5).

Recommendations

FET History textbooks should be carefully screened against specific criteria by subject experts so that only books that subscribe to the highest quality in terms of layout, relevant content, as well as assessment activity are placed on the LTSM catalogue. FET History educators should be given the opportunity to select a textbook from the approved LTSM catalogue.

The value and importance of using a textbook in transmitting historical knowledge must be brought to the attention of the FET History educator. A training workshop for FET History educators on how to meaningfully use textbooks to unpack both salient aspects of the content and assessment should be scheduled.

In the main, FET History educators should desist from consulting a series of textbooks to prepare notes, worksheets and assessment activities. This is time-consuming and distracts educators from focusing on their core duties,

which is teaching and assessing learners' historical knowledge. Preferably, FET History educators should be encouraged to use one good textbook for their planning and teaching of learners. Alternatively, if FET History educators have the necessary capacity and skill to consult a variety of textbooks to prepare their own notes for onward distribution to learners this should be encouraged; a practice that should gradually be emulated by all educators in the Republic of South Africa.

The National Department of Education should devise clear policy guidelines on how schools can retrieve textbooks from learners. This would compel learners to return loaned textbooks and in the long run save the country a substantial amount of money that can be utilised elsewhere.

Finally, it is recommended that small libraries, school History societies or debating teams be established in schools to encourage reading and writing skills which are essential for the study of History in the FET band.

7.2.7 Streamline content

Conclusions

The triangulation of evidence from both the quantitative and qualitative questionnaire revealed that respondents suggested that the Grade 12 content in particular to be streamlined. Chapter Two indicates that certain topics in the Grade 12 curriculum change on an annual basis. This takes up a substantial amount of educators' time in terms of planning and preparing for the new content area. Some of the themes overlap and thus has caused much anxiety and stress amongst FET History educators.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the Grade 12 History content be streamlined so that themes are static for at least a five-year period. FET History educators can therefore plan in advance without having surprises as to what to teach and assess. The unnecessary overlap of the examinable content areas in both the Grade 12 History Papers 1 and 2 should be rectified immediately. In

keeping with this, some of the topics are too broad and vague. Topics should be unambiguously stated so that both educators and learners know exactly what is expected in terms of content and assessment so that sufficient preparations can be done for the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination, which is externally set.

Moreover, both the National and Provincial Departments should capacitate FET History educators on the new content so that teaching and learning becomes a meaningful exercise.

7.2.8 Assessment

Conclusions

According to the NCS policy document, assessment forms an integral part of the FET History curriculum. Therefore, some of the findings that emanated from the quantitative questionnaire indicated that with the launch of the NCS in 2006, many FET History educators did not understand the meanings of Learning Outcomes (LOs), Assessment Standards (ASs) and extended writing. Furthermore, it was noted that specific aspects of the ASs as contained in Subject Assessment Guideline (SAG) document for Grade 12 History were confusing and lacked clarity.

In the FET band of the History curriculum, learners were assessed on source work and extended writing. These assessments were undertaken against specific criteria that were found in the LOs and ASs. In this regard, FET History educators raised the following specific concerns:

- Learning Outcome 2 - Historical concepts. The associated assessment standards, for example, **E**xamine and explain the dynamics of changing power relations within societies studied and **C**ompare and contrast interpretations and perspectives of events... were difficult to attain with this learning outcome.
- Learning Outcome 3 - Knowledge construction and communication. The assessment standard, **I**dentify when an interpretation of statistics may be controversial and engage critically with the conclusions presented by

data was in most cases difficult to attain, especially with most of the prescribed content focus areas.

The Assessment Standards in the FET History curriculum authenticates and highlights the important cognitive skills of understanding, interpretation, analysing, evaluation and synthesis. However, in trying to access these historical skills through a variety of sources on a specific topic, FET History educators found that learners were unable to think like historians, because the enquiry approach did not require them to have a substantial knowledge base of the curriculum they were studying. Furthermore, this produced learners who had the necessary historical skills without substantive historical knowledge.

Another finding highlighted by FET History educators was the inability to use some of the LOs and ASs to assess specific skills as prescribed by the History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines as shown in the Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Various levels and skills that are used to assess Grade 12 source- based questions.

LEVELS OF SOURCE-BASED QUESTIONS		%
LEVEL 1 (L 1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extract relevant information and data from the sources. • Organise information logically. • Explain historical concepts. 	10%
LEVEL 2 (L 2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Categorise appropriate or relevant sources of information provided to answer the questions raised. • Analyse the information and data gathered from a variety of sources. • Evaluate the sources of information provided to assess the appropriateness of the sources for the task. 	40%
LEVEL 3 (L 3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpret and evaluate information and data from the sources • Engage with sources of information evaluating the usefulness of the sources for the task taking into account stereotypes, subjectivity and gaps in the evidence available. • Analyse historical concepts as social constructs. • Examine and explain the dynamics of changing power relations within the aspects of societies studied. • Compare and contrast interpretations and perspectives of peoples actions or events and changes to draw independent conclusions about the actions or events. • Identify when an interpretation of statistics may be controversial and engage critically with the conclusions presented by the data. 	50%

Source: DoE (2009: 5).

The Level 1 and Level 3 source-based questions require learners to explain and analyse historical concepts as social constructs. Grade 12 History educators found it difficult to draw a differentiation between these levels and therefore could not teach and test the appropriate skills to learners. Another

concern that FET History educators raised was the inclusion of new assessment task referred to as extended writing (refer to Table 7.2). According to the Grade 12 History Subject Assessment Guideline document, extended writing questions included two levels: the straightforward development of the given line of argument and the development of an independent line of argument.

Table 7.2: Level of questions that are used to assess Grade12 extended writing.

LEVEL OF QUESTIONS
<p>Level 1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> “ Discuss or describe, according to a given line of argument set out in the extended writing question. “ Plan and construct an argument, based on evidence, using the evidence to reach a conclusion.
<p>Level 2</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> “ Synthesise information to construct an original argument using evidence to support the argument. “ Sustain and defend a coherent and balanced argument with evidence. “ Write clearly and coherently in constructing the argument.

Source: DoE (2007: 31).

Extended writing was a new form of assessment, as FET History educators were accustomed to essay writing. The level 2 extended writing questions was more intricate as it required learners to use the information from the given historical sources as well as their own knowledge to respond to the question. Furthermore, the SAG document did not provide a rubric as to how to assess this genre of writing.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the confusion around the LOs and ASs should be streamlined into understandable historical skills that can be easily taught and assessed. In order to clarify the uncertainty regarding the LOs and ASs, Table 7.3 gives a straightforward outline of levels of question, historical skills and the percentage distribution per question.

Table 7.3: Levels of questions, historical skills and percentage distribution for source-based questions.

Levels of questions	Historical skills	Percentage
<p>Level 1</p> <p>Extraction of evidence and basic comprehension of sources</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “ Extract relevant evidence from source/s. “ Define historical concepts. 	30
<p>Level 2</p> <p>Interpretation of sources</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “ Classify evidence from source/s chronologically. “ Use evidence from source/s for historical explanation. “ Identify the perspective of the originator of the source/. “ Relate the sources to the wider context of the topic. 	40
<p>Level 3</p> <p>Analysis, evaluation and synthesis of sources</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “ Analyse the evidence from a variety of source/s. “ Evaluate the evidence from source/s by analysing and evaluating one or more sources with regard to: comparison, contrasting, reliability, usefulness and bias. “ Synthesise information from variety of sources to develop an original, coherent and balanced argument. 	30

Source: Adapted from DoE (2009: 5).

Owing to the lack of clarity regarding extended writing in the FET History assessment policy, it is recommended that essay writing as an important historical skill is re-introduced as a form of writing for learners studying History in the FET band. Table 7.4 gives information on essay writing.

Table 7.4: Levels of questions for essays.

LEVEL OF QUESTIONS
<p>Level 1: Narrative/descriptive essay</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">“ Develop a coherent narrative or descriptive essay according to the given line of argument.“ Plan and construct the essay based on evidence (Suggested descriptors: Discuss; explain, describe).
<p>Level 2: Discursive essay</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">“ Develop a coherent, balanced and an independent line of argument by synthesising pertinent information.“ Use relevant evidence, by citing examples to support the argument.“ Write clearly and coherently in constructing a balanced argument. (Suggested descriptors: Discuss critically; evaluation; substantiation . must be backed up with relevant examples or case studies).

Source: Adapted from DoE (2007: 31).

It is evident that these recommendations give clear direction as to how the content knowledge of the FET History curriculum would be assessed. It also tabulates the levels of difficulty of questions so that the curriculum caters for learners with different ability level. Finally, by adopting these recommendations both FET History educators and learners would know exactly what to anticipate regarding assessment of the content.

7.2.9 Curriculum Specialists

Conclusions

Respondents to the qualitative questionnaires pointed out that Curriculum Specialists in some of the districts in KwaZulu-Natal were responsible for the inadequate implementation of the NCS FET History. Respondents noted the following about FET History Curriculum Specialists:

- “ Insufficient number, none per district or an uneven spread across districts,
- “ Lack of capacity to provide adequate support and guidance on the NCS,

- “ A large number were appointed in 2006, after the National Department of Education training on the *NCS*; insufficient understanding of the demands of the *NCS* FET History,
- “ Insufficient experience teaching the *NCS*, consequently poor curriculum support offered to educators and
- “ A few were highly qualified, experienced and provided high levels of support to FET History educators on curriculum and assessment related matters.

