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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved mother, Sarah Tendani, my father Paulus Mukwevho, "*vhakwevho vha u funa vhathu nga muya wavhudi*," my sister Lutendo Merrium and my brothers Mulalo Johnyboy, Thabelo Zachariah and Rudzani Israel.

DECLARATION

I declare that

GRADE 1 TEACHERS' INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL-BASED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE NORTHERN PROVINCE

is my work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

M W LUMADI

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ABSTRACT

The bright future of education in South Africa, as in every developed and developing country such as the United States of America, United Kingdom, France and many others, depends greatly on *grade 1 teachers*' involvement in *School-Based Curriculum Development (SBCD)*. The fallacy that *grade 1 teachers* can be operated effectively by remote control should be abandoned from the school *curriculum*. Success will always be elusive task if *grade 1 teachers* are excluded from *curriculum* decision-making, because their proximity to learners in the learning situation is a source of valuable information for *curriculum* developers, a source which is currently overlooked. This warrants a paradigm shift in teacher training programmes. A situation analysis in our democratic country necessitates problem-centred teacher training which will equip the future generation of teacher trainees and prospective *grade 1 teachers* with relevant professional skills, precipitated by our country.

The bone of contention in this study revolves around the kind of teaching and learning problems experienced by *grade 1 teachers* involved in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*. It is apparent from the thesis that *grade 1 teachers*' *involvement* in *curriculum* decision-making is limited to a certain extent because members of the top structure of *curriculum* planners are reluctant to quit their 'ivory towers' to perceive the real situation of the noble profession of teaching. A profound problem in South Africa in general and the *Northern Province* in particular is that there is a serious lack of consultation and negotiations with *grade 1 teachers,* and the implications thereof are detrimental to *SBCD*. The measure in which the *grade 1 teachers* are involved in participation and decision-making is a determinant of the success or failure of the innovation project. It is thus noteworthy to point out that the *grade 1 teacher* must be fully supported by his or her academic seniors, to become actively involved in *curriculum* activities.

The overriding aim of this study, an exploratory investigation of the identified teaching and learning problems by *grade 1 teachers* in terms of *SBCD* in the *Northern Province* emanated from this need. It should also be pointed out that our world is characterised by

the rapid tempo at which knowledge becomes out-dated and is replaced by new ideas and concepts. The twentieth century has become known as the information era. This has necessitated a change of emphasis in education; instead of the transfer of knowledge, the *grade 1 teacher* must rather be taught how to acquire knowledge on his or her own and be provided with instruments necessary for exploiting knowledge.

The method of analysis began with in a literature review, with a viewpoint to provide guidelines for *grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD*. After an introductory orientation provided in chapter 1, the theories of *SBCD* and *Outcomes-Based Education* (OBE) were examined in chapter 2. Qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in *SBCD* was dealt with in chapter 3 by means of identifying the research instruments to be utilised for data collection techniques and analysis. Furthermore, in this chapter, the researcher elaborated on the types of qualitative methods, characteristics and outcomes of qualitative research, phases of data collection and analysis strategies and qualitative research as a remedy in *SBCD* problems. In chapter 4, the researcher elaborated on research instruments, findings and data analysis. Findings were based on the implementation of research instruments and literature review. It is in this chapter that the theories of *SBCD* and OBE in chapter 2 and qualitative research as a strategy to address *SBCD* problems in chapter 3 have been synthesised.

In the ensuing chapter 5, guidelines which could serve as a framework for *grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD* were provided. It is strongly believed that these guidelines will be useful for both Pre-service Teacher Education and Training (PRESET) and In-service Teacher Education and Training (INSET) to keep pace with the changes taking place in the South African society. Teacher training should thus ensure that teacher trainees and prospective *grade 1 teachers* are sufficiently skilled to cope with the tremendous escalation of challenges in *SBCD*. In fact, *grade 1 teachers* should be trained to teach learners who must fulfill their vocational mandate some time in the near future. The youth must be empowered for the future, which covers the period from the time they enter school. These guidelines make it imperative for the trainers of prospective teachers to predict the future realistically and to train *grade 1 teachers* in accordance with the

principle of constancy and change. Future education requires individuals who will know how to apply principles, norms and values and how to design new methods for effective instruction and learning.

The final chapter focused on the background to the problem, the methodology of the investigation and conclusions. The study also highlighted recommendations for the improvement of teaching practice and teacher training and the implications thereof. The researcher summed up the study by proposing areas of concern for future research.

UITTREKSEL

Die suksesvolle ontwikkeling en toekoms van onderwys in Suid-Afrika, soos in elke ontwikkelde en ontwikkelende land, insluitend die Verenigde State van Amerika, die Verenigde Koninkryk, Frankryk en vele ander, hang hoofsaaklik af van die betrokkenheid van *graad 1-onderwysers* by *Skoolgebaseerde Kurrikulumontwikkeling (SBKO)* . Dit geld ook vir die *Noordelike Provinsie* waar hierdie studie gedoen is. Die aanname dat *graad 1-onderwysers* effektief kan deelneem aan die *skoolkurrikulum* deur middel van afstandsdeelname, moet laat vaar word. Indien die onderwysers uitgesluit word van die besluitnemingsproses in *kurrikulumontwikkeling* sal die kanse op sukses bemoelik word. Hulle deelname aan en betrokkenheid by die leersituasie kan dien as 'n bron van inligting vir *kurrikulumontwikkelaars*. Tans word hierdie bron van inligting nie in aanmerking geneem nie. Hierdie hipotese vereis 'n paradigmaskuif in die onderwysersopleidingsprogramme. 'n Situasie-analise in die *Noordelike Provinsie* het getoon dat 'n probleemgerigte onderwysersopleidingsprogram nodig is om die toekomstige generasie van onderwysers (veral *graad 1-onderwysers*) toe te rus met die relevante professionele vaardighede wat so dringend in ons land benodig word.

Die kernpunte in hierdie studie handel oor die tipe kennisoordrag- en leerprobleme wat *graad 1-onderwysers* ondervind in hulle betrokkenheid in *Skoolgebaseerde Kurrikulumontwikkeling* in die *Noordelike Provinsie,* en in watter mate dit aangespreek word in *kurrikulumontwikkeling.* Bevindings in hierdie studie toon dat onderwyserbetrokkenheid beperk word deur die topstruktuur van die *kurrikulumbeplanners* wat onwillig is om hulle ivoortorings te verlaat en sodoende nie die werklike situasie in die onderwysberoep in aanmerking neem nie. 'n Groot probleem in Suid-Afrika in die algemeen, en in die *Noordelike Provinsie* in die besonder, is die ernstige gebrek aan konsultasie en onderhandeling met *graad 1-onderwysers* en die negatiewe impak hiervan op *kurrikulumontwikkeling.* Die mate waarin hierdie onderwysers betrokke is, is bepalend vir die sukses of die mislukking van die innoverende projek. Dit is gevolglik noodsaaklik om daarop te wys dat die *graad 1-*

onderwyser ten volle ondersteun moet word deur sy/haar akademiese seniors ten einde aktief betrokke te kan wees by sodanige kurrikulumaktiwiteite.

Die hoofdoel van hierdie studie is dan ook 'n ondersoek na die geïdentifiseerde kennisoordrag- en leerprobleme van *graad 1-onderwysers* in die *Noordelike Provinsie* in voorafgenoemde verband. Ons leef in 'n snel veranderende wêreld waarin kennis vinnig verouder raak en met nuwe idees en konsepte vervang word, die sogenaamde informasie-era. Dit noodsaak 'n verandering in die onderwys, waar die onderwyser geleer moet word om eerstens self kennis te verkry asook dat die instrumente wat nodig is om die kennis te eksploiteer, verskaf word, eerder as om net op kennisoordrag te let.

Analise as ondersoekmetode is in die literatuuroorsig gebruik met die doel om riglyne vir *graad 1-onderwysersbetrokkenheid* te verskaf. Na die inleidende oriënteringspostulaat in Hoofstuk 1, is die teorieë van *Skoolgebaseerde kurrikulumontwikkeling* en *Uitkomsgebaseerde Onderwys* (*UGO*) in Hoofstuk 2 ondersoek. In Hoofstuk 3 is kwalitatiwe navorsing as strategie om probleme met *Skoolgebaseerde Kurrikulumontwikkeling* uit te wys, aangespreek. Dit is bereik deur die identifisering van die navorsingsinstrumente wat gebruik is vir data-insameling en analise. In die hoofstuk bespreek die navorser die tipes kwalitatiewe metodes; die eienskappe en gevolge van kwalitatiewe navorsing; die fases van dataversameling asook analisestrategieë en kwalitatiewe navorsing as instrumente in die uitskakeling van *Skoolgebaseerde Kurrikulumontwikkeling*-probleme. In Hoofstuk 4 word verder uitgebrei oor navorsingsinstrumente, bevindings en data- analise. In die hoofstuk word die teorieë van *SBKO* en *UGO* soos bespreek in Hoofstuk 2 en kwalitatiewe navorsing as strategie om *SBKO* probleme aan te spreek, gesintetiseer.

In Hoofstuk 5 word riglyne verskaf wat kan dien as raamwerk vir *graad 1-onderwyserbetrokkenheid* in *SBKO*. Die vermoede bestaan dat hierdie riglyne bruikbaar sal wees vir beide Voordiensopleiding en Indiensopleiding om sodoende in pas te wees met die veranderinge wat in die gemeenskap se leefwêreld plaasvind. Onderwysersopleiding behoort dus te verseker dat onderwysers wat opgelei word, en

veral *graad 1-onderwysers*, toegerus word om met die toename in uitdagings in *SBKO* te kan byhou. In werklikheid behoort *graad 1-onderwysers* sodanig opgelei te word dat hulle leerders kan onderrig en toerus om in die toekoms hulle beroepe te kan beoefen. Die jeug moet bemagtig word vir die toekoms vanaf die oomblik dat hulle die skoolsisteem binnegaan. Hierdie riglyne maak dit noodsaaklik vir die opleiers van voornemende onderwysers om die toekoms korrek te voorspel en om die *graad 1-onderwysers* op te lei in die beginsels van konsekwentheid en verandering. Toekomstige onderrig vereis individue wat sal weet hoe om beginsels, norme en waardes toe te pas en hoe om nuwe onderrigmetodes vir effektiewe leer te ontwerp.