A lack of a clear and tangible job description for FET History Curriculum Specialists also compromised the service offered to FET History educators. Many FET History Curriculum Specialists were involved in tasks unrelated to curriculum delivery and implementation.

Recommendations

Every effort must be made to appoint qualified, experienced and motivated Curriculum Specialists. As a minimum requirement, a Curriculum Specialist should have a Master of Arts degree in the subject applied for and should undergo a rigorous interview process as well as write a competency test to ensure that the most competent candidate is employed. This would lead to high levels of support and guidance that would then be provided to FET History educators culminating in the delivery of good quality education and resulting in an improvement in the overall pass rate among learners.

The job description of Curriculum Specialists must be clearly outlined. Generally, Curriculum Specialists are not involved in curriculum related matters; rather they are involved in, for example, school functionality, training of SMT ϕ and the monitoring of the NSC examinations. This leads to FET History Curriculum Specialists not focusing on the job at hand and are over-burdened and over-worked.

A further recommendation is that the National Department of Education should devise formulae regarding the number of schools that should be

supported by a Curriculum Specialist. The ideal scenario should be that one Curriculum Specialist should support a maximum of fifty schools. This would obviate the problem of fewer Curriculum Specialists supporting many schools, resulting in FET History educators getting more effective and efficient support, which may translate into quality teaching and learning in the classroom.

Finally, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education: FET Directorate should ensure that on-going support workshops presented by curriculum experts are held to capacitate FET History Curriculum Specialists on the latest policies and trends on curriculum and assessment related matters.

7.3 CONCLUSION

This Chapter focused on conclusions that were derived mainly from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data upon which tangible recommendations were put forward. It is evident from the findings of this study that, although comprehensively developed, the *NCS* policy was:

- “ Not effectively implemented across districts in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.
- “ The major role players in education were not adequately consulted.
- “ The training provided to Curriculum Specialists by both the National and Provincial Departments of Education were often superficial, disjointed and of a poor quality
- “ There was evidence of a plethora of contradictory policy documents.
- “ FET History educators often spent more time on the design features of the *NCS* rather than on content related matters.
- “ There was inadequate provision of resources like textbooks and, where available, were not effectively utilised.
- “ There was a lack of effective monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the *NCS* at all levels.

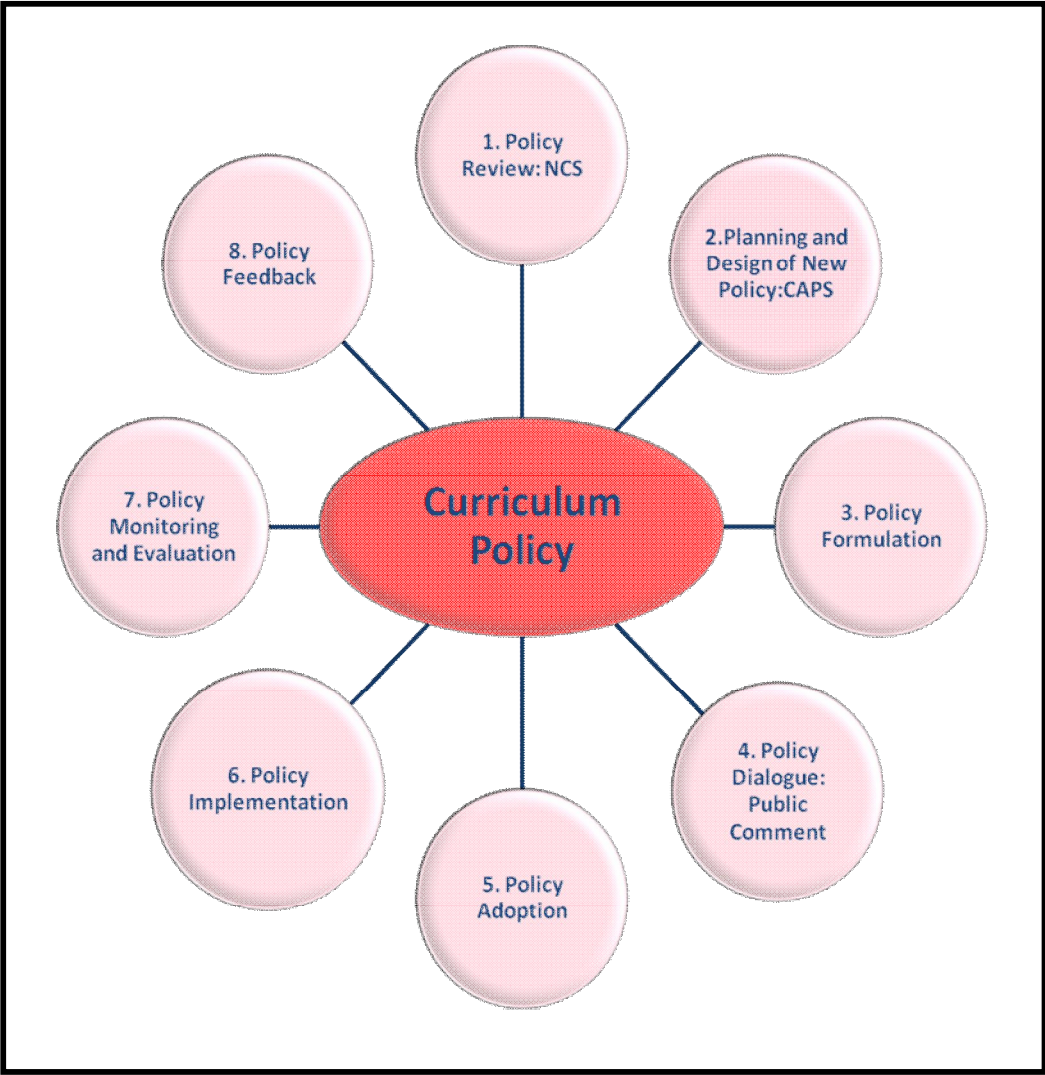
- “ Some of the content focus areas, especially in the Grade 12 FET History curriculum were changed on an annual basis, thus creating uncertainty.
- “ Specific aspects related to assessment of the FET History content was ambiguous and unattainable and finally FET History Curriculum Specialists should be appointed on specific criteria such as experience and expertise and their job description needs greater clarification.

In response to these findings, tangible and practical recommendations have been suggested owing to the researcher's interactions with FET History stakeholders at the District, Provincial and National levels within the Department of Basic Education, which should be given serious consideration.

Part of the affirmation of the hypothesis of this study is that the National Department of Basic Education realised that the implementation of *NCS* was indeed flawed. Consequently, the current Minister of Basic Education, Angela Motshekga, appointed a task team to review the implementation of the *National Curriculum Statement*. At the end of 2009, the task team released a report, in which it recommended that the *NCS* be streamlined and strengthened and be referred to as *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)* (DBE, 2009: 62).

In the light of this development, it would be prudent for both the National and Provincial Departments of Education to examine and implement the recommendations suggested in this study for the implementation of *CAPS*. It is envisaged that the implementation of *CAPS* for Grade 10, will take place in 2012 in all public schools in the Republic of South Africa. To support the implementation of *CAPS* a Curriculum Implementation Model has been developed to assist, in particular, FET History Curriculum Specialists throughout the Republic of South Africa to effectively implement *CAPS* in 2012.

Figure 7.1: A proposed model for the implementation of Curriculum Policy



In closing, the quality of education in South Africa can improve in the next decade, if curriculum policies are effectively developed and efficiently implemented and the following aspects are given due consideration:

- Politicians need to intervene to restore government authority over public schools.
- The appointment of credible and visionary leadership at all levels within the education sector.
- Ensure that there is strong and effective school management, which entrenches internal accountability, processes and establishes routines.
- Conduct ongoing professional development of educators to enhance knowledge, skills and values.
- Improve the culture of teaching and learning to strive for excellence.

Only when the above are accomplished can young South Africans realise Nelson Mandela's ideal of, *'Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world'*.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Government Gazettes, Policy Documents and Acts

African National Congress. 1994. **A Policy Framework for Education and Training**. Braamfontein. ANC.

African National Congress. 1994. **Reconstruction and Development Programme: A policy framework**. Johannesburg: Umanyano Publication.

Department of Education. 1995a. **Curriculum Framework for General and Further Education and Training. A discussion document**. Pretoria. Department of Education.

Department of Education. 1995b. Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa: First Steps to a Development of a New System. **White Paper on Education and Training. Notice 196 of 1995, 15 March 1996. Government Gazette. 357 (16312)**.

Department of Education. 1997a. **Curriculum 2005: Lifelong Learning through a National Qualifications Framework**. Report of the Ministerial Committee for Development Work on the NQF. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 1997b. **Curriculum 2005: Lifelong Learning For the Twenty-First Century – A User's Guide**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 1997c. **Teacher Development from Norms and Standards for teacher's education training and development: Discussion Document**. Pretoria. Government Printer

Department of Education. 2001. **The Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2002. **Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (Schools)**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2003a. **National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General): Overview**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2003b. **National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General) History**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2005a. **The National Senior Certificate: A Qualification at Level 4 on The National Qualifications Framework (NQF)**. Pretoria. Department of Education.

Department of Education. 2005b. **National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General). Learning Programme Guidelines History**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2006. **National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General): Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG): History**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2007. **National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General): Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG): History**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2008. National Examination and Assessment: Report on the National Senior Certificate Examination Results. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Education. 2009a. **History Grade 12 Examination Guidelines**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Basic Education. 2009b. **National Examination and Assessment: Report on the National Senior Certificate Examination Results**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Basic Education. 2010a. **Draft History National Senior Certificate Report**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Department of Basic Education. 2010b. **National Examination and Assessment: Report on the National Senior Certificate Examination Results**. Pretoria. Department of Basic Education.

Department of Basic Education. 2011. **Report on the Annual National Assessments: 2011**. Pretoria. Department of Basic Education.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture. 2002. **Towards Effective School Management- A Guide to Norms and Standards for Schooling**. Ulundi. Internal Communications and Publications.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2008. **Annual Report 2007/08**.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2008. **Examination and Assessment: 2008 National Senior Certificate Results**. Pietermaritzburg. Department of Education Printer.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2009. **Annual Performance Plan 2008-2009**. Pietermaritzburg. KZNDoE.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2009. **Examination and Assessment: 2009 National Senior Certificate Results**. Pietermaritzburg. Department of Education Printer.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2010. **Examination and Assessment: 2010 National Senior Certificate Results**. Pietermaritzburg. Department of Education Printer.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education 2010. **Strategic Plan. 2010/11 to 2014/15**. Pietermaritzburg. KZN Department of Education.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2011. **Report on the findings of the Provincial Intervention Team – Umlazi District**. Pietermaritzburg. Department of Education Printer.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2011. **KZN Education Summit 2011**. Pietermaritzburg. Natal Witness.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. 2011. **Education News**. Pietermaritzburg. Internal Communications and Publications.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. September 2011. **Provincial Intervention Team Report-Umlazi District**. Pietermaritzburg. Internal Communications and Publications.

Mozambiquan Ministry of Education and Culture. 1992. **Towards Education for All: A Development Brief for Education, Culture and Training**. Windhoek. Ministry of Education and Culture.

Republic of South Africa. 1994. **White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development Programme**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1995. **White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1995. **South African Qualifications Authority Act 1995**. No. 58 of 1995. Government Gazette, No. 16725. 4 October.

Republic of South Africa. Office of the President. **Growth, Employment and Redistribution: A Macro Economic Strategy**. Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. **Labour Relations Act. No. 65 of 1996**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. **The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa**. Act. No. 108 of 1996. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. **National Education Policy Act**. Act No. 27 of 1996. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. **Growth, Employment and Redistribution: A Macro Economic Strategy**. Pretoria: Office of the President.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. **South African Schools Act 1996**. No. 84 of 1996. Government Gazette, No. 1867. 15 November. Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa. 1997. **White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 1998. **Further Education and Training Act 1998**. No. 98 of 1998. Government Gazette, No. 19421. 2 November. Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa. 2003. **Batho Pele Handbook on Service Delivery**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2003. **Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment. Act No. 53 2003**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2006. **Ministerial Committee on Literacy Final Report, Department of Education**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2008. **National Qualifications Framework Bill**. August. Pretoria.

2. Books

Ahuja, R. 2002. **Research Methods**. New Delhi. Rawat Publications.

Anderson, G. & Arsenault, N. 1998. **Fundamental of Educational Research**. London. Taylor & Francis.

Anderson, J.E. 1994. **Public Policy making: An Introduction.** 2nd Edition. Boston. Houghton Mifflin.

Anderson, G. & Arsenault, N. 1998. **Fundamental of Educational Research.** London. Taylor & Francis.

Arvidson, G. 1992. Increasing the Utilisation of Evaluation by Matching the Interests of the Principal and the Evaluator. In: Mayne, J., Bemelmans-Videc, M.L. Hudson, J. & Connor, R. (Eds.). 1992. **Learning for International Experiences.** Amsterdam. Elsevier Science Publishers.

Asmal, K. and James, W. (Eds.). 2002. **Spirit of the Nation: Reflections on South Africa's Educational Ethos.** Claremont. New Africa Education and the HSRC in association with DoE.

Babbie, E. and Mouton, J. 2004. **The Practice of Social Research.** Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Baker, R.F., Michaels, R.M., & Preston, E.S. 1975. **Public policy development: linking the technical and political processes.** New York. John Wiley.

Banting, K.G. 1986. The Social Policy Process. In: Bulmer, M., Banting, K.G., Blume, S.S., Carley, M. & Weiss, C.H. 1986. **Social Science and Social Policy.** London. Allen & Unwin.

Bassey, M. 1999. **Case study research in educational settings.** Buckingham and Philadelphia. Open University Press.

Bates, D.L., & Elredge, D.L. 1980. **Strategy and Policy Analysis Formulation and Implementation.** Dubuque. Brown Company Publishers.

Bertram, C. 2003. **Understanding Research: An introduction to reading research.** (2nd Ed.) Scottsville. UKZN Printer.

Best, J.W. & Kahn, J.V. 2003. **Research in Education.** 9th Edition. Boston. A and B Publishers.

Bless, C. & Higson-Smith, C. 1995. **Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective.** 2nd Edition. Kenwyn. Juta & Co.

Boeije, H. 2010. **Analysis in Qualitative Research.** Los Angeles. Sage Publications.

Bogdan, R.C. & Bilken, S.K. 1982. **Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods**. Massachusetts. Allyn and Bacon.

Bloch, G. 2009. **The Toxic Mix**. Cape Town. Tafelberg.

Blume, S.S., Carley, M. & Weiss, C.H. 1986. **Social Science and Social Policy**. London. Allen & Unwin.

Bond, P., & Khosa, M. (Eds.). 2000. **An RDP Policy Audit**. HSRC Press. JHB

Botes, P.S., & Roux, N. L. 1996. Introduction to Public Administration and Management. In: Botes, P.S., Brynard, P.S., Fourie, D.I., & Roux, N.L. 1996. **Public Administration and Management. A Guide to Central, Regional and Municipal Administration and Management**. Pretoria. Kagiso.

Bouser, C.F., McGregor, J.R., & Oster C.V. 1996. **Policy Choices and Public Action**. NJ. Prentice Hall.

Brock-Utne, B. 2000. **Whose Education for All? The Re-colonisation of the African Mind?** New York. Falmer.

Brunton, C. *et al* (Eds.). 2003. **Education Labour Relation Council - Policy Handbook for Educators**. Durban. Universal Print Group.

Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2007. **Business Research Methods**. 2nd Edition. London. Oxford University Press.

Brynard, P., & Erasmus, K. (Eds.). 1995. **Public Management and Administration Case Study-Resource Book**. Pretoria. Van Schaik Publishers.

Brynard, P. 2010. Policy Decision Making. In: Cloete, F. & Wissink, H. (Eds.). **Improving Public Policy**. 4th Edition. Pretoria. Van Schaik Publishers.

Chisholm, L. 2004. **Changing Class: Education and Social Change in Post-Apartheid South Africa**. Cape Town. Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC).

Christie, P. 2002. OBE and unfolding policy: Lessons to be learned. In: Gultig, J., Hoadley, U., & Jansen, J. **Curriculum From Plans to Practices: Reader**. Oxford. Cape Town.

Cloete, F., Wissink, H., & Coning de C. (Eds.). 2010. **Improving Public Policy from Theory to Practice**. 4th Edition. Cape Town. Van Schaik Publishers.

Cohen, L., & Manion, L. 1995. **Research Methods in Education**. Newbury Park. Sage.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K. 2007. **Research Methods in Education**. 6th Edition. London. Routledge.

Collis, J. & Hussey, R. 2003. **Business Research: A Practical Guide For Undergraduate and Post-Graduate Students**. New York. Palgrave Macmillan.

Coolican, H. 1992. **Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology**. London. Hodder & Stoughton.

Cooper. D.R., & Schindler, P.S. 2003. **Business Research Methods**. Eighth Edition. New Dehli. Tata McGraw Hill.

Crabtree, B.F. & Miller, M.L. 1999. (Eds.). **Doing Qualitative Research**. 2nd Edition. London. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. 1994. **Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches**. Thousand Oaks. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. 2009. **Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative & Mixed Approaches**. 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks. Sage Publications.

Daniel, J., Habib, A., & Southall, R. (Eds.). 2003. **State of the Nation: South Africa 2003-2004**. Cape Town. HSRC Press.

Dawson, R. 1994. **Make the right decision every time**. London. Nicholas Brealey.

Denzin, N.K. 1970. **The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods**. Chicago. Aldine.