Die finale hoofstuk fokus op die agtergrond van die probleem, die metodologie van die ondersoek en gevolgtrekkings. Die studie benadruk die aanbevelings vir die verbetering van onderwyspraktyk en onderwysersopleiding en die implikasies daarvan. Die navorser som dan ook die studie op deur areas van belang vir toekomstige navorsing voor te stel.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CHAPTER 1

1. **ABET** : Adult Basic Education
2. **DET** : Department of Education
3. **ECD** : Early Childhood Development
4. **FET** : Further Education and Training
5. **GET** : General Education and Training
6. **GNU** : Government of National Unity
7. **HET** : Higher Education and Training
8. **NQF** : National Qualifications Framework
9. **OBE** : Outcomes-Based Education
10. **RDP** : Reconstruction and Development Programme
11. **SA** : South Africa

CHAPTER 2

1. **ANC** : African National Congress
2. **CNE** : Christian National Education
3. **DEACS** : Department of Education, Arts ,Culture and Sports
4. **NCESS** : National Committee on Education Support Service
5. **NCSNET** : National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
6. **NP** : National Party
7. **SAQA** : Authority South African Qualifications Authority
8. **USA** : United States Of America

CHAPTER 3

Identified in chapters 1 and 2

CHAPTER 4

1. **BAED** : Bachelor of Arts in Education
2. **COLTS** : Culture of Teaching and Learning Service
3. **DOE** : Department of Education and Training
4. **HOD** : Head of Department
5. **LIFO** : Last In First Out
6. **LRA** : Labour Relations Act
7. **LWC** : Language of Wider Communication
8. **MED** : Master of Education
9. **NEPI** : National Education Policy Investigation
10. **PDE** : Provincial Department of Education
11. **PEU** : Professional Educators Union
12. **PEUP** : Primary Education Upgrading Programme
13. **PGDE** : Postgraduate Diploma in Education
14. **RAU** : Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit
15. **SADTU** : South African Democratic Teachers'Union
16. **SAIRR** : South African Institute of Race Relations
17. **TSUD** : Teacher Supply Utilisation Development
18. **UCT** : University of Cape Town
19. **UNIN** : University of the North
20. **UNISA** : University of South Africa
21. **WITS** : University of the Witwatersrand

CHAPTER 5

1. **ABCDC** : Area-Based Curriculum Development Committee
2. **AM** : Area Manager
3. **CBCDC** : Circuit-Based Curriculum Development Committee
4. **CDTTC** : Curriculum Development Task Team Committee
5. **CSCDFC** : Classroom Stage Curriculum Development Facilitating Committee
6. **DDG** : Deputy Director General
7. **DG** : Director General
8. **INSET** : In-Service Education and Training
9. **LPBCDC** : Learning Programme-Based Curriculum Development Committee
10. **MEC** : Member of Executive Council
11. **NCDFTTC** : National Curriculum Development Facilitating Task Team Committee
12. **PBCDC** : Provincial-Based Curriculum Development Committee
13. **PRESET** : Pre-Service Education and Training
14. **RD** : Regional Director
15. **RBCDC** : Regional-Based Curriculum Development Committee
16. **SSCDFC** : School Stage Curriculum Development Facilitating Committee
17. **TPA** : Teachers' Professional Association
18. **VC** : Vice-Chancellor

CHAPTER 6

1. **NGO** : Non-Governmental Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION

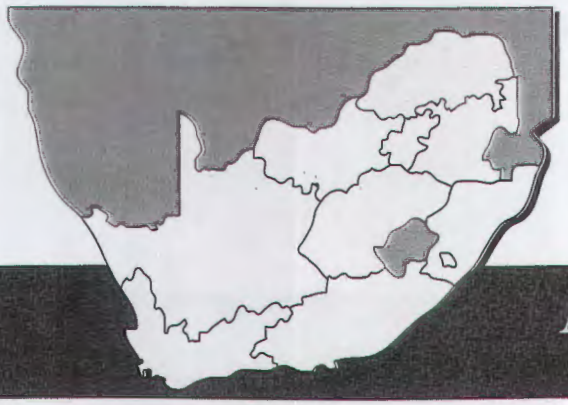
1.1 INTRODUCTION

A sizeable number of critics of South African education have condemned the National Department of Education for a *curriculum* which does not meet the needs of learners, apart from being irrelevant and uninteresting. National *curriculum* projects have attempted to change the situation and to provide packaged materials for the schools to adopt. Many of these are however misused since there is a lack of understanding of the context and teaching strategies designed for their proper utilization (Sunday Times 16 May 1999:24).

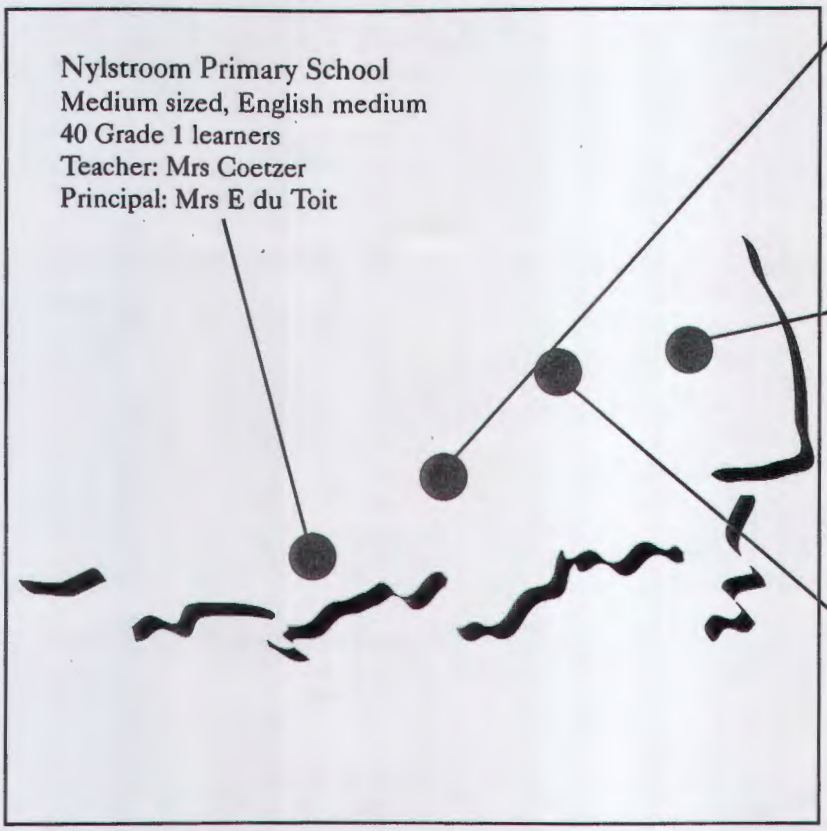
Lumadi (1999:1) is of the opinion that since the release of Nelson Mandela in 1990, serious changes became apparent in many spheres of life in South Africa. The Government of National Unity (GNU) proposed amongst others: affirmative action, capacity building and the substantive significance of transformational *Outcomes-Based Education* (*OBE*). The shift towards our own unique South African *OBE* holds much potential for the broadening of the principles of access, redress, equity and quality assurance for all citizens of a democratic country.

From July 1997 the new *curriculum* has been piloted in selected schools countrywide. A pilot study was conducted in *grade 1* classrooms in 270 schools around the entire country between August and November 1997. (See figure 1.1 for the schools that took part in the *grade 1* pilot project in the *Northern Province*). In January 1998, South Africa thus introduced *Curriculum* 2005 to 1,5 million *grade 1* learners at once. This was done to force an end to the previous education system, which had been designed as a cornerstone of *apartheid* and was thus singularly inappropriate to educate South Africa's learners to become competent and active members of a democratic society (*Curriculum* 2005 1998:3).

Figure 1.1



Northern Province



Nylstroom Primary School
Medium sized, English medium
40 Grade 1 learners
Teacher: Mrs Coetzer
Principal: Mrs E du Toit

Boiketlo Primary School
Large, N Sotho medium
65 Grade 1 learners
Teachers: Mrs R L Mothiba, Mrs L M Mabeba
Principal: Miss M A Mahake

Nhlalala Primary School
Tsonga medium
77 Grade 1 learners
Teacher: Ms L N Hlachwajo

Dikwata Primary School
Medium sized, English medium
64 Grade 1 learners
Teachers: Mrs Mogashoa and Mrs Takgoale
Principal: L Mamabolo

Schools taking part in the Grade 1 Pilot Project

Laerskool Warmbad, Western Region • Spa Park Laerskool, Western Region • Mamangina Primary School, Western Region • Elsenskop Primary School, Western Region • Rabasotho Primary School, Western Region • Monyesobodu Primary School, Central Region • Ikakgeleng Makobe Primary School • Mankgaite Primary School • Eureka Primary School • Boiketlo Primary School • Mangaya Primary School, Northern Region • Xihlovo Primary School, Northern Region • St Scholastica Primary School, Northern Region • Tshivhazwaulu Primary School, Northern Region • Laerskool Louis Trichardt, Louis Trichardt • Senianya Primary School, North Eastern Region • Welani Primary School, North Eastern Region • Nhlalala Primary School, North Eastern Region • Lapishe Primary School, North Eastern Region • Nwasorini Primary School, North Eastern Region • Tzaneen Laerskool, Eastern Region • Mariven Primary School, Eastern Region • Semana Primary School, Eastern Region • Sefahone Primary School, Eastern Region • Pfumelani Primary School, Eastern Region • Ntoshang Primary School, Southern Region

Curriculum 2005 was created to empower all South African learners with *knowledge, skills, attitudes* and *values* which would make them productive and valuable agents in creating a better future for all. The implementation of this *curriculum* has recently been reviewed by a task team which found that there were many problems with its implementation.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:5) are of the notion that

> "In South Africa there is, however a lack of responsibility, dedication and commitment on the part of many teachers and learners. Therefore, achieving the required knowledge, skills and habits of mind to promote a prosperous and democratic country will take some very hard work from a number of role players. The learners will have to take greater responsibility for actively participating in the learning process and working hard. The teachers and instructors will have to take full responsibility for *careful planning* and *management* of their learners' learning environment, and parents will have to be more involved in motivating and facilitating their children to learn."

Whilst schools had the freedom to develop the trialling process in ways that suited their particular local structures and organizations, general patterns appeared to be emerging regarding effective ways of creatively coming to terms with *OBE*. Some of the more significant ones include the opportunity to experiment and take risks with new ways of learning and teaching, and the opportunity for collegial action research, thereby building learning communities with shared interpretations. Furthermore, there was the chance to network and share insights and resources across institutions, race, class and gender categories, thus building "social solidarity" rather than separate "social factions".

It is evident from the foregoing discussion that the South African education system is currently undergoing profound and far reaching changes which challenge the traditional role of its institutions. The changes are aimed at elevating the real skills and learning levels of the South African learner, by promoting a thirst for knowledge, a love of learning and a determination to succeed, so multiplying the number of South Africans who achieve

marketable skills. The overall objective is a culture of lifelong learning (*Curriculum* 2005 1998:04).

This study departs from the premise that the task of the *grade 1* teacher concerning the *curriculum* goes beyond that which teachers have traditionally fulfilled. It challenges the view that teachers do not have enough time and resources to develop curricula; and that their role is principally one of implementation (Tanner and Tanner 1993:48).

Grade 1 teachers form an integral part of the *curriculum design* and *development* process, regardless of the context in which they act. Given a chance and the resources, *grade 1 teachers* are undoubtedly capable of making valid *curriculum* decisions and of participating effectively in developing the school *curriculum*. When opinions such as the foregoing are related to specific cultural, political, and socio-economic contexts the true complexity of the debate emerges, as does its essentially normative nature. In the contemporary educational climate a discernible trend towards increasing *teacher involvement* in *curriculum* decision-making, concurrent with the devolution of power and authority to schools and their communities, is evident. The current role of *grade 1 teachers* in the *Northern Province* in *curriculum design* and development is one of narrowly circumscribed *curriculum* implementation. This suggests that *grade 1 teachers* are highly constrained by prescribed *curriculum* content and teaching-learning situations and that they are not fully empowered to change *curriculum* components to meet local needs.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:246) further explain that "although many teachers generally are positive about the philosophy and practice of *OBE*, they find it difficult to implement in large classes. Ways and means will have to be devised to employ co-operative learning strategies and peer teaching and assessment to meet the challenge of *OBE* in large classes".

Centrally determined *curriculum* packages and attendant implementation directives virtually bypass *grade 1 teachers* in order to engage learners in the learning process. The history of *curriculum* reform in the United States of America and elsewhere provides plentiful evidence to show that teachers cannot effectively be bypassed in the mediation of a *curriculum* to learners (Taylor and Alexander 1993:35).

According to the reviewers of *Curriculum* 2005, teachers need to be empowered to become successful *curriculum* mediators by means of effective training opportunities (Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005, 2000:96-98).

There are significantly conflicting viewpoints about who should determine and control the school *curriculum* (Skilbeck 1992:70). Even within an established centralized administrative structure, several stakeholders are increasingly exerting pressure on governments through their demands for more equitable representation in *curriculum* decision-making. This view is currently achieving greater prominence in the literature, and requires that democratic, rather than autocratic, decision-making procedures be applied to the practice of *curriculum development*. Recent incidents in places such as Australia reveal a general trend towards changed centre-periphery relationships with some autonomy devolved to teachers and school communities (Duffy and Cleverly 1994:50).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.2.1 Background to the problem

If the purposes of the school *curriculum* are to be realised in practice, *grade 1 teachers* must be placed in a position where they can implement the *curriculum* with maximum commitment and confidence. A precondition would be that *grade 1 teachers* understand the *curriculum* from prior *involvement*. Views of teaching as a profession are contentious, and attendant issues are beyond the scope of this thesis (compare 6.3). However, the independence *grade 1 teachers* enjoy in their classrooms is widely acknowledged. The kind of autonomy *grade 1 teachers* may have, is perceived by some *curriculum* theorists and practitioners as a factor in favour of their participation in *curriculum design* and development (consult chapter 6 paragraph 6.1.1).

Harnack (1993:6) compares the autonomy of the teacher in the classroom with that of a brain surgeon by asking what would happen in a hospital setting if a brain surgeon made a specific decision, which would then be countermanded by the superintendent of the hospital. This may not be the best analogy. However, it illustrates the tension and contradictions which potentially exist in highly centralized *curriculum development* and moderation of the

curriculum. Teachers are expected to perform their task effectively, and on the other hand they are required by administrators to implement a *curriculum* with fidelity but with no *involvement* in its development and control.

Corno (1993:43) observes that no matter how teachers are restricted in *curriculum* decision-making, behind doors they still do as their judgement dictates.

In fact, crucial factors affecting *curriculum development* are many, varied, complicated, intertwined, and constantly changing. A given model for *curriculum development* may be suitable for one setting and inappropriate in another. Thus a theory of *curriculum development* that can be responsive to individual and social needs in a complex changing society cannot be built around linear or single principle concepts. In addition to the many environmental factors involved, the participants must be considered. Also, wisdom does not stand still; it is constantly being revised, extended, replaced, and interpreted differently from varying points of view.

Robson (1994:221) sees a *curriculum* as the construction and revision of ordered sequences of learning experiences related to intended learning outcomes. According to this view, *grade 1 teachers* are responsible for the implementation of externally planned sequences of instruction. On the other hand, Jones (1994:17) argues that the planning of information based on external *curriculum* plans has to be in the hands of *grade 1 teachers* because they are the ones who know the nature of their specific classrooms. See chapter 5 item 5.1.1. These different positions may have far-reaching implications for the anticipated encounter between *grade 1 teachers* and the *curriculum*, as well as for curricular practices that are found in the educational system.

It is maintained here that *grade 1 teachers* have a dominant impact on the implementation of any form of *curriculum*, even if this includes detailed specifications of instruction. Still different forms of curricula and different role expectations of *grade 1 teachers* may lead to significant variations in *curriculum* application. A *grade 1 teacher* who is free to choose from a variety of workbooks and learning materials and whose teaching is guided only by broad curricular guidelines which define the content to be taught, will have to be more precise in choices and planning than a *grade 1 teacher* who is expected to implement a

curriculum package which includes precise instructional materials. In South Africa (particularly the *Northern Province*) this process is further exacerbated by a lack of resources and learner support materials (See chapter 4 item 4.3.2).

Grade 1 teachers are viewed as instruments for achieving the intentions of *curriculum* developers. This approach is powerful in limiting *grade 1 teachers'* motivation for *curriculum* change and adaptation. Their role may be compared to the role of performing musicians who are bound by the scores of composers. Musicians may present their own interpretations of a composition, but they are not expected to rewrite it. In the curricular approach that guides the development project described herewith, teachers are perceived as creators of the *curriculum*, thus composers of their own music. Their knowledge of subject matter and classrooms, their concerns, and their needs become the point of departure for the curricular process. *Grade 1 teachers*' expertise in classroom reality is the basis for discerning practical needs that call for curricular remedies.

Schwarb's (1995:30) approach to the practical mode of *curriculum* work draws upon an image of a creative and practical reformer discerning problems through an awareness of apparent gaps. These are gaps between what should be and what is, rather than seeking solutions from his or her understanding of what might be done, and finally proceeding to improvement. *Grade 1 teachers* know their learners, classrooms and school milieu in a practical way that central *curriculum* developers can never know. This knowledge enables *grade 1 teachers* to unveil weaknesses, shortcomings and conditions which should and can be changed. It is this knowledge and experience which enable a *grade 1 teacher* to make valid curricular decisions. A *curriculum* could thus be viewed as the learning experiences shaped by committed *grade 1 teachers* for their own learners. In their institution they use appropriate materials and actions in their classrooms.

The perception of *grade 1 teachers* as sensitive to, and knowledgeable about problem situations in school, demands their being assigned a central role in the *curriculum* process, that starts with the locating of a curricular process. Knowledge and expertise in uncovering the potential of *curriculum* materials is of paramount importance in that it can be reconstructed for particular learners and for specific classroom situations. *Grade 1 teachers*

can address needs by the professional and efficient use of *curriculum* materials, and by means of more creative and effective teacher *involvement* in the *curriculum* process.

A likely, but undesirable, outcome of this approach, is that *grade 1 teachers'* commitment to the *curriculum* can be reduced. The absence of such commitment to the school *curriculum* yields many pitfalls for the culture of teaching and learning.

Another shortcoming of this approach is that *grade 1 teachers* tend to think that their role is only in the classroom, to implement what they have received from the central office. The situation is exacerbated by some *grade 1 teachers* who follow this externally planned *curriculum* to the letter without appropriately relating it to the local situation. As a result it can be pointed out that the vast majority of classroom *grade 1 teachers* today are stereotyped and shortsighted, because they have never been directly involved in the process of making recommendations regarding the outcomes of education and the broad field of *curriculum* intent.

While modern educational technology is highly desirable to support *grade 1 teachers*, it is also necessary for *grade 1 teachers* and *curriculum* experts in developing nations to be creative and innovative by making more effective use of locally available resources. These include textbooks, documents, and many others (See chapter 6 item 6.2.1 paragraph 6.2.1.2). Participation of the *grade 1 teacher* throughout the stages of *curriculum development*, especially at the initial stages of deciding what will be taught, is vital for its acceptability by learners and parents. It should be pointed out that even in a system where the *curriculum* is centrally planned, the school teacher can contribute a lot in various ways throughout the levels of *curriculum development* e.g. classroom level, departmental level and many others. In this way, the teacher will understand the *curriculum* better and increase its relevance by being able to act as mediator of the *curriculum* as indicated in 6.2.1(a) and (b).

Although the central activity in teaching is actual instruction which involves creating, using and modifying instructional strategies and tactics in the classrooms, broadly speaking teaching covers *curriculum* activities outside the class, namely *curriculum* planning and *curriculum* evaluation. What this entails is that the work of the *Grade 1 teacher* is not limited to the classroom or *curriculum* implementation. The *grade 1 teacher* is thus also

expected to participate in all other phases of *curriculum development*. This broad participation would make the main classroom work more effective.

Although South Africa is in a period of transition, critics of school *curricula* have frequently made lists with passionate accounts of crises in education and calls for reform. Today, as in the past, critics focus on elements they perceive to be missing in the *curriculum* and instructional processes, or they call attention to flagrant abuses within the schools.

> "Educational problems such as the provision of equal access to schools, equal educational opportunities, irrelevant curricula, inadequate finance, inadequate facilities, shortages of educational materials, the enrolment explosion and inadequately qualified teaching staff contribute to the current crisis in education in South Africa" (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:5).

Crises in the school *curriculum* demand an urgent and critical appraisal of the whole enterprise of education in our democratic country (compare 6.3). Such an investigation requires that education and education policy-making be examined in their own right, within the specific terrains of public and academic debate. This should be carried out in order to uncover the assumptions which have informed common sense or expect knowledge on these subjects over time.

1.2.2 Formulation of the problem

Evolving from the discussion provided above (1.2.1), the problem, with regard to *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *School-Based Curriculum development (SBCD)* in the *Northern Province*, is formulated as follows:

1.2.2.1 What kind of teaching and learning problems do *grade 1 teachers* experience in terms of *School-Based Curriculum development* in the *Northern Province?* (See chapter 4 paragraph 4.3 items 4.3.1-4.3.10).

In order to address the main problem the following sub-problems have been identified:

(a) What does *SBCD* entail? (See chapter 2).

(b) How should qualitative research be used as a strategy to address problems (referred to in 1.2.2.1) in *SBCD*? (See chapter 3).

(c) Which research instruments should be utilised for data collection techniques and analysis? (See chapter 4 paragraph 4.1 items 4.1.1-4.1.7).

(d) Which guidelines should be followed in order to involve *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD*? See chapter 5 paragraph 5.1 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 for stages of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum decision-making*.

A synthesis of the sub-problems identified above and their solutions will provide guidelines as reflected in chapter 5 for *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD*. Relevant recommendations in this regard will be included in terms of *SBCD* and teaching practice in South Africa (see chapter 6).

1.3 OUTCOME OF THE RESEARCH

1.3.1 Background to the outcome

The outcome of this research is to reflect on the significance of *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*. The researcher will endeavour to show that planning activities involve teachers in various stages of curricular decision-making. *Teacher involvement* throughout the stages of *curriculum development* will attempt to address the following key questions in *Curriculum Studies*:

- Who will be taught?
- Why should the learner be taught?
- How will the learner be taught?
- What will be taught?
- How well should the learner be taught?
- When and where should the learner be taught?

The outcome of the study pertaining to *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *School-Based Curriculum development* will be phrased as follows:

1.3.2 Formulation of the outcome

1.3.2.1 To identify the kind of teaching and learning problems experienced by *grade 1 teachers* in terms of *SBCD* in the *Northern Province.* (Compare 1.2.2.1 and chapter 4 paragraph 4.3 items 4.3.1-4.3.10).

For the overarching outcome to be clear and straightforward, three enabling outcomes will be stated explicitly as follows:

(a) To elaborate in detail on what *SBCD* entails. (Refer to chapter 2).

(b) To reflect on the significance of using qualitative research as a strategy to address problems identified in 1.3.2.1 in *SBCD.* (Refer to chapter 3).

(c) To identify the research instruments to be utilised for data collection techniques and analysis. (Refer to chapter 4 paragraph 4.1 items 4.1.1-4.1.7).

(d) To provide guidelines to be followed by *grade 1 teachers* in their *involvement* in *SBCD.* (Refer to chapter 5 paragraph 5.1 items 5.1.1-5.1.8) for *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum decision-making* at the following stages:

- Classroom stage
- School stage
- Learning programme stage
- Circuit stage
- Area stage
- Regional stage
- Provincial stage
- National stage.

An analysis of the above enabling outcomes and their solutions will be synthesised to furnish recommendations for *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD.* (Refer to chapter 6).

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

1.4.1 Literature Study

A relevant literature study on key terms such as *curriculum*, *SBCD*, *OBE* and many other relevant concepts will be undertaken with a view to developing a theoretical foundation.

1.4.2 Qualitative research

The research methodology of the study will be qualitative and inductively based. Qualitative research involves data collection, that is collection of extensive data on many variables over an extended period of time in a naturalistic setting (Gay 1996:208). See chapter 3 on details for qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in *SBCD.* Inductively based refers to inference of a general law from particular instances (Thompson 1996:45). This kind of study comprises a purposive stratified sampling design. In order to collect and analyze data effectively, both open-ended and close-ended questionnaires will be administered. Furthermore, a follow-up session on questionnaires will be appropriate in the form of structured and unstructured interviews. The target group and population of the study will comprise experienced *grade 1 teachers* who have been in the field of teaching for more than five years.