Denzin, N. K and Lincoln, Y. S. 1998. **Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials**. London. Sage Publications.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (Ed.). 2003. **Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry**. 2nd Edition. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Doyle, M. 2002. Public Policy Management. In: Van der Waldt, G, Van Niekerk, D., Doyle M., Knipe A., & Du Toit, D. **Managing for Results in Government**. Sandown. Heinemann.

Dubrick, M. & Romzek, B. 1999. **American public administration: politics and management of expectations.** New York. Macmillan.

Dror, Y. 1968. **Public policy-making re-examined.** Pennsylvania. Chandler.

Dror, Y. 1983. **Public Policy Analysis and Development: Training Module for Senior Government Executives.** Maastricht. European Institute of Public Administration.

Durrheim, K. & Wassenaar, D. 2002. Putting design into practice: writing and evaluating research proposals. In M. TerreBlanche & K. Durrheim (Eds.). **Research in practice: applied methods for the social sciences.** 2nd Edition. Cape Town. University of Cape Town Press.

Du Toit, D., Knipe, A., Van Niekerk, D., Van der Waldt, G., & Doyle, M. (Eds.). 2002. **Service Excellence In Governance.** Cape Town. Heinemann.

Du Toit, D.F.P., & Van der Waldt, G. 1999. **Public Administration and Management: The Grassroots.** Cape Town. Juta.

Dunn, W.N. 1981. **Public Policy Analysis: An Introduction.** Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.

Dunn, W.N. 1994. **Public Policy Analysis: An Introduction.** 2nd Edition. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.

Dye, T.R. 1984. **Understanding Public Policy.** Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.

Ellis, J. 1984. **Education, Repression and Liberation: Namibia.** World University Service. London.

Fox, W., Schwella, E., & Wissink, H. 1991. **Public management.** Cape Town. Juta.

Fox, W., & Meyer, I.H. 1995. **Public Administration Dictionary.** Cape Town. Juta.

Fowler, F. J. 1993. **Survey and Research Methods.** 2nd Edition. Newbury Park. Sage Publications.

Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. 2003. **How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education.** 5th Edition. San Francisco. McGraw Hill.

- Garbers, J. G. (Ed.). 1996. **Effective Research in the Human Sciences**. Cape Town. Van Schaik.
- Gorsuch, R. L. 1983. **Factor Analysis**. 2nd Ed. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Hillsdale.
- Grindle, M.S. 1980. Policy content and context in implementation. In Grindle, M.S. (Ed.). **Politics and policy implementation in Third World**. Princeton. Princeton University Press.
- Grindle, M.S., & Thomas, J.W. 1991. **Public choices and policy change: the political economy of reform in developing countries**. Baltimore. John Hopkins University Press.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. 1994. Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). **Handbook of qualitative research**. London. Sage Publications.
- Gultig, J., Hoadley, U., & Jansen, J. (Eds.). 2002. **Curriculum. From Plans to Practices**. Cape Town. Oxford University Press.
- Gustavasson, B. (Ed.). 2007. **The principles of knowledge creation: research methods in the social sciences**. Massachusetts. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Hall, K. & Ozerk, K. 2008. **Primary Curriculum and Assessment: England and Other Countries**. Cambridge. University of Cambridge.
- Hanekom, S.X. 1987. **Public Policy: Framework and Instrument for Action**. Johannesburg. Macmillan.
- Hanekom, S.X. 1992. **Public Policy: Framework and Instrument for Action**. Pretoria. Southern Book Publishers.
- Hanf, K., & Toonen, A.J. 1985. **Policy Implementation in Federal and Unitary Systems**. Boston. Kluwer.
- Harley, K., & Wedekind, V. 1993. Political change, curriculum change and social formation, 1990 to 2002. In: Chisholm, L. 2004. **Changing Class: Education and Social Change in Post-Apartheid South Africa**. Cape Town. Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC).
- Hartshorne, K. 1999. **The Making of Education Policy in South Africa**. Cape Town. Oxford University Press.

- Henning, E, van Rensburg, W and Smit, B. 2004. **Finding your way in qualitative research.** Pretoria. Van Schaik.
- Hogwood. B.W., & Gunn, L.A. 1984. **Policy Analysis for the Real World.** Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Hood, C. 1993. Evaluation and Policy Change. In: Peters, B.G. 1993. **American Public Policy: Promise and Performance.** Chatham. Chatham House Publishers.
- Hoogvelt, A. 1997. **Globalisation and the Postcolonial World: the new political economy of development.** Basingstoke. Macmillan.
- Howlett, M., & Ramesh, M. 1995. **Studying Public Policy.** New York. Oxford University Press.
- Jansen, J. 1999. Why Outcomes - Based Education Will Fail. An Elaboration. In: Jansen, J., & Christie, P. (Eds.). **Changing Curriculum: Studies on Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa.** Cape Town. Juta.
- Jansen, J. 2001. Rethinking Education Policy Making in South African. Symbols of Change , Signals of Conflict. In: Young, M & Kraak, A. (Eds.) **Education in Retrospect: Policy and Implementation Since 1990.** Johannesburg. HSRC Press.
- Jansen, J. 2005. Educationally essential: Teachers, textbooks and time. In Brown, S. (Ed.). **Conflict and Governance.** Institute for Justice and Reconciliation. Cape Town.
- Jensen, K.B. (Eds.). 2002. **A Handbook of Media and Communication Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies.** London. Routledge.
- Jones, C.O. 1984. **An Introduction to the Study of Public Policy.** 3rd Edition. Monterey. Brooks.
- Kirk, J., & Miller, M.L. 1986. **Reliability and validity in qualitative research.** Beverly Hills. Sage Publications.
- Kordes, F.G. 1992. Policy Evaluation and the Netherlands Court of Audit. In: Kraak, A., & Young, M. 2001. **Education in Retrospect: Policy and implementation Since 1990.** Pretoria. Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC).

Lindblom, C.E. 1972. **The Policy Making Process**. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.

Lineberry, R.L. 1977. **American public policy: what government does and what difference it makes**. New York. Harper & Row.

Lubisi, C., Wedekind, V., Parker, B., & Gultig, J. (Eds.). **Understanding outcomes-based education: Knowledge, curriculum and assessment in South Africa**. South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE) & DoE.

Malcolm, C. 2001. Implementation of Outcomes Based Approaches to Education in Australia and South Africa: A Comparative Study. In Sayed, Y., & Jansen, J. **Implementing Education Policies. The South African Experience**. Cape Town. UCT Press.

Manganyi, N.C. 2001. Public Policy and the Transformation of Education in South Africa. In Sayed, Y., & Jansen, J.D. (Eds.). **Implementing Education Policies: The South African Experience**. Cape Town. UCT Press.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. B. 1989. **Designing qualitative research**. 3rd Edition. Thousand Oaks. Sage Publications.

McCracken, G. D. 1988. **The Long Interview; Qualitative Research Methods**. London. Sage Publications.

Maylor, H. 1996. **Project Management**. London. Pitman.

Mayne, J., Bemelmans-Videc, M.L., Hudson, J.& Connor, R.(Eds.). 1992. **Learning for International Experiences**. Amsterdam. Elsevier Science Publishers.

Mouton, J. 2001. **How to succeed in your Master's and Doctoral studies. A South African guide and resource book**. Pretoria. Van Schaik.

Mazmanian, P.A., & Sabatier D.A. 1995. A Conceptual Framework of the Implementation Process. In Theodoulou, S.Z. & Cahn, M.A. (Eds.). 1995. **Public Policy: The Essential Readings**. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.

Mazrui, A. A.1978. **Political Values and the Educational Class in Africa**. Berkeley. University of California Press.

Mckay, V., & Romm, N. 1992. **People's Education in theoretical perspective: towards the development of a critical humanist approach**. Cape Town. Maskew Miller Longman.

McMillan, J.H., & Schumacher, S. 2001. **Research in Education: A Conceptual Introduction**. Virginia. Longman.

Meyns, P. 1991. The new world order and Southern Africa in the 1990s. In A. van Nieuwkerk and G. van Staden (Eds.). **Southern Africa at the Crossroads**. Johannesburg. South African Institute of International Affairs.

Munslow, B., and P. Fitzgerald. 1997. Search for a development strategy: The RDP and beyond. In Fitzgerald, P., McLennan, A., & Munslow, B. (Eds.). **Managing sustainable development in South Africa**. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Mutahaba, G., Baguma, R. & Halfani, M. 1993. **Vitalizing African public administration for recovery and development**. Connecticut. Kumarian.

Nachmias, C. & Nachmias, D. 1981. **Research Methods in the Social Sciences**. 2nd Edition. St. Martins. New York.

Nelson Mandela Foundation. 2005. **Emerging Voices: A Report on Education in South African Rural Communities**. HSRC Press. Cape Town.

Neuman, W. 1997. **Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches**. 3rd edition. Needham Heights. Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, W. L. 2003. **Social Research Methods, Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches**. 5th Edition. Boston. Allyn and Bacon.

Patton, M. Q. 1990. **Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods**. 2nd Edition. Newbury Park. Sage Publications.

Patton, M. Q. 2002. **Qualitative evaluation and research methods**. 3rd Edition. Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

Picciano, A.G. 2004. **Education Research Primer**. London. Continuum.

Pampallis, J. 1991. **Foundations of the New South Africa**. Cape Town. Maskew Miller Longman.