The *grade 1 teachers* will be chosen irrespective of gender issues. It will be incumbent upon the researcher to see to it that these *grade 1 teachers* represent all three learning programmes that fall within the ambit of *curriculum* 2005 and *OBE.* According to departmental documentation as quoted by Tiley (1997:16) the three learning programmes are:

- Literacy
- Numeracy and
- Life skills, and diagrammatically they may be represented as follows:

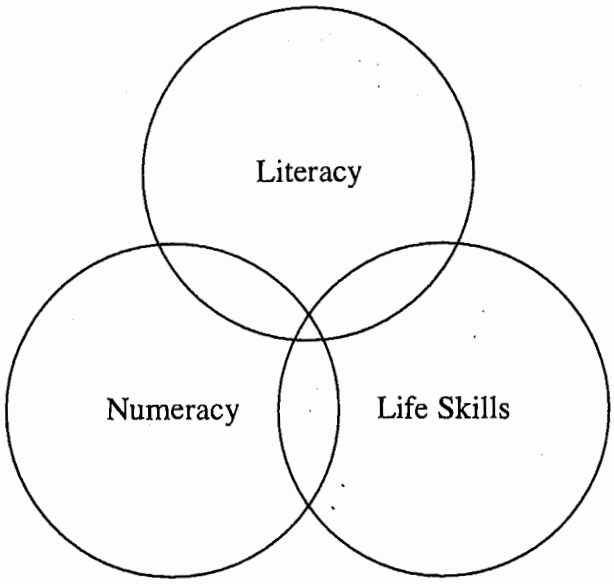


Figure 1.2 Three learning programmes

1.4.2.1 Literacy

Fourie (1997: 3) defines literacy as the ability to read and write. Literacy can be distinguished from awareness by referring to writing. A person can be aware of the written word and that the different symbols do communicate something, but the person is literate in respect of the written word when he or she can read or write. Literacy also involves media literacy, computer literacy and visual literacy. The need for theory in understanding, speaking and listening is of vital importance.

Naicker (1999:104) shows that

> "the eight learning areas have been drawn into three prescribed learning programmes for the foundation phase. The rationale for the integration was to promote a cross-*curriculum* approach that will ensure the holistic development of the learner. Holistic development is concerned with academic, social, psychological and emotional well-being, as well as understanding learners within the broader historical and socio-economic contexts they came from."

Diagram 1.2 (b) illustrates the cross-*curriculum* nature of *OBE* and the nature of integration (Naicker 1999:104).

1.4.2.2 Numeracy

Numeracy uses the learner's own experience and sense of number and space to develop confidence and enjoyment as learners develop their own approaches to working with those concepts. It should always be noted that fluency and correct usage of symbols lead a learner to the ability to communicate mathematically (Tiley 1997:16).

Seeing that the learner-centred approach is of paramount importance for the development of a learner in totality, it was deemed fit to form three main learning programmes in the foundation phase. For this to be accomoplished, the 66 specific outcomes of *Curriculum* 2005 were clustered into three learning programmes. This denotes that all learning areas enjoy equal status and that equal cross-*curriculum* approaches can be utilised. It should be noted that the Report of the Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005 endorses a cross-curricular learner-centred approach to the three programmes in the foundation phase (Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005, 2000:ix-xi).

1.4.2.3 Life skills

Life skills empower learners to develop their affective, cognitive and normative potential, to become empowered and creative citizens who are able to participate within their own environment. Rooth (1998:2) views life skills as the skills which are necessary for successful living and learning. Life skills can also be perceived as coping skills that can enhance a person's quality of life and prevent dysfunctional behaviour. It is through life skills that a person can interact meaningfully and successfully with the environment and with other people.

Life skills can also be seen as the competencies needed for effective living and participation in communities. The greater the range of skills one possesses, the more alternatives and opportunities are available to him or her and as a result, there is more potential for meaningful and successful interaction. Life skills enable people to translate knowledge what they know, and attitudes and value what they think, feel and believe, into action as actual abilities (Rooth 1999:06).

This research was be conducted in the *Northern Province* geographical area, which is Region 3 of the *Northern Province*. See figure 1.3 regarding the following 7 regions (compare chapter 5 item 5.1.6) of the *Northern Province*:

- Region 1: Western Region
- Region 2: Central Region
- Region 3: Northern Region
- Region 4: North East Region
- Region 5: Eastern Region
- Region 6: Southern Region
- Region 7: Bushbuckridge Region

For the researcher to acquire an overall picture of *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*, Region 3 represented suitable samples, as Northern Region has 6 inspection areas and different circuits which accommodate different South African cultures. (Refer to chapter 5 item 5.1.5.) The inspection areas are as follows:

- Area 1: Sekgosese
- Area 2: Soutpansberg
- Area 3: Vuwani
- Area 4: Thohoyandou
- Area 5: Malamulele
- Area 6: Mutale

Figure 1.3 Seven regions of the Northern Province

The languages spoken in these areas are predominantly Northern Sotho, Afrikaans, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. The sample schools were selected from the circuits that form part of Region 3, in a purposeful stratified sampling procedure. (See chapter 3 paragraph 3.6.2). According to May (1997:87):

> a purposeful stratified random sample may be used whereby a stratification according to characteristics such as age group, gender, type of housing, etc, is first made and then a random sample drawn from each of the stratified lists.

The areas are a suitable choice because they have as mode a wide range of experienced *grade 1 teachers*, and as wide a range of cultures at approximately 686 primary schools as indicated in chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.1.

In drawing up a representative sample of schools, the researcher will consider the rural-urban divide, a range of school types based on *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum design* and the outcomes thereof. Altogether, the 20 sample schools representing the *involvement* of these *grade 1 teachers* from urban, peri-urban and rural areas will suffice.

Permission to gain access to research respondents within schools was obtained from the regional director, area managers and principals respectively see appendix. After such arrangements with the officials, the researcher secured an appointment to interview two *grade 1 teachers* from each respective learning programme (See appendices A1-A3).

Prior and after the interview session, the researcher endeavoured to create a relaxed atmosphere by pointing out to interviewees that the information he obtains woould remain confidential and anonymous. Under no circumstances would it be disclosed by the principal or any other party in the top structure of the government. This would enable respondents to respond freely and effectively. (Compare research ethics in chapter 4 item 4.2.3 sub-headings 4.2.3.1-4.2.3.5).

The researcher avoided serious class disruptions by seeing to it that the interview session with each respondent did not exceed 15 minutes.

The time frame will be practical and realistic. In order to ensure retention of full information, a cassette recorder was utilised. Transcriptions will be written from the information on the cassettes. These transcriptions will only be made available on request.

Data collection was thus be carried out in various phases (see chapter 3 item 3.8 sub-headings 3.8.1-3.8.7). Although South Africa is still caught up in a period of transition, the first has been an audit phase that involves a baseline survey of resources and facilities available for the transactional and transformational *OBE* teaching and learning in the selected schools as required by *Curriculum* 2005 and *Curriculum* 21. Data on school and *grade 1 teacher* profiles were then obtained by a combination of site visits, self-completed questionnaires by *grade 1 teachers*, as well as individual discussions and interview sessions with them.

Grade 1 teachers representing the same learning area were not be interviewed simultaneously, so that even reticent respondents would be able to respond positively in the absence of their colleagues, who might influence the collection of data. Such data might otherwise be viewed as invalid and unreliable in the eyes of a researcher.

Another phase comprised classroom observation of the *grade 1 teachers*' lessons (See appendix D in chapter 4 item 4.1.3). This entailed the use of a prepared schedule covering various aspects of classroom conditions, management, methods, use of materials, patterns of interactions and learner behaviour (see chapter four). Two lessons of each *grade 1 teacher* were observed and an analysis of the data involved would help to determine the effects of the availability, quality and use of materials on the processes of teaching and learning (see chapter 4 item 4.1 paragraphs 4.1.1-4.1.3).

1.5 RESEARCH MOTIVATION

The current "top down" *curriculum* implementation tension of teachers, evidenced in South African schools would be reduced by empowering *grade 1 teachers* to change *curriculum* components to meet local needs (see chapter 5 item 5.1 paragraphs 5.1.1-5.1.8). In order to achieve effective *involvement* and encourage partnership in *curriculum decision-making and development* within schools and across external levels in the education system, governance of the *curriculum* needs to be highly democratic and open.

This could become a reality when the expressing and taking action on viewpoints of all stakeholders in designing and developing the school *curriculum* are prerequisite (The Star 23rd June 1999:07).

Mutual dependence, necessitating a policy of equality in ownership and control of the school *curriculum* by *grade 1 teachers* and other legitimate parties, is crucial to successful implementation of the school *curriculum*. Compare chapter 2 paragraph 2.1.5, chapter 3 paragraph 3.12.3, chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.3 and chapter 5 item 5.1. Adopting a principle of democratic ownership might help to minimize conflict situations that normally arise when one party takes an upper hand in making *curriculum* decisions and in controlling the school *curriculum*. The dearth of expertise in *curriculum* issues is very prominent in the historically disadvantaged institutions. For teachers to be serviced, institutions of higher learning should have experts in all fields of education (Sowetan 19th May 1999:26).

The principle of an equal sharing of *curriculum* responsibilities is intended to reduce polarization of this type. While it is noted that different stakeholders confront different *curriculum* problems in their own settings, they share the common concern of bringing about and effecting appropriate *curriculum* programmes for learners. All parties should be prepared to share responsibilities involved to ensure that the system works effectively. There should be a training policy and a programme for preparing teachers for effective participation in *curriculum* decision-making and development. All pre-service teachers are expected to acquire *OBE* knowledge of, and basic skills in, *curriculum development* during their initial training programmes. Approaches to enhancing teachers' professional competency are however necessary beyond the pre-service phase.

Successful *curriculum development* is synonymous with the adequate availability and utilization of materials, equipment, information, personnel, time and space. In a nutshell, teachers as well as other *curriculum* experts need an adequate resource support base for *OBE* in order to carry out their curricular tasks. Participation and flexibility should be effected within an acknowledged framework which implies some limits. Such a system implies elements of co-ordination in order to unify the consistence of decision-making within and across levels. *Curriculum* continuity and co-ordination incorporate regular checks and balances, review and feedback, follow up, support and advisory services, thus facilitating a

common unity of purpose and engendering co-operation among all *curriculum development* participants who share common concerns.

The success or the failure of effective *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *curriculum design* and development has some limitations. For teachers to be trained in an *OBE* approach, the government needs to have the necessary funds. Apart from financial constraints, most schools have an abnormally high learner-teacher ratio. Continuous assessment as a key principle of *OBE* has its pitfalls in over-crowded classrooms. For learners to progress at their own pace, a principle of individualisation should be utilized. In view of these implications, the exercise might be seen as futile if *OBE* is not applied wisely in the South African context.

1.6 CLARIFICATION OF OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS

The following operational concepts which form an integral part of the study will be clarified:

1.6.1 *Grade 1 teacher*

As from January 1997, the word "standard" was replaced with "g*rade*", therefore the first year of a learner's schooling will be grade reception (grade o) followed by grades 1 to 12, with *grade 12* being equivalent to standard 10 or matriculation (Yearbook 1998: 323-324). *Grade 1 teachers,* formerly known as sub-A teachers, prior to the launch of *curriculum* 2005, are found in primary schools in the Foundation Phase. The National Qualification Framework (NQF) is comprised of three respective bands namely: GET, FET and HET (see table 1.1 regarding these bands).