Pampallis, J. 2005. Introductory Essay. In **Submissions on Apartheid in Education**. Department of Education. Pretoria. STE Publishers.

Pepper, D. 2008. **Primary Curriculum change: Directions of travel in 10 countries**. London. Qualifications and Curriculum Authority.

Peters, B.G. 1993. **American Public Policy: Promise and Performance.** Chatham. Chatham House Publishers.

Preece, R. 1994. **An Introduction to Academic Research and Dissertation Writing.** London. Continuum.

Pressman, J.L., & Wildavsky, X. 1973. **Implementation.** Los Angeles. University of California Press.

Quade, E.S. 1975. **Analysis for public decisions.** New York. American Elsevier Publishing Company.

Ranney, A. 1968. **Political Science and Public Policy.** Chicago. Markham.

Raimond, P. 1993. **Management Projects: Design, Research and Presentation.** London. Chapman & Hall.

Richards, L. 2005. **Handling qualitative data: A practical guide: Part 1.** London. Sage Publications.

Rist, R.C. (Ed.). 1995. **Policy evaluation: linking theory to practice.** Aldershot. Elgar.

Sabatier, P.A., & Hanf, K. 1985. Policy learning in inter-organisational structures. In Hanf, K., & Toonen, T.A. **Policy implementation in federal and unitary systems: questions of analysis and design.** Netherlands. Martinus Nijhoff.

Sargent, C., Byrne, A., O'Donnell, S., & White, W. 2010. **Thematic Probe Curriculum review in the INCA countries.** United Kingdom. National Foundation for Educational Research.

Sayed, Y., & Jansen, J. (Eds.). 2001. **Implementing Education Policies. The South African Experience.** Cape Town. UCT Press.

Schurink, E.M. 1998. Designing qualitative research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.). **Research at grass roots-a primer for the caring professions.** Pretoria. Van Schaik.

Sekaran, U. 1992. **Research Methods for Business: A skills Building Approach.** (4th Edition). India. Replika Press.

Seliger, H.W., & Shohamy, E. 1989. **Second Language Research Methods.** Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Shafritz, J.M. (Ed.). 1998. **International Encyclopaedia of Public Policy and Administration**. Boulder. Westview.

Singleton, J.R. & Straits, B.C. 1999. **Approaches to Social Research**. 3rd Edition. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Sommer, B. & Sommer, R. 1986. **A Practical Guide to Behavioural Research: Tool and Techniques**. 2nd Edition. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Stake, R. E. 1994. Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). **Handbook of Qualitative Research**. California. Sage Publications.

Stake, R. E. 1995. **The art of case study research**. California. Sage Publications.

Steyn, A. G. W., Smit, C. F., Du Toit, S. H. C., & Strasheim, C. 1994. **Modern Statistics in Practice**. Pretoria. J. L. van Schaik.

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (Eds.). 2003. **Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research**. USA. Sage Publications.

Taylor, S.J. & Bogdan, R. 1984. **Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods: The Search for Meanings**. New York. John Wiley & Sons.

Tesch, R. 1990. **Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools**. London. Falmer.

Thompson, D. 1996. **The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English**. 9th Edition. Oxford. Clarendon.

Tikly, L., & Motala, S. 2003. Changing the System. EPU Quarterly Review of Education and Training in South Africa, Vol.2. In Chisholm, L., Motala, S. & Vally, S., (Eds.). **South African Education Policy Review**. Heinemann. Sandown.

Tuckman, B.W. 1987. **Conducting Educational Research**. New York. Javonich Press.

Unterhalter, E. *et al* (Eds.). 1991 **Apartheid Education and Popular Struggles**. Johannesburg. Raven Press.

Valadez, J., & Bamberger, M. 1994. **Monitoring and Evaluating Social Programs in Developing Countries**. Washington. World Bank.

Valelly, R.M.1993. Public Policy for Reconnected Citizenship. In: Ingram, H., & Smith, S.R. (Eds.) 1993. **Public Policy for Democracy**, Washington. The Brookings Institution.

Vally, S., & Spreen, C.A. 1998. Education Policy and Implementation Developments, February to May 1998. In: Chisholm, L., Motala, S., & Vally, S.(Eds.) **South African Education Policy Review 1993-2000**. Johannesburg. Heinemann.

Van der Waldt, G., & Knipe, A 1998. **Project Management for Strategic Change and Upliftment**. Cape Town. Oxford University Press.

Van Niekerk, K., Van der Waldt, G., & Jonker, A. 2001. **Governance, Politics and Policy in South Africa**. Cape Town. Oxford University Press.

Vedung, E. 1997. **Public policy and program evaluation**. New Brunswick. Transaction Books.

Walliman, N. (2008). **Your Research Project**. 2nd Edition. London. Sage Publications.

Warwick, D.P. 1982. **Bitter pills: population policies and their implementation in eight developing counties**. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Weiner, M. (Ed.). 1997. **Japans' Minorities: The Illusion of Homogeneity**. London. Routledge.

Wildavsky, A. 1979. **The Art and Craft of Policy Analysis**. London. Macmillan.

Willemse, I. 2009. **Statistical Methods and Calculation Skills**. 3rd Edition. Cape Town. Juta & Company.

Wilson, A, Williams, M, Hancock, B. 2000. **Research Approaches in Primary Care**. 1st Edition. Oxon. Radcliffe.

Woll, P. 1974. **Public Policy**. Boston. Winthrop.

Yin, R. K. 1994. **Case study research: Design and methods**. 2nd Edition. London. Sage Publications.

Zajda, J.I. (Ed.). 2005. **International Handbook on Globalisation, Education and Policy Research**. Netherlands. Springer.

3. Journal Articles

Alderuccio, M.C. 2010. An investigation of global/local dynamics of curriculum transformation in sub-Saharan Africa with special reference to the Republic of Mozambique. **Journal of Comparative and International Education**. Vol. 40(6): 727-739.

Berthelemy, J. 2005. To What Extent are African Education Policies Pro-poor? **Journal of African Economies**. Vol. 15(3).

Cameron, R. 2009. New Public Management Reforms in the South African Public Service: 1999-2009. **Journal of Public Administration**. Vol. 44. (4.1): 910-942.

Chikulo, B. C. 2003 **Development Policy in South Africa: A Review**. 4(2).

Chisholm, L. 1994. Policy and critique in South African educational research. **Transformation**. 3 (3): 149-160.

Chisholm, L. 2005. The making of South Africa's National Curriculum Statement. **Journal of Curriculum Studies**. 37(2): 193-208.

Chisholm, L., & Leyendecker, R. 2008. Curriculum reform in sub-Saharan Africa: when local meets global. In: Cowen, R. & Kazamias, A.M. (Eds.). **International handbook of comparative education**. New York. Springer. 685-702.

Chisholm, L., Soudien, C., Vally, S., & Gilmour, D. 1999. Teachers and structural adjustment in South Africa. **Educational Policy**. 13 (4): 386-401.

Crabtree, B.F. & Miller, M.L. 1992. Primary Care Research: A Multimethod Typology and Qualitative Road Map. **Doing Qualitative Research**. 3 (28).

Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A., & Pease, S. 1983. Teacher Evaluation in the Organisational Context; A Review of the Literature in **Review of Educational Research**. Fall. Vol. 53(3).

Daun, H. 1992. Neo-liberalism, Structuralism and Primary Education in Mozambique. **Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA): Education Division Documents**. No.58. Stockholm. SIDA.

Davies, D., & Dodd, J. 2002. Qualitative research and the question of rigor. **Qualitative Health research**. 12(2): 279-289.

De Coning, C.B. 1994. Review on policy skills. **Development Southern Africa**. 11(2).

DPMN Bulletin. 2003. Volume X, Number 2, April.

Dror, Y. 1983a. Policy-gambling: a preliminary exploration. **Policy Studies Journal**. 1(1).

Fataar, A. 2001. Engaging the narrowing education policy trajectory in South Africa. **Southern African Review of Education**. 5(2).

Forbes, M., & Lynn, L.E. 2005. How Does Public Management Affect Government Performance? Findings from International Research. **Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory**. Vol. 15. February: 559-584.

Godsell, G. 1983. Research Bulletin. **Journal for the South African Plan for Research in the Human Sciences**. 13(1): 9-12.

Greenstein, R. 1997. New policies and the challenges of budgetary constraints. **EPU Quarterly Review of Education and Training in South Africa**. 4 (4): 1-17.

Harlech-Jones, B. 1992. Reviewing education in an independent Namibia. **Namibia Review**. 17: 1-6.

Hartslief, O., & Auriacombe, C. 2009. Fourth Generation Evaluation Research as a Form of Qualitative Constructivist Inquiry: The Case of the Presidential Izimbizo. **Journal of Public Administration**. 44. (4.2): 866-882.

Jansen, J.D. 1995. Understanding social transition through the lens of curriculum policy: Namibia and South Africa. **Journal of Curriculum Studies**. 27(3): 245-261.

Jansen, J.D. 1998. Curriculum Reform in South Africa: A Critical Analysis of Outcomes Based Education. **Cambridge Journal of Education**. 28(3): 321-331.