TABLE 1.1 TYPES OF NQF BANDS

School Grades	*NQF Level*	**Band**	*Types of qualifications and certificates*
	8	**HIGHER EDUCATION**	Doctorates Further research degrees
	7	**AND**	
	6	**TRAINING BAND**	Degrees, Diplomas and Certificates
	5		
		FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING CERTIFICATES	
12	4	Further Education	School/College/NGOs Training certificates, Mix of units
11	3	And Training Band	School/College/NGOs Training certificates, Mix of units
10	2		School/College/NGOs Training certificates, Mix of units
		GENERAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING CERTIFICATES	
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 R	1	Senior Phase ABET 4 ABET 3 **GENERAL EDUCATION** Intermediate Phase ABET 2 **AND** Grade R to Grade 3 ABET 1 **TRAINING BAND** Foundation Phase Pre-school	

National Department of Education, *Curriculum* 2005 Life long Learning (1997:30)

- **General Education and Training Band (GET)**

This band functions on NQF level 1. Here, formal schooling consists of pre-school, i.e. pre-primary, foundation, i.e. junior primary, intermediate, which is senior primary, senior phase, which is junior secondary and senior secondary: Adult Basic Education (ABET: levels 1-4). The GET band also represents compulsory schooling (see figure 1.3) for *grade 1 teachers* in the foundation phase (*grade* R to *grade* 3).

- **Further Education and Training Band (FET)**

Curriculum 2005 (1997:31) shows that the Further Education and Training Certificate (FETC) will be given at the end of formal schooling, which is *grade* 12 formerly known as standard 10. Learners, irrespective of age, who gain equivalent qualifications outside the South African schooling system are also entitled to obtain the FETC certificate. Schooling is non-compulsory in this band.

This band includes NQF levels 2, 3 and 4.

- **Higher Education and Training Band (HET)**

This band comprises NQF levels 5-8. On the one hand, within the HET band, learners will be able to obtain both certificate and diplomas offered by tertiary institutions such as colleges. On the other hand, institutions of higher learning such as technikons and university will be able to offer various degrees (*Curriculum* 2005 1997:31).

The development of a *curriculum* policy for the foundation phase, which includes Early Childhood Development (ECD), has been based on the following national policy documents,

- White Paper on Education and Training
- Interim Policy for ECD
- *Curriculum* Framework Development (Policy Document 1997:3).

The White Paper (1995:33) acknowledges that

> "the care and development of young children must be the foundation of social relations and the starting point of human resources development strategies from the community to national levels".

From the above argument it is evident that *grade 1 teachers* should adhere to the overall goal of the national *curriculum*. The goal is to provide learners with opportunities to develop to their full potential as active, responsible and fulfilled citizens who can play a constructive role in a democratic, non-racist and equitable society (see chapter 6 item 6.2 paragraph 6.2.1).

Vermeulen (1997:25) echoes that the development of the child in totality should lead to a balanced personality so that he or she should be equipped with the necessary life skills. Some of the key principles guiding *curriculum development* for the ECD are:

- participation and ownership
- accountability
- anti-biased approach and many others.

ECD is applied to the process by which children from birth to nine years grow and thrive, physically and mentally, emotionally, morally and socially (White Paper 1995:33).

Grade 1 teachers must submit to the more exacting labour of winning the confidence of the learner, so that the learner accepts the educator – as someone who in turn accepts the learner before desiring to influence him. Social education is more profound than mere adjustment. Responsible behaviour by the *grade 1 teacher* in valuing discussion means responding, not merely concurring. *Grade 1 teachers* are not the unobtrusive scene shifters of progressive education any more than they are the authoritarian bearers of assured values of traditional education. *Grade 1 teachers* are figures seeking a meeting with figures in the making. They are primarily facilitators of learning towards outcomes.

1.6.2 *Involvement*

Recently, there has been renewed interest in building the *curriculum* around the interests of individual learners and the idea of a *curriculum* being teacher-proof has become less popular. Teacher-proof curricula, it must be remembered, are also learner-proof. Hence the decline in popularity of such materials is not so much because of constraints on teachers in *curriculum development,* as it is because of limitations on learners being placed by selecting only some topics for exploration.

The labelling of curricula as teacher-proof was one of the less subtle manifestations of a tide that ran against the *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers* in curricular decision-making. At the heart of the *curriculum* reforms of the 1950's and early 1960's was the conviction of the large foundations, federal government, and scholars in the disciplines that the same *curriculum* should be offered in schools throughout a country (Sowetan 20th April 1999:28). *Grade 1 teachers* were presented with the *curriculum* as a *fait accompli* and were given courses on how it should be used. The arena of free choice for the teacher was so restricted by the "new" curricula that the idea of the teacher as a *curriculum* developer all but disappeared from educational literature.

The noun "*involvement*" is based on the verb "involve" which means to share the experience or effect of a situation (Thompson 1996: 467). (See chapter 1 item 1.6.3.1, chapter 2 item 2.3.4, chapter 3 item 3.12.3.1 and chapter 5 item 5.1).

The Department of Education in the discussion document 1996:13 indicates that teachers are the key agents of quality learning and implementers of change. They should be involved in all policies, strategies and programmes in order to facilitate *grade 1 teachers'* ownership and empowerment.

Longstreet and Shane (1993:72) say that teachers are to provide for individual differences as they arise. Indeed, *grade 1 teachers* are also to develop resource materials when necessary. The educational background of *grade 1 teachers* who are currently in the profession was in the subject-based transmission-oriented *curriculum. Grade 1 teachers* were thus not really accustomed to a social-problems orientation, especially one that often involves controversy.

The cultural mindset of *grade 1 teachers* thus actively interferes with the establishment of an integrated *curriculum* based on a theme or problem-centreed model, as is envisaged with *Curriculum* 2005 and *Curriculum* 21.

The controversy over whether *grade 1 teachers* should be involved in *curriculum development* is now in the spotlight. Those who do not believe that *grade 1 teachers* should be so involved tend to look upon *grade 1 teachers* as technicians rather than as professionals. What is often obscured in the arguments is that teachers are engaged in *curriculum development*. They make crucial decisions on what is to be taught and how it is to be taught. Many of these decisions must be made quickly by a person with immediate knowledge of individuals and groups – the *grade 1 teacher*. The problem, then, becomes one of how teachers may be helped to make better decisions, rather than whether teachers should make decisions.

The fact that the education policy for years excluded *grade 1 teachers* from participating in *curriculum* improvement must be reversed by involving *grade 1 teachers* in *curriculum design* and development. Although it appeared that teachers had come full circle, this was, unfortunately, not the case. Much ground had been lost in the interim; in a number of school systems, *curriculum* improvement had become synonymous with the adoption of innovations rather than the identification of *curriculum* problems and considered action for improvement. The effect on *grade 1 teachers* of a policy that considered their *involvement* in *curriculum* decisions as "unsuitable" is obvious. South African *grade 1 teachers*, too, have come to regard themselves as technicians; they believe that appropriate behaviour for *grade 1 teachers* does not go beyond following the *grade 1 teacher's* guide to textbooks or the instructions on programmed materials. *Grade 1 teachers* will need to be treated as professionals if they are to function as professionals in the area of *curriculum* improvement. *Grade 1 teachers* base some aspects of their practical theories on experiences prior to teaching and on recreational experiences outside of school while they are *grade 1 teachers*. More importantly, *grade 1 teachers* develop themselves as they observe their own small experiments aimed at improving their work, and ascertain what works well (Mc Cutcheon 1995:39).

Grade 1 teachers are frequently victimized by the ways in which schools are currently organized and operated, with the result that they are unable to deviate from rigid *curriculum*-related specifications developed at the top for an entire school system. If *grade 1 teachers* continue to comply with that situation, they are abdicating their responsibility as *grade 1 teachers*. Knowledge arises out of ongoing conversations about things that matter, conversations that are themselves embedded within larger traditions of discourse that teachers have come to value (Applebee 1996:3). Participation is a key concept in *Curriculum* 2005/ *Curriculum* 21. All stakeholders should be actively involved.

Customarily, societal-level decisions have been the functions of local and state boards of education and deal with broad goals for all learners. Institutional-level decisions usually encompass a selection of more localised goals, materials, and methods of assessment for a school system or an individual school. At the classroom level, specific decisions are made within the general policy framework and carried out largely through *grade 1 teacher* leadership. For *grade 1 teachers* or their informed representatives to avoid *involvement* in decision-making about *curriculum* outcomes is professionally irresponsible. At the national and provincial levels, *grade 1 teachers'* voices can be heard even though boards and administrators convene the meetings. Not only should *grade 1 teachers* seek *involvement* in *curriculum*-planning, but they should also assume responsibility for involving learners in outcome-setting, planning alternative means for reaching educational outcomes, and evaluating progress.

Part of *grade 1 teacher* responsibility for responsive *curriculum development* is *grade 1 teacher* recognition of the complex nature of *curriculum development* and the need for expertise of many varieties. If *grade 1 teachers* themselves cannot contribute the competences that are needed in the process to express their point of view, it is their responsibility either to develop these skills collectively or to invite other competent persons into the *curriculum* dialogue. The role of the teacher cannot be by-passed by either the administrator or *curriculum* developer, because at the end of the day teachers have to teach. Decision and recommendations about *curriculum development* could be made by the Minister of Education, Directors-General and school-boards, but in the end *grade 1 teachers' involvement* or participation does not mean *grade 1 teacher* domination of the *curriculum;* yet it does suggest that *SBCD* is incomplete without the teachers' input (Carl 1995:82).

Teachers can stimulate dialogue about human values; they can teach the relationship of knowledge to decision-making and purposefully extend *curriculum*-planning to include a much wider range of resources. Studies of local and international literature in *curriculum* matters emphasize *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *curriculum* matters. There are unanimous feelings that effective *grade 1 teacher involvement* is essential. It should also be noted that without adequate *grade 1 teacher involvement*, the chances of successful implementation greatly diminish.

The above argument implies that the teacher's work speaks for itself. The effectiveness of the *grade 1 teacher's* service is determined by the quality of training and craftsmanship, the degree of *involvement* in the profession, and also the extent to which the teacher is trained to perform duties in the school and the classroom, as well as by the effectiveness with which the *grade 1 teacher* handles the instructional situation.

The problem is thus that teachers are not involved as *curriculum* developers. The *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers* in this respect is vested primarily in the *curriculum development* they undertake in their preparation of lesson units and at different levels of operation (see chapter 5).

1.6.3 *Curriculum* and its dimensions

Print (1993:9) is of the opinion that a *curriculum* encompasses all the planned learning opportunities offered to learners by the educators in institutions and the experiences that the learners encounter when the *curriculum* is implemented.

> The term "*curriculum*" is derived from the Latin word "currere" which means "to run" or "race". In time it came to mean the "course of study" (Lumadi 1995:10). Wiles and Bondi (1998:6) indicate that in the teaching-learning situation the *curriculum* is compared to a race or course which a learner is entitled to complete. These definitions both focus on the learner and the content as aspects of *curriculum design* (Lumadi 1995:10 and Wiles and Bondi 1998:6).

According to Longstreet and Shane (1993:47) the *curriculum* is defined as "the sum of experiences leading to the learning that occurs under the auspices of the school whether or not these are part of the written content guide."

A *curriculum* is referred to as "an organized set of intended learning outcomes leading to the achievement of educational goals" (Messick and Reynolds 1992:56). This definition goes hand in hand with the one of Parkay and Hass (1993:3), as it shows that a *curriculum* is concerned with behaviour learnt as a result of experiences with content.

From the foregoing definition, it is evident that a *curriculum* is a plan or programme for teaching and learning which is conceptualized in the light of certain selected outcomes. The three dimensions of *curriculum* are elaborated upon below.