Jansen, J.D. 1999. The school curriculum since apartheid: intersections of politics and policy in the South African transition. **Journal of Curriculum Studies**, 31(1): 57 - 67.

Johnson, M. 1967. Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory. **Educational Theory**. Volume 17 (2):127-140.

King, K., Palmer, R., & Hayman, R. 2005. Bridging research and policy on education, training and their enabling environments. **Journal of International Development**. 17(6): 803-17.

Kroukamp, H. 1999. Accelerating the transformation of public delivery in South Africa: Challenges in the new millennium. **Journal of Public Administration**. Vol. 34(4).

Lambert, W.E., R.C. Hodgson, R.C. Gardner, and S. Fillenbaum. 1960. Evaluational reactions to spoken language. **Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology**. 60(1): 44-51.

Louw, T., & Du Toit, F. 2000. The viability of Outcomes-based Education (OBE) as a model for education in South Africa. **Vista Learning and Teaching**. 14(1): 14-21.

Lowi, T.J. 1963. American business, public policy, case studies and political theory. **World Politics**.16.

Marginson, S. 1999. After Globalization: Emerging politics of education. **Journal of Education Policy**. 14:19-31.

Maxwell, J. 1992. Understanding validity in qualitative research. **Harvard Educational Review**, 62(3): 279-300.

Ndoye, M. 1997. Globalization, endogenous development and education in Africa. **Prospects**. 27: 79-84.

Patton, E. & Appelbaum, S.H. 2003. The case for case studies in management research. **Management Research News**, 26(5), 60-71.

Penceliah Y., & Moodley, S. 2002. Serving the Public in the New Millennium: A South African Perspective. **Journal of Public Administration**. Vol. 37(1).

Rein, M., Rabinowitz, F., & Pressman, J. 1976. Guidelines: a plethora of forms, authors and functions. **Policy Sciences**.

Rosenmund, M. 2000. Approaches to international comparative research on curricula and curriculum-making processes. **Journal of Curriculum Studies**. 32 (5): 599-606.

Sabatier, P.A. 1986. Top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation research: a critical analysis and suggested synthesis. **Journal of Public Policy**. 6(1).

Sampson, J.F., & Lee, L.J. 1990. A practical approach to program evaluation. **Evaluation and Program Planning**. 13:157-156.

Seleti, Y. 1997. From History to Human and Social Sciences: The New Curriculum Framework and the end of History for the General Education and Training level. **Education Policy Unit Working Paper**. No 14.

Smith, B. 1973. The policy implementation process. **Policy Sciences**. 4.

Synder, I. 1995. Multiple Perspectives in Literacy Research: Integrating the Quantitative and Qualitative. **Language and Education**, 9 (1): 45-59.

Swilling, M. 1992. Making public policy: drawing in more of the public. **Track Two**. 1(2), August.

Tabulawa, R. 1997. Pedagogical Classroom Practice and the Social Context: The Case of Botswana. **International Journal of Educational Development**. 17(2): 189-204.

Tikly, L. 2001. Globalisation and Education in the Postcolonial World: Towards a conceptual framework. **Comparative Education**. Volume 37(2): 151-171.

Van Meter, D.S., & Van Horn, C.E. 1974. The policy implementation process: a conceptual framework. **Administration and Society**. February.

Weiler, H. 1983. Legalisation, expertise and participation: Strategies for compensatory legitimation in educational policy. **In Comparative Educational Review**. 27 (2).

Williams, A. 2003. How to Write and Analyse a Questionnaire. **Journal of Orthodontics**. Vol.30: 245-252.

Winter, G. 2000. A comparative discussion on the notion of 'validity' in qualitative and quantitative research. **The Qualitative Report**. 4(3 / 4) (Retrieved from - <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4/winter.html>)

Woolman, D.C. 2001. Educational reconstruction and post-colonial curriculum development: A comparative study of four African countries. **International Education Journal**. Vol.2 (5): 27-46.

4. Papers

Chinnammai, S. 2005. **Effects of Globalisation on Education and Culture.** ICDE International Conference Paper. November 19-23, 2005, New Delhi.

Chisholm, L. 2004. **The Quality of Primary Education in South Africa.** Background paper prepared for UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report. April 2004.

Department of Education. 2004. **Implementing the National Curriculum Statement Grades 19-12 (General). Teacher Development Strategy.** Concept Paper. 23 June. Pretoria.

Khumalo, L.P., Papo, W.D., Mabitla, A.M., & Jansen, J.D. (1999). **A baseline survey of OBE in Grade 1 classrooms in the Northern Province.** Centre for Education Research Evaluation and Policy, University of Durban-Westville.

Killen, R. 1996. **Outcomes-based Education-Rethinking Education.** Paper presented at Unisa. Pretoria.

Samuel, J. 1995. **Challenges facing the formulation and implementation of a new History syllabus.** Paper delivered at the Launching of the KwaZulu-Natal History Forum, 4 March 1995. (Unpublished).

Van der Berg, S. 2005. **How effective are poor schools? Poverty and educational outcomes in South Africa.** Paper submitted the Southern African Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) Conference, Paris, September.

Wildeman, R. 2005. **A Review of National and Provincial Education Budgets.** Occasional Paper, Budget Information Service. Cape Town. IDASA.

Young, M. 1996. **The Outcomes Approach to Education and Training: Theoretical Grounding and an International Perspective.** Keynote paper presented at the Inter-Ministerial Working Group Conference on the NQF, 22-23 April, Technikon SA Conference Centre.

5. Reports and Discussion documents

African National Congress (ANC). 1992. **ANC Policy Guidelines for a Democratic South Africa**. Johannesburg.ANC

ANC/COSATU. 1993. **A Framework for Lifelong Learning**. ANC/COSATU Draft Discussion document as amended by the National Policy Workshop. 13-15 August. Johannesburg. ANC/COSATU.

African National Congress (ANC). 1994. **An Implementation Plan for Education and Training**. Johannesburg.ANC

Bethell, G. 1990. **Evaluation of Examination Needs of Primary and Secondary Schools**. Windhoek. University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate for the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Bernstein, A. (Ed.). 2011. **Schooling reform is possible- Lessons for South Africa from international experience**. Johannesburg. Centre for Development and Enterprise.

Bird, A. & Elliot, G. 1993. **A Framework for Lifelong Learning: A Unified Multi-path Approach to Education and Training**. Draft ANC/COSATU discussion document prepared for the first ANC National Training Policy Workshop, June.

Chisholm, L., Volmink, J., Ndhlovu, T., Potenza, E., Mohammed, H., Muller, J., Lubisi, C., Vinjevold, P., Ngozi, L., Malan,B., & Mphahlele, M. 2000. **A South African Curriculum for the Twenty First Century: Report of the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005**. Pretoria.

Census 2001. 2004. **Report: Primary tables South Africa. Census 1996 and 2001 compared**. Pretoria. Published by Statistics South Africa.

Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD). 2000. **The Implementation of C2005 at the National and Provincial Levels**. 1st Draft Report.

COSATU. 1991. **Discussion Paper on Human Resource Development**. Paper submitted by the COSATU Human Resources Committee to a meeting of the Commonwealth Secretariat's Expert Group on Human Resources in South Africa, London.

Dada, F., Dipholo,T., Hoadley,U., Khembo,E., Muller,S., & Volmink,J. 2009. **Final Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement.** Pretoria. Presented to the Minister of Education, Ms Angela Motshekga.

Department of Education. 2000a. **History and Archaeology Report.** Pretoria.

Department of Education. 2000b. **Report of the Working Group on Values in Education: Values, Education and Democracy.** Pretoria.

Government Communication and Information System (GCIS). 10 February 2011. **President JG Zuma's State of the Nation Address.**

Kahn, M. 1993. **Building the Base: Report on a sector study of Science and Mathematics Education for the Commission of the European Communities.** Kagiso Trust. Johannesburg.

Kros, C. 1996. **Trusting to the process-reflections on the flaws in the negotiating of the history curriculum in South Africa.** Report No. 1. University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg: The History Curriculum Research Project of Cambridge University Press and History Workshop.

Leyendecker, R. 2003. **Curricula, examination and assessment in sub-Saharan secondary education.** Draft Research Report. Presented at Windhoek Conference on Secondary Education in Africa.

Lifelong Learning Through a National Qualifications Framework, Report of the Ministerial Committee for Development Work on the NQF, February 1996.

Maqutu,T.Z. & Jansen J.D. 1999. **A Very Noisy OBE. A Report on the Implementation of OBE Inside Grade 1 Classrooms.** Durban: Centre for Education Research, Evaluation and Policy. University of Durban-Westville.

Ministry of Education and Culture. 1992. **Annual Report for the Year ending 31 December 1992.** Presented to the National Assembly in Namibia. Windhoek.

Mouzinho, M. M., Buendia, W. Kouwenhoven, A. Adalberto, & C. Waddington. 2002. **Review of education sector analysis in Mozambique, 1990-1998.** Paris.Working Group on Education Sector Analysis. UNESCO.

National Institute for Educational Research (NIER). 1999. **An International Comparative Study of School Curriculum.** Tokyo. NIER.