1.6.3.1 Overt *Curriculum*

It is evident that the conceptualization of the terminology goes beyond the opinion of merely preparing a well thought document to be implemented at a later stage. When an overt *curriculum* is implemented at an institution of higher learning, e.g. university, college, technikon, or Further Education institutions such as secondary school, or General Education and Training institutions such as primary schools or kindergartens, interactions take place among learners, educators and the *curriculum* content, with the result that modification occurs and an overt *curriculum* emerges.

Cowie (1998:635) defines the adjective "*overt*" as "*unconcealed or opened.*" In this study the researcher focuses on a *school- based curriculum* which requires simple preparation of the documents which can be applied. Examples therefore would include:

- schemes of work
- lesson plans
- tests and examinations
- assignments, homework
- projects
- time-tables

- progress books and any form of ongoing (continuous) or summative assessment.

This *curriculum* is tailored to suit the needs and interests of the local environment. Its outcomes are clearly outlined. It can also be referred to as a "taught," "explicit", "planned", "organised" or "intended" *curriculum,* because learners are taught different learning areas as part of the *curriculum.* Furthermore, teaching and learning experiences are explicitly intended.

A successful policy regarding this *curriculum* overcomes a historically determined pattern of fragmentation, inequality and inefficiency. It increases access for black people, women, disabled and mature learners, and generates flexible models of learning and teaching, including models of delivery, to accommodate a large and more diverse leaner population (Education White Paper 3 of 1997:05).

An overt *curriculum* is regarded as variable and positive for the development of the learners, and the planned education is aimed at attaining its educational outcomes. When the *curriculum* is open and explicit, desired changes for learners are transparent. Learners also become open and their individual needs can be recognised so that they can be easily helped.

An intended *curriculum* always has a specified location with planned experiences offered by the teachers. The learner can see clearly what is entailed by the *curriculum.* When an overt *curriculum* is implemented, all stakeholders are sure of what is happening at the level of implementation. They know what is expected from them and their expectations are derived from the *curriculum.* One could deduce that an overt *curriculum* comprises

- planned learning experience
- organised learning opportunity
- an academic setup
- a document
- outcomes to be attained.

One of the criticisms of *Curriculum* 2005 was that content was not specified in overt terms. Teachers thus had difficulty in selecting and finding appropriate content to fit stated outcomes.

1.6.3.2 Covert *curriculum*

"Covert" means secret, to disguise or to hide (Thompson 1996:194). A covert *curriculum* may also be referred to as a "hidden" *curriculum.*

The teaching and learning outcomes are implicitly intended. Print (1993:10) states that a hidden *curriculum* refers to the outcomes of education, and the processes leading to those outcomes, which are not explicitly intended by educators. The *grade 1 teacher* does not state the intended outcomes orally or in a written form and they are not included in educational statements such as official curricula, *curriculum* projects or school policy. This simply denotes that the covert *curriculum* is undersigned, outcomes are invariable and could become detrimental to learners' development.

In any school *curriculum* learners receive planned and intentional learning as well as the unplanned and unintentional learning. Learners in a hidden *curriculum* do not know what is expected of them and what to expect in learning. An imposed message is not always clear, because the *grade 1 teacher* does not state what he or she wants to achieve, and as a result things happen spontaneously. In a covert *curriculum,* unlike an overt *curriculum*, learning is unintended and unplanned.

A covert *curriculum* can have positive outcomes because in a school set-up, learners for instance learn about how authority figures such as prefects, Student Representative Council (SRC) members, teachers and headmasters should be treated. They for instance learn about rules and regulations for a school, discipline and the fact that people are not equal in any society, they may observe the exemplary life of a *grade 1 teacher* which may be emulated by learners as a role model, and many other matters. When they learn Mathematics, English, Accountancy or any learning programme, they also learn all sorts of things which are not necessarily documented in any *curriculum*. These are the less obvious aspects which learners learn about at school.

On the other hand, a covert *curriculum* can also yield some pitfalls. The South African education system during the *"apartheid"* era was a tool to promote *apartheid.* The following is an example of a covert *curriculum* with negative connotations. In 1953, when H.F. Verwoerd was minister of Native Affairs at the time when Bantu Education was introduced, he stressed:

> "... when I have control over native education I will reform it so that natives will be taught from childhood that equality with Europeans is not for them" and "we should not give the natives any academic education. If we do, who is going to do the manual labour in the community?" (Le Roux 1945 [National Party politician] cited in Christie 1992:12).

A covert *curriculum* can be the result of:

- a divided schooling system;
- government control;
- the authority structure of school,
- school organization;
- examination and certification procedures and processes; and
- particular teaching strategies and methods and many others.

1.6.3.3 Null *Curriculum*

Shulman (1990:51) defines the null *curriculum* as those areas of learning content, intellectual processes and values which are left out of the constructed *curriculum*. No *curriculum* contains everything. Decisions have to be made with various stakeholders about the components which should be included in the *curriculum*. The adjective null means something which is invalid and non-existent (Cowie 1998:608). A *curriculum* may be regarded as null, if it does not meet the learning needs of learners and also hampers *SBCD.*

Although this may *de facto* be an invalid *curriculum*, it may be viewed as an official *curriculum* by a particular body or government. The *curriculum* policy and guidelines are formulated by the National Department of Education. An example thereof would include: teachers' guides, learners' guides, textbooks, equipment and many others. The National Department's role is to promote the clarity of education and training policies from the GNU,

also those included in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), and to promote the provisions of the Constitution into a national framework within which institutions can develop their human resources (Yearbook 1998:318).

A criticism to be levelled against this type of *curriculum* is that it is a centre-periphery model. It does not address the needs and interests of an entire community. It is drawn up by people who do not know the problems experienced in the practical teaching-learning situations. Although government officials, teachers, parents and learners are stakeholders in the *curriculum*, teachers are expected to implement a *curriculum* which is disseminated to them without prior *involvement*.

Neither *grade 1 teachers* nor *curriculum* developers should possess absolute professional autonomy over the school *curriculum,* independently of other groups who should have legitimate claim. *Grade 1 teachers* are more qualified to devise the most relevant *curriculum* than other *curriculum* developers who may be unaware of the local needs and experience of learners. The characteristics of a null *curriculum* are as following:

(a) The decision-making structure

In this case the government structures are mostly hierarchic. In a school, the principal is largely responsible for *curriculum decision-making*. His decision is always final and no consultation is allowed. (See chapter 5 paragraph 5.1.2.1).

(b) The teacher's role paradigm

Brady (1990:14) shows that *SBCD* involves a change in teachers' perceptions of their role. Once considered to be the implementers of prescribed curricula, *grade 1 teachers* are expected to take an active role in *curriculum development*. (Refer to chapter 6 item 6.2 paragraph 6.2.2). *Grade 1 teachers* in a null *curriculum* are viewed as "passive acceptors" of the null *curriculum*. Unless *grade 1 teachers* were to make a major adjustment, *SBCD* could not function effectively.

(c) The problem of expertise

The expertise of most government officials in developing a relevant school *curriculum* is questionable. In fact some were trained when courses in *curriculum development* at institutions of higher learning were rudimentary or non-existent. Not only may there be a lack of experience, but there may also be a lack of theoretical knowledge and some confusion as to an appropriate procedure for developing a *curriculum.*

A null *curriculum* does not ascertain the exact nature and area of the dissatisfaction. It may be that developers are not concerned with relevance of the content and processes in the existing *curriculum* which may not necessitate the rewriting of outcomes and methodologies.

1.6.4 *Curriculum development*, decision-making and meta-orientations

Shiundu and Omulando (1992:159) are of the idea that *curriculum development* is the planning of learning opportunities intended to bring about certain changes in the learners. It also involves the assessment of the extent to which these changes have taken place. They identify the following nine stages of *curriculum development:*

- Situation analysis
- Formulation of outcomes
- Setting of the *curriculum* project
- Programme building
- Piloting the new programme in selected schools
- Improving the programme
- Implementation
- Evaluation and
- Maintenance.

According to Brady (1990:21) *curriculum development* begins with a critical examination of the situation at the school level, and because every school is different, a situation analysis cannot be transferred from one school to another. Only when the situation is understood, can a *curriculum* be developed to fulfil the potential of that situation.

Carl (1995:82), in support of Brady (1990:21), takes a step further by showing that decisions and recommendations about the *curriculum* could be made by the Minister of Education, Director General and school boards, but in the end *grade 1 teachers' involvement* or participation does not mean *grade 1 teacher* domination of the *curriculum*, but rather suggests that *curriculum development* is incomplete without the *grade 1 teachers'* participation.

Curriculum development may also be referred to as the process of planning, implementing, innovating and assessing learning experiences and opportunities intended to produce desired changes in learners (Vermeulen 1997:18). *Curriculum development* could be fostered by cross institutional sharing of high quality learning materials. Both the quality and cost effectiveness of teacher education provision is likely to be improved by conceiving of it as an organic system which needs to find innovative ways to exploit institutional linkages and the rapidly expanding range and variety of communication and information media technology (Department of Education 1996:74).

Van der Stoep and Louw (1992:215) propound that *curriculum development* must recognise that the planning of teaching which is the outcome of research must also keep the level of achievement in mind. It is of vital importance that *grade 1 teachers* should be directly involved in *curriculum development* because they have much knowledge concerning the choice of strategies and materials that should be included in the *curriculum.* It is unlikely that a single *curriculum* developer, acting independently, will be able to choose successfully the most appropriate *curriculum* packages on behalf of *grade 1 teachers* and learners in different geographical and social locations.

Söhnge, De Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:27-29) identify the three types of *curriculum* decision-making and meta-orientations.

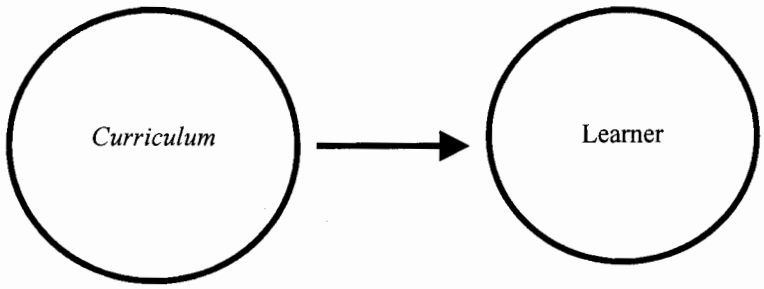
1.6.4.1 Transmission orientation

A transmission orientation is also viewed as an autocratic or traditional approach. Two parties are identified in this orientation. On the one hand, there is a *curriculum* which is designed and developed by a government. On the other hand, there is a school which should

implement the *curriculum* in the teaching-learning situation. This is a one-way traffic system, in which the needs and interests of learners are not considered. The system is top-down because the *curriculum* is centrally designed and transmitted to the school for implementation. It may also be regarded as a subject-centred design model because the content is always at the centre of the *curriculum* process.

The *curriculum* is disseminated from the national level to schools around the country. (Compare chapter 5 item 5.1.8). The system is not open to public comment and it ignores other stakeholders in the sense that they are not fully involved in *curriculum* decision-making. Rote learning is encouraged and learners memorize textbook knowledge without understanding. The learners act passively and respond to a structured learning situation (see figure 1.4).

Figure 1.4 A transmission orientation



Söhnge, De Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:22)

The Education White Paper 3 of (1997:23) shows that successful negotiation and co-operative practice depend on the parties reaching agreement about the mission of the institution and this joint responsibilities toward it. The challenges of modern societies cannot be met by either party acting alone.

Söhnge, de Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:22) maintain that *curriculum* planning in the transmission paradigm takes place in terms of a mechanistic concept of human behaviour. The transfer of facts from teachers to learners amounts to a one-way communication. It is an atomistic paradigm in which reality is broken down into distinct, separate elements. It is philosophically allied with an empiricist world view, psychologically allied with behaviourism, and politically allied with the conservative economic theory,

laissez-faire capitalism, which is characterised by an atomistic view of economic and social activity. In short, this is a centralized *curriculum* system.The previous *curriculum* in South Africa was typical of a transmission-oriented, content- driven *curriculum.*

1.6.4.2 Transaction orientation

The transaction orientation is a dialogical approach. It may also be viewed as a theme or problem-centred design model because real life problems should always be at the centre of the *curriculum* process.

Emphasis is on *curriculum* strategies which facilitate cognitive problems-solving skills, with which knowledge may be constructed. The transaction between the *curriculum* and the learners is a two-way traffic system. A learner-oriented philosophy is important to secure learner *involvement* and success which is critical to their learning (National Department of Education 1996:11). Although the system is two way, the final decision regarding the *curriculum* comes from the centre. The *grade 1 teacher* must be familiar with the appropriate resources and be able to stimulate inquiry with probes and questions. The *grade 1 teacher* will also be interested in how learners think and how they approach problems, and be able to listen to their reasons and thinking processes (see figure 1.5)

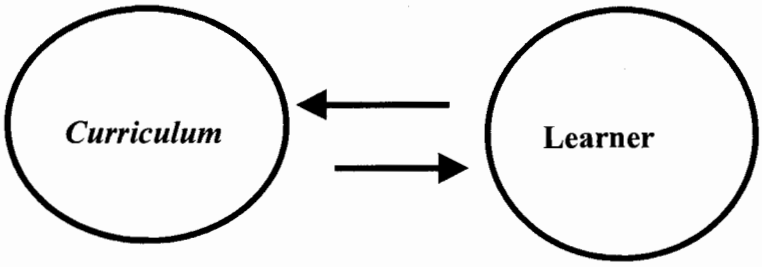


Figure 1.5 A transaction orientation

Söhnge, De Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:22)

Söhnge, de Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:24) indicate that a transaction-oriented evaluation focuses on the learner's acquisition of complex intellectual frameworks and skills and on social skills that are important in a democratic context. This *curriculum* is viewed as a regional or decentralized system. The goal of *curriculum* based on the transaction position is the development of rational intelligence in general and complex problem solving skills in particular. This type of *curriculum* meets certain principles of *OBE,*

for example a dialogue between learners, and a focus on critical thinking and *curriculum* problem solving, and on the teacher as facilitator.

1.6.4.3 Transformation orientation

This is a *school-based curriculum* system which implies *teacher involvement* and democratic ownership of the *curriculum*. Brady (1992:17) shows that a transformation orientation aims at encouraging teachers to take a greater role in programme creation but assumes a set of activities outside of individual classroom as necessary to bring about desired outcomes.

Without the active *involvement* of all stakeholders in education the vision of quality education cannot be realised (School Governance; *Northern Province* 1997:3). Administering the *curriculum* can very easily become a matter of adjusting learners and teachers to a general pattern of instruction that has long since been accepted as the only way of providing schooling. Keeping the existing instructional machinery oiled is the main job in this approach of administration. The basic principle is that through practice in controlling learners in school situations, learners will be better prepared to participate in community and government after school years. There is nothing alarming or sensational about the idea that learners learn through experience. This is as old as life itself. The only learning that comes to a learner takes place through the steps he or she takes to do something. A learner needs direction and advice from his teacher but he must also take the initiative in acting and doing.

The transformation orientation concentrates on skills which can be used to bring about personal and social changes. Social change entails entering into a relationship with the environment (see figure 1.6). The outcomes of this orientation are self-transcendence, self actualization and social *involvement*. The *curriculum* focuses on learning experiences that centre around inter-disciplinary activities. Disciplines are intertwined, e.g. one's internal and external worlds, and relations between school and community are sought; the *curriculum* tends to be oriented around projects of a social nature related to self-inquiry. *Grade 1 teachers* in this meta-orientation will forge linkages with the community; which will in turn, facilitate learner contact with the community (Söhnge, De Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa 1999:25).

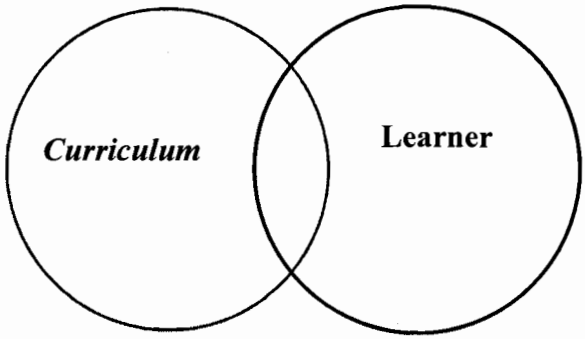


Figure 1.6 A transformation orientation

Söhnge, de Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:25)

See table 1.2 for a detailed discussion on the *curriculum* dimensions or meta-orientations.

TABLE 1.2 TYPES OF*CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING* AND META-ORIENTATIONS

	TRANSMISSION	TRANSACTION	TRANSFORMATION
Outcomes	Behavioural Content-oriented	Complex intellectual skills	Integrated outcomes e.g. Cognitive, psychomotor and affective
Content	Knowledge viewed atomistically as objective Content should reinforce traditional values	Knowledge is related to mental process and cognitive frameworks. Social content focuses on public policy questions	Personal knowledge is as important as public knowledge. Social content stresses identification and resolution of pressing social concerns.
Teaching Strategies	Structured teaching approaches Transmission of facts and values.	Focus is on problem solving and analysis. Teaching strategies are matched to learner developmental frameworks.	Focus on connecting inner life of learner to outer worlds. Divergent thinking is encouraged. Authentic learning activities.
Organisation	Subject-centred design Hierarchical	Problem-centred design Developmental	Learner-centred design Integrative
Study of New Programmes	Focus on content	Focus on how teaching methodologies affect cognitive processes	Focus on how the programme affects the learner
Resources	Textbooks	Variety of resources to stimulate mental processes	Human resources are stressed; personal growth of teacher is central.
Roles	Roles fixed within system hierarchy . No flexibility	Roles more flexible, allows for interaction among teachers	Roles very flexible with emphasis on informal relationship among teachers.
Professional development	General professional development sessions focus on information transmission	More individualised professional development Stress on practice and feedback.	Individual professional development, emphasis on coaching and personal growth for teachers.
Timeline	Short timeline, implementation seen as event, not process	Reasonable, flexible timeline, implementation seen as process, not event	Long, flexible timeline Implementation seen as holistic process.
Communication system	One-way traffic, top-down approach	Two-way traffic and Interactive communication	Two-way interactive communication, that goes beyond cognitive elements, combination of top-down and bottom-up approach.
Monitoring system	Focus on accountability through use of tests	Variety of methods used to monitor progress	Informal methods are used, particularly teacher feedback, formative and continuous.

Söhnge, De Munnik, Van der Horst and Vakalisa (1999:27-29)

1.6.5 *School-Based Curriculum development*

School-Based Curriculum development represents a way of decentralising education control. The whole process of *curriculum development* is regarded as the responsibility of the different relevant people such as teachers, learners, parents and the community, who must be involved right from the beginning until the implementation stage.

According to Marsh (1992:128) *SBCD* includes the planning, designing, implementing and assessing of a programme of learners' learning by the educational institution of which those learners are members.

Print (1993:20) in support of Marsh (1992:128) stresses that *SBCD* is the development of a *curriculum*, or an aspect of it, by one or more *grade 1 teachers* in a school to meet the perceived needs of a school population, that is an on-site resolution, in *curriculum* terms, of problems experienced with the existing curricula.

In the analysis of the above definitions, although postulated by different educationists, one comes to the conclusion that *SBCD* can only be possible when identified and existing problems have been acknowledged by *grade 1 teachers* in that particular institution, and when basic and action research have been carefully conducted. *SBCD* can only be successfully carried out when a situation analysis and a needs assessment have been conducted. The researchers as well as the *curriculum* developers can then come up with solutions and a plan of action, i.e. strategies that will enable the school teachers and their principal to implement the *curriculum*.

Marsh (1992:128) emphasises four aspects of *SBCD,* namely:

- shared decision-making between teachers and learners;
- *SBCD* is internal and organic;
- involves a network of relationship with various groups;
- it is characterised by a definite pattern of values, norms, procedures and roles.

The above aspects confirm that problems are identified by the concerned group (i.e. teachers and learners) and that they are directly involved. These are the people who have a firsthand knowledge of the situation and they also know what their particular needs are. Shared decision-making is therefore vitally important. (Compare chapter 2 paragraph 2.1.2.6, chapter 3 paragraph 3.12, chapter 4 item 4.3.3 and chapter 5 item 5.1).

SBCD is one of the constituents of the school structure, because it has a very strong relationship with all the activities that are done to improve the internal school functioning. There must be relevancy to what other groups are doing in the development of such a *curriculum*, e.g. the values and norms of the community should be taken into consideration. Norms and standards for procedures and roles played by different groups are to be relevant to *SBCD*.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:86) reveal that the learning outcomes and the experiences are for the learner to master. There should be a paradigm shift from a teacher competence-based *curriculum* to a learner-based *curriculum* by encouraging learners to exhibit their own competence in demonstrating what they are able to do on their own, without teachers' driving inputs. This approach is typical of an outcomes-based curricular approach, as envisaged in *Curriculum* 2005 and *Curriculum* 21.

In order to achieve effective *curriculum decision-making and development*, African governments and education systems should change from their current directive and authoritarian *curriculum development* practices to more participatory approaches which incorporate teachers at the local level in effective decision-making responsibility. For details regarding *School-Based Curriculum development* see chapter two.

1.6.6 *The Northern Province*

The Republic of South Africa is comprised of nine provinces, namely:

- Gauteng
- Western Cape
- Eastern Cape
- Northern Cape
- Kwazulu-Natal
- North West
- Free State
- Mpumalanga
- *Northern Province.*

For details regarding the nine provinces of the Republic of South Africa, see figure 1.7.

Figure 1.7 The provinces of South Africa

The *Northern Province* is the fifth largest of South Africa's nine provinces (10% of the total area) and the third largest in terms of school enrolment with 1 642 417 learners in 1991, updated to 1 873 023 in 1994. The figure increased by 1 975 learners from 1995 to 2 549 159 in 1999. This figure simply denotes that the *Northern Province* has 16%-20% of the total school population of South Africa. It is also imperative to take proper cognizance of the fact that population estimates on 27 April 1994 indicate that of the 5 201 630 people living in the *Northern Province*, 5 044 880 are Africans (97%), with a very small number of Whites, Coloureds and Indians (Republic of South Africa 1994a). The current figure shows that of the 5 802 566 people residing in the *Northern Province* 5 612 180 are Africans (97,2%) with a number of whites, Coloureds and Indians (Republic of South Africa 1999a)

It should be noted that the former African education systems of the Department of Education and Training (DET), Venda, Lebowa and Gazankulu were responsible for the education of the vast majority of learners in the *Northern Province.* Its population density is relatively high with 41 people per square kilometre, making it the third most densely populated province after Gauteng and Kwazulu Natal (Scott 1995:6).

The large population of the *Northern Province* and its high growth rate have important implications for the planning of infrastructure, particularly educational and health facilities. Another important demographic factor is that the *Northern Province* suffers from the second highest male migration rate of all provinces, i.e. 28%. This means that almost one third of all men do not live with their families but have become migrant labourers. The former Venda, Lebowa and Gazankulu "homelands" could not provide sufficient employment opportunities for the rapidly growing labour force, which has led workers to migrate to the larger industrial, mining or urban nodes in adjacent districts, especially Gauteng.