National Planning Commission. 2011. **Diagnostic Report**. Pretoria. Government Printer.

National Training Board (NTB). 1994. **A National Training Strategy Initiative. Discussion Document**. Pretoria. National Training Board.

Ndebele, N. 2000. **Report of the History/Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education**. Pretoria. Ministry of Education.

Samoff, J. 1996. **Frameworks! South African Education and Training Policy Documents, 1994-1996**. Durban. University of Durban-Westville-Macro-Education Policy Unit.

Taylor, N. & Vinjevold, P.1999. **Getting learning right: Report of the President's Education Initiative**. Johannesburg. Joint Education Trust.

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation). 2000. **Education for All: From Jomtien to Dakar and Beyond**. Washington DC. World Bank.

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation). 2004. **Education for All: The Quality Imperative**. Paris. UNESCO.

USAID. 1990. **Basic Education in Namibia, Sector Review Report**. Windhoek, Namibia. USAID.

World Bank. 1992. **Namibia: Poverty Alleviation with Sustainable Growth**. Washington, DC. World Bank.

World Bank. 1997. **The State in a Changing World**. World development Report 1997. Washington. World Bank.

World Bank. 1999. **Project Appraisal document on a proposed credit to the Republic of Mozambique for ESSP**. Washington, DC. World Bank.

World Bank. 2004. **World Development Report 2004, Making Services Work For the Poor**. Washington D.C. World Bank.

World Economic Forum. 2010. **Global Competitiveness Index 2009-2010 Report**.

6. Thesis

Nadasan, T.2010. **Primary Health Care Delivery: A Case Study of KwaZulu-Natal with Special reference to Physiotherapy.** Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Pather, S. 2009. **The Use of Critical Literacy Theories as an Approach to Teaching English as a Home Language to Learners at a Durban Secondary School utilising Community Newspapers.** Unpublished Master's Thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Pillay, G. 2002. **A Study of Indigent Children in Durban between 1900 and 1945.** Unpublished Master's Thesis. University of Durban-Westville.

Pillay, R. 2007. **The Mismatch between Language Policy and Language Practice: Status Planning for Isizulu in a Multilingual and Multicultural Society.** Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Van der Watt, P.G. 2010. **Implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System Policy in Public Schools in the Ugu District.** Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal.

7. Internet

Asmal, K. 1999. **Call to Action: Mobilising citizens to build a South African education and training system for the 21st century.** 27.07.99. Available at <http://education.pwv.gov.za/Media /Speeches1999/July>.

GEAR accessed from: www.polity.org.za/polity/govdocs/policy/growth.html, (14 June 1996:1).

Government of Mozambique. 2006. **Action plan for the reduction of absolute poverty 2006–2009 (PARPA II).** (Accessed from: <http://www.undp.org/mz/en/mozambique/parpa>)

Hayes, W. 2001. **The Public Policy Web.** (available at <http://profwork.org/pp/implement/define.html>).

Joppe, M. (2000). **The Research Process.** (Accessed from <http://www.ryerson.ca/mjoppe/rp.htm>)

Moloi, M. & Strauss, J. 2005. **The SACMEQ II Project in South Africa: A Study of the Conditions of Schooling and the Quality of Education-South Africa Working Report.**

(available at <http://www.sacmeq.org/education.southafrica.htm>).

Munn, P. 2011. **Draft paper. School Curriculum policy In Scotland: How Distinctive Is It?**

(available at www.ed.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1/ECS-1Apr2011-PamelaMunn).

O'Donnell, S. et. al. 2010. **Comparative Tables-International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive (INCA).** UK.

Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency.

(available at <http://www.inca.org.uk>).

The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). **Indicators on the SACMEQ website** (accessed from www.sacmeq.org/indicate.htm)

SEED. 2007. **National Priorities in Education: achievement and attainment.**

(available at: <http://www.nationalpriorities.org.uk/schools/priority1.#outcome1>)

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)

(available at <http://www.saqa.org.za>)

Winter, G. (2000). **A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research.** The Qualitative Report, 4(3&4).

(Retrieved from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4-3/winter.html>

<http://dss.princeton.edu/training/>.

www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/notes2.)

8. Newspaper Articles

Daily News, 8 May 2002.

Daily News, 18 May 2009.

Mail and Guardian, 8-14 April 2011.

Mail and Guardian, 23-29 July 2010.

Mail and Guardian, 1-7 July 2011.

Mail and Guardian, 15-21 July 2011.

Mail and Guardian, 26 August to 01 September 2011.

Star, 23 August 1994.

Sunday Times, 19 May 2002.

Sunday Times, 24 July 2005.

Sunday Times, 11 July 2011.

Sunday Tribune, 31 December 2006.

Sunday Tribune, 16 January 2009.

The Mercury, 22 February 2010.

The Times, 7 July 2010.

The Times, 5 May 2011.

The Witness, 26 May 2006.



**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

The Head of Department
KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200

21 January 2011

To Whom It May Concern:

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AS PART OF THE
DOCTOR OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (DPA) QUALIFICATION**

Topic: Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of FET
History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

The purpose of the study is to elicit responses from FET History Educators in the Umlazi District in order to ascertain the efficacy of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (*NCS*). Hence, both a qualitative and quantitative research design will be used. Typically, this project will be a practical problem solving exercise, and therefore necessitates data gathering by questionnaires and interviews.

Your assistance in permitting access to FET History educators in the Umlazi District for purposes of this research is both anticipated and appreciated. Please be assured that all information gained from the research study will be treated with the utmost circumspection and the confidentiality and anonymity of every participant will be ensured. Further, should you wish the results from the thesis to be embargoed for an agreed period of time, this can be arranged.

If permission is granted the UKZN requires this to be in writing on a letterhead and signed by the relevant authority.

Thank you for your kind assistance.

Yours sincerely

Researcher
Mr Gengs Pillay
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Westville Campus

Tel. No.: 0846268040
gengs.pillay@gmail.com

Supervisor
Professor Y. Penceliah
School of Public Administration and
Development Management
Westville Campus
Tel. No.: 031-2607645
penceliahy@ukzn.ac.za



MR GENGS PILLAY
16-50 AVENUE
UMHLATHUZANA
DURBAN
4092

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar
Date: 16 March 2011
Reference: 0029/2011

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

PROPOSED RESEARCH TITLE: Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of Further Education and Training (FET) History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu Natal

Your application to conduct research in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, educators, schools and institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Head of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period: From 01 March 2011 to 31 March 2012.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Superintendent General. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are **under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation**.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s) contact Mr Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Address to: The Director: Resource Planning; Private Bag X9137; Pietermaritzburg; 3200

The Department of Education in KwaZulu Natal fully supports your commitment toward research and wishes you well in your endeavours. It is hoped that you will find the above in order.


Dr SZ Mbokazi
Acting Superintendent-General

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa
PHYSICAL: Office G25; 188 Pietermaritz Street; Metropolitan Building; PIETERMARITZBURG 3201
TEL: Tel: +27 33 341 8610 | Fax: +27 33 341 8612 | E-mail: sibusiso_alwar@kzndee.gov.za



kzn education

Department:
Education
KWAZULU-NATAL

MR GENGS PILLAY
16-50 AVENUE
UMHLATHUZANA
DURBAN
4092

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Date: 16 March 2011

Reference: 0029/2011

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

PROPOSED RESEARCH TITLE: Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of Further Education and Training (FET) History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu Natal

Your application to conduct research in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The research and interviews will be limited to the following Schools and Institutions:

1. KwaZulu Natal Department of Education - Umlazi District

Regards,

Dr SZ Mbokazi
Acting Superintendent-General

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa

PHYSICAL: Office G25; 188 Pietermaritz Street; Metropolitan Building; PIETERMARITZBURG 3201

TEL: Tel: +27 33 341 8610 | Fax: +27 33 341 8612 | E-mail: sibusiso.alwar@kzndoe.gov.za

Annexure C



Research Office, Govan Mbeki Centre
Westville Campus
Private Bag x54001
DURBAN, 4000
Tel No: +27 31 260 3587
Fax No: +27 31 260 4609
Ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

25 March 2011

Mr. G Pillay (8319426)
School of Public Administration and Development Management

Dear Mr. Pillay

PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: HSS/0132/011D

PROJECT TITLE: Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of FET History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

EXPEDITED APPROVAL

I wish to inform you that your application has been granted Full Approval through an expedited review process:

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Professor Steven Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc. Supervisor – Prof. Y Penceliah
cc. Mrs. C Haddon



**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Dear Respondent,

DPA Research Project

Researcher: Mr G. Pillay (Tel No: 0846268040)

Supervisor: Professor Y Penceliah (Tel No: 031260-7645/7756)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

I, Gengatharen Pillay am a Doctor of Public Administration student in the School of Public Administration and Development Management, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled *Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of FET History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal*.

The aim of this study is to ascertain whether the National Curriculum Statement is being effectively implemented. Through your participation I hope to understand the gaps and strengthen the curriculum delivery process. The results of this survey is intended to help policy makers and implementers with future curriculum policy developments.

Your participation in this interview is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research project. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School of Public Administration and Development Management, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

It should take you about 45 minutes to complete this interview. I hope you will take the time to participate in this interview.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature _____ Date : _____



**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

DPA Research Project

Researcher: Mr G. Pillay (Tel No: 0846268040)

Supervisor: Professor Y Penceliah (Tel No: 031260-7645/7756)

Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

LETTER OF CONSENT

I _____ (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

Signature of Participant

Date



**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

TITLE OF DOCTORAL RESEARCH PROPOSAL

Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of FET History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

I am a postgraduate student in the School Public Administration and Development Management. The purpose of this study is to ascertain whether the National Curriculum Statement is being effectively implemented. The findings of this research will be used to assist you and other History educators to sharpen your practice and to develop strategies for effective curriculum implementation. The inputs you make will help identify gaps and strengthen curriculum delivery. Policy makers and implementers would find the data you give them useful for future policy developments. All information you provide is highly confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this research.

It will be appreciated if you could please:

- Participate in this voluntary questionnaire.
- Indicate your views on the NCS FET History curriculum implementation.
- Answer ALL questions with a black or blue pen by either placing a X in the appropriate box, or by writing the appropriate information in the space provided. Be frank about how you feel.
- DO NOT mark more than one option, or alter any responses that you have made, as this will invalidate your responses.

Thank you for participating.

Should you wish to contact us, please feel free to do so. Our details are as follows:

Researcher
Mr G. Pillay
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Westville Campus

Tel. No.: 0846268040
gengs.pillay@gmail.com

Supervisor
Professor Y. Penceliah
School of Public Administration and
Development Management
Westville Campus

Tel. No.: 031-2607645
penceliah@ukzn.ac.za

This questionnaire has four sections:

- Section A : Personal information
- Section B : Public policy
- Section C: Public policy implementation
- Section D: Public policy monitoring and evaluation
- Section E: Open - ended questions on implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the NCS

SECTION A

1. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1.1 SURNAME: _____ (OPTIONAL)

1.2 FIRST NAME(S): _____ (OPTIONAL)

1.3 AGE

25 . 35		01
36 . 45		02
46 . 55		03
56 . 65		04

1.4 GENDER

Male		01
Female		02

1.5 RACE

African		01
Indian		02
Coloured		03
White		04

1.6 HIGHEST QUALIFICATION

Doctoral Degree		01
Masters Degree		02
Honours Degree		03
Bachelors Degree		04
Diploma		05
Certificate		06
Other (Specify)		07

1.7 POST HELD AT SCHOOL

Principal		01
Deputy Principal		02
Head of Department		03
Educator		04
Other (Specify)		05

1.8 TYPE OF SCHOOL YOU PRESENTLY TEACH AT:

Rural		01
Urban		02
Township		03
Private		04

1.9 IN WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING CIRCUITS IS YOUR SCHOOL SITUATED?

Chatsworth		01
City of Durban		02
Phumelela		03
Umbumbulu		04

1.10 HOW MANY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE DO YOU HAVE TEACHING HISTORY IN GRADES 10 TO 12?

Under 5 years		01
6 -15 years		02
16 - 25 years		03
Over 25 years		04

SECTION B

1. QUESTIONS RELATED TO PUBLIC POLICY

1.1. Was there a need for the government to change the curriculum policy after 1994?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.2 Would you say there was adequate consultation before the <i>NCS</i> was implemented?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.3 Was your professional teachers organisation/ union consulted before the <i>NCS</i> was drawn up?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.4 Does the <i>NCS</i> adequately address the values enshrined in the Constitution of RSA?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.5 The following are key principles and values that describes the national curriculum. Rank them from 1 to 9 in terms of which you think is most achievable to least achievable.	Ranking	
1.5.1. Social transformation		01
1.5.2. Outcomes . based education		02
1.5.3 High knowledge and high skills		03
1.5.4 Integration and applied competence		04
1.5.5 Progression		05
1.5.6 Articulation and portability		06
1.5.7 Human rights, inclusivity, environment and social justice		07
1.5.8 Valuing indigenous knowledge systems		08
1.5.9 Credibility, quality and efficiency		09

1.6 Do the Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum adequately address the demands of the <i>NCS</i> ?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.7 In comparison to Report 550 (NATED - old curriculum) the content and assessment framework of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum is better.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.8 The time allocated (4 hours per week) for the teaching and assessment of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum is adequate.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.9 The <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum covers ALL content areas adequately.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

1.10 I am optimistic about the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

SECTION C

2. PUBLIC POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

2.1 The training you received regarding the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was sufficient?	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.2 You implement the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum policy documents rigidly.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.3 In the planning, preparation and implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum in the classroom you use ALL the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs).	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.4 An equal amount of time and effort is spent on each of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards when planning and teaching of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum takes Place.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.5 The implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum had no impact on the way you usually plan, teach, and assess.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.6 So far, you have not encountered any problems in implementing the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.7 Learners are coping well with the demands of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.8 There is strong correlation between the implementation of the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum and the Grade 12 pass rate.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.9 I usually familiarise myself regarding the ongoing developments in the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.10 The <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum was successfully implemented at my school.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

2.11 If there were concerns regarding the <i>NCS FET History</i> curriculum, there is adequate support from the <i>FET History Curriculum Specialist</i> .	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

SECTION D

3. PUBLIC POLICY MONITORING AND EVALUATION

3.1 There is a need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

3.2 Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum takes place throughout the academic year.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

3.3 All stakeholders are involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum at school level.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

3.4. The monitoring and evaluation process is impartial?	YES	NO
	01	02

3.5 Are there procedures in place to deal with non-compliance? (w.r.t. the implementation of the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum)	YES	NO
	01	02

3.6 Does the monitoring and evaluation team play an effective role?	YES	NO
	01	02

3.7 Evaluation reports by the monitoring and evaluation team are made readily available to educators.	YES	NO
	01	02

3.8 The suggestions and recommendations of the monitoring and evaluation team regarding the <i>NCS</i> FET History curriculum are implemented at school.	Strongly disagree	Tend to disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Tend to agree	Strongly agree
	01	02	03	04	05

SECTION E

4. OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS REGARDING NCS IMPLEMENTATION, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

4.1 Do you understand the changes that occurred in FET History curriculum? Explain your answer.

4.2 Explain what do you think was the purpose for curriculum changes in South Africa after 1994.

4.3 How have the changes to the FET History curriculum impacted on your classroom planning, teaching and assessment?

4.4 Explain whether you think the implementation of the NCS FET History curriculum was a success or failure?

4.5 Were the FET History training workshops undertaken by the Department of Education effective? Briefly explain.

4.6. List a few **recommendations** and **strategies** that you would put forward for the successful implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum.

Recommendations

Strategies

4.7 Suggest tangible ways on how you think the implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum can be improved. Focus on content, assessment and resources.

4.8 How can school management teams, educators, learners and the broader community be empowered to successfully implement the *NCS*?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR VALUABLE TIME AND EFFORT IN COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.



**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

TITLE OF DOCTORAL RESEARCH PROPOSAL

Implementing the National Curriculum Statement: A Case Study of FET History Educators in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal.

QUESTIONS FOR PROVINCIAL AND DISTRICT CURRICULUM SPECIALISTS

1. Were FET History educators adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*?
 - 1.1 Follow-on question. If interviewee says Yes or No. Questions on how did you ascertain whether FET History educators were adequately trained and equipped to implement the *NCS*.

2. Explain whether the FET *NCS* History training workshops provided in your district were effective in helping educators to implement the *NCS* in the classroom?
 - 2.1 Follow-on question. How do you know this/how do you measure this?

3. Do you think there is a correlation between the FET History training programme and learner results?
 - 3.1 Follow-on question. How do you know this/how do you measure this?

4. Explain to what extent you think the training programmes for the implementation of the FET History curriculum was similar in ALL the districts within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal?
 - 4.1 Follow-on question. How do you know this/how do you measure this?

5. Why do you think the FET History curriculum training programmes were similar or different in ALL the districts within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal?

6. List recommendations and strategies that you would put forward for the successful implementation of the *NCS FET History* curriculum. Focus on content, assessment and resources.
7. How can school management teams, educators, learners and the broader community be empowered to successfully implement the *NCS*?
8. Would like to make any final comments regarding the implementation of the *NCS FET History Curriculum*?

25 Maple Crescent
Circle Park
KLOOF
3610

Phone 031 – 7075912
0823757722
Fax 031 - 7110458
E-mail:
wyebanksec@telkomsa.net

Dr Saths Govender

15 NOVEMBER 2011

LANGUAGE CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter serves to inform that I have read the final version of the thesis titled:

**'IMPLEMENTING THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT: A CASE STUDY
OF FET HISTORY EDUCATORS IN THE UMLAZI DISTRICT, KWAZULU-NATAL'**
by G. Pillay, student no. 8319426.

To the best of my knowledge, all the proposed amendments have been effected and the work is free of spelling and grammatical errors. I am of the view that the standard of language meets the stringent requirements for senior degrees.

Yours faithfully



DR S. GOVENDER
B Paed. (Arts), B.A. (Hons), B Ed.
Cambridge Certificate for English Medium Teachers
MPA, D Admin.