Grade 1 teacher qualifications in the *Northern Province* are poor (e.g. 79,5% under-qualified African teachers in 1991). The *Northern Province* has the greatest number of under-qualified primary and secondary teachers in the country (Scott 1995:vii).
The data provided above indicates that the *Northern Province* requires in depth research in the field of education, as the people in this Province need guidelines on developing their educational institutions maximally.

1.7 SYNTHESIS

The statement of the problem in this chapter enables the researcher to explore the field of investigation by means of the implementation of the research instruments and qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in SBCD – see chapter 3. The results of chapters 2, 3 and 4 will thus be logically analysed, interpreted and synthesised in order to arrive at guidelines which may serve as a framework for grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD in the Northern Province.

1.8 FURTHER PROGRAMME AND CHAPTER DIVISION

This study comprises 6 chapters, namely:

Chapter 1

This chapter comprises an introductory orientation (see aim of chapter for details).

Chapter 2

A literature study on the theories of *SBCD* and *OBE* is undertaken. The problems of both *SBCD* and *OBE* theories are reflected and a theoretical component and background present a basis for assessing the significance of *SBCD* in an *OBE* framework.

Chapter 3

In this chapter empirical research is dealt with at great length. A literature review on qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in *SBCD* is first undertaken. Thereafter an analysis of this information forms the foundation for the application of research theory to practice in schools in the *Northern Province.*

Chapter 4

Research instruments and data analysis are explored in a comprehensive way. Qualitative research is implemented and the research sample and findings thereof are presented in a systematic way.

Chapter 5

Guidelines with regard to *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD* are formulated with a view to empowering *involvement* to be able to develop a *School-Based Currriculum.* These guidelines evolve from the literature study and qualitative research data analysis dealt with in chapters 2, 3 and 4.

Chapter 6

Evolving from the study, the final chapter provides a summary of the research results, a conclusion and recommendations for an improved *curriculum* policy and teaching practice in South Africa.

Diagrammatically a further programme and chapter division could be illustrated as follows:

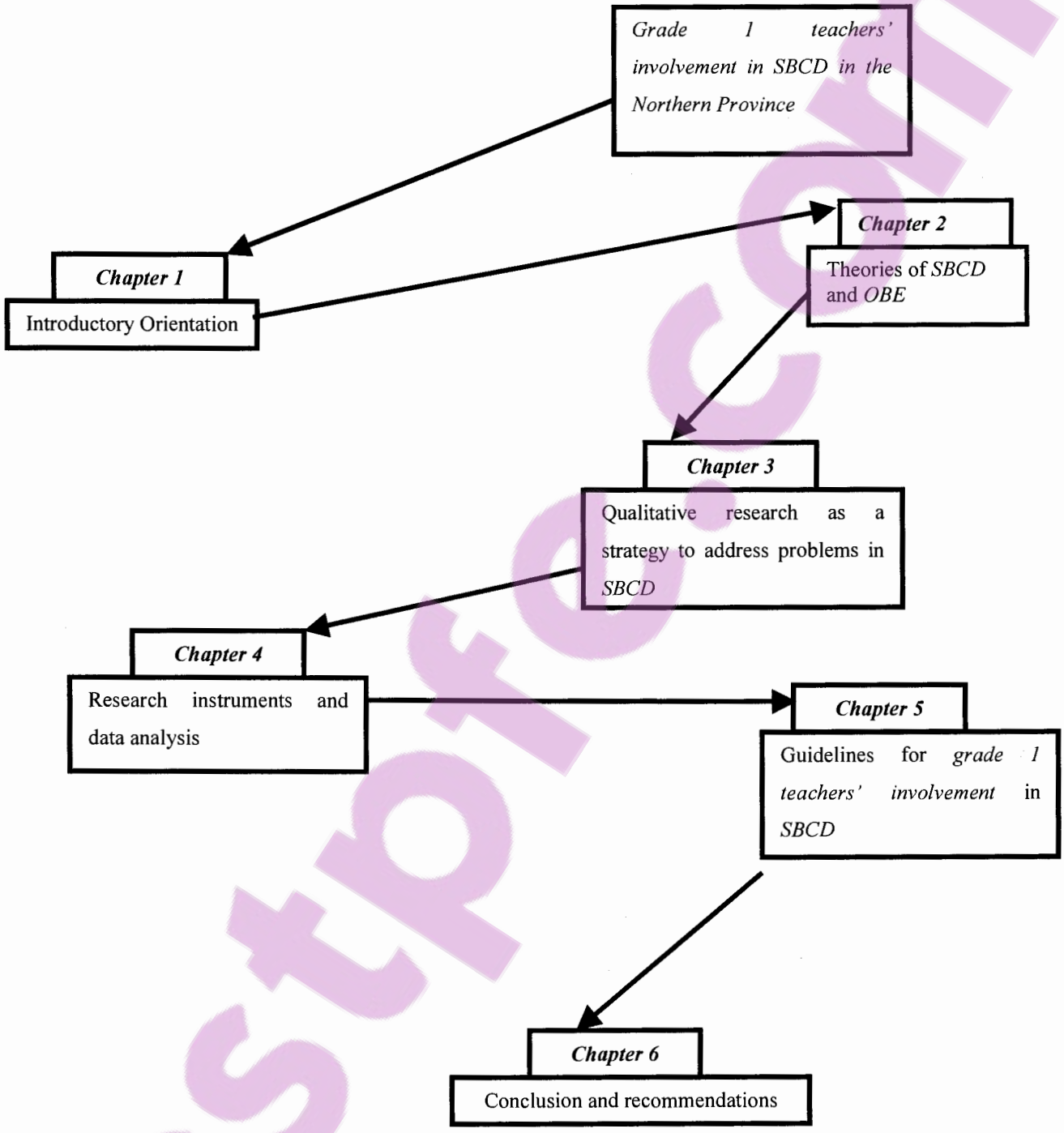


Figure 1.8 Chapter division

In the next chapter the theories of both SBCD and OBE will be investigated.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORIES OF *SCHOOL-BASED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT* (*SBCD*) AND *OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION* (*OBE*)

Aim of chapter 2: Chapter 1 provided an introductory orientation, statement of the problem, outcome of the study, research motivation and a further programme and chapter division. Chapter 2 will address the theories of both SBCD and OBE (based on a literature study). The theoretical component and background thereof will present a basis for the importance of SBCD in an OBE framework.

2.1 *SCHOOL-BASED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT* AND ITS NATURE

The concept of *School-Based Curriculum development* (hereafter referred to by the acronym *SBCD*) is used in various ways in literature but typically as a slogan for devolution of control, for grass roots decision-making, and as a representation of the polar opposite of centralized education. *SBCD* gained both credence and support in the 1970s. Furthermore it became one of the major factors in *curriculum development* in England, Wales and South Australia except in Queensland. Brady (1992:3) shows that in Australia, there has been a developing trend towards the devolution of educational decision-making from central authorities to the schools. Part of this trend is a shift in responsibility for *curriculum decision-making* to *grade 1 teachers*. This shift stems from beliefs that *curriculum* decisions should be made by the *grade 1 teachers* who are implementing them and that the decisions should be shared by all who are involved. (Compare chapters 4 paragraph 4.3.3 and 5 paragraph 5.1.1-5.1.8).

According to Burton (1992:17)

> "*SBCD* aims at encouraging teachers to take a greater role in program creation but assumes a set of activities outside of individual classrooms as necessary to bring about desired outcomes."

SBCD concerns itself not only with the initiation of the changes but also with the staffing and administration implications that arise. The school rather than the classroom is the context in which planning and support activities take place. The educational team rather than the individual teacher is the operational unit. Hence those who are ultimately responsible for implementing the *curriculum* are given a greater degree of commitment to the *curriculum* on the part of the *curriculum* design team, as well as a more valid *curriculum* design.

Brady (1992:21) claims

> "*SBCD* implies a model of *curriculum development* which begins with an analysis of the factors which comprise the situation. This is a more comprehensive approach to *curriculum development* than the traditional approach embodied in the objectives model which begins with objectives, but which does not provide a detailed account of the source of those objectives".

Often unplanned and at times unnoticed, *SBCD* nonetheless plays a significant part, even a major part, in determining the details of the *curriculum* followed in an increasing number of schools both at primary and secondary level in South Africa in general, and *Northern Province* in particular. More importantly, it has become a key instrument for the exercise of power within the school system.

Print (1993:13) stresses that

> "*SBCD* is the development of a *curriculum*, or an aspect of it, by one or more teachers in a school to meet the *perceived needs* of a school population, that is, an one-site resolution, in *curriculum* terms, of problems experienced with the existing curricula".

This resolution is carried out by *grade 1 teachers*, with or without outside advice, as they are considered to be those educators most aware of learners' needs. In effect, then, *SBCD* is the reverse of the bureaucratic, hierarchical, centralist approach to *curriculum development*. Examples of *SBCD* would include multicultural experiences in a multi-ethnic school. *SBCD* is one of the constituents of the school structure because it has a very strong relationship with all the activities that are done to improve the internal school functioning. There must be relevancy to what other groups are doing in the development of such a *curriculum*, e.g. the values and norms of the community should be borne in mind. Norms and standards for procedures and roles played by different groups are to correlate with *SBCD*.

Brady (1990:04) stresses that the curricula of schools in England and Wales have always been determined within the school to a substantial extent. The autonomy of the professional *grade 1 teacher* is one of the most central features of the educational arrangements of England and Wales. Subject to broad constraints, the *grade 1 teacher* has been trusted to "act professionally" to determine his or her own *curriculum* and methodology in a manner that is appropriate for the learners he or she teaches, the community in which they live and the school and its resources wherein his work is undertaken. Yet the autonomy of the *grade 1 teacher* in the *curriculum* has until very recently been exercised as the freedom to follow a largely traditional *curriculum* (Molteno in Kallaway 1990:50).

Shiundu and Omulando (1992:216) show that professional responsibility has been believed to be best exercised by the adoption of tried and tested forms of knowledge that have stood the test of time.

For almost a century, professional autonomy has not, except in isolated examples, led to *curriculum development* in any regularly recognisable form. Writing about *grade 1 teacher* autonomy in the *curriculum*, one could say that it tends to embrace beliefs that the knowledge, skills and values learnt by previous generations have a continuing and major validity in the socialisation of the young; that the *curriculum* possesses a

"mystique" into which the young are initiated and that, when received by those who are chosen to receive it, it will be of continuing relevance throughout their adult lives.

Such a *curriculum* has usually been a subject *curriculum* comprising separate elements representing established disciplines or forms of knowledge, that if not "given" are certainly legitimated by practice. *Grade 1 teachers* who have sought to use their professional autonomy to establish alternative or experimental curricula have found themselves, in most cases, obliged to work in the experimental or "progressive" school.

Marsh (1992:128) defines *SBCD* as "the planning, designing, implementing and evaluating of a programme of learners' learning by the educational institutions of which those students are members." He also points out that *SBCD* is a new name for an old idea. The idea is that the best place for designing the *curriculum* is where the learner and the *grade 1 teacher* meet. For example, unlike the Sophists, who claimed to have plans and schemes to teach anyone useful knowledge and pre-defined techniques, Socrates built up his *curriculum* in and through a relationship with students who displayed an aptitude for philosophical and mathematical reasoning. This was *SBCD* with the public places of Athens serving as the school and the joint dialectical experiences of the teacher, his peers and his public constituting the *curriculum*".

Glatthorn (1994:66) argues that *SBCD* should operate within the parameters of the *curriculum* of the district to ensure equity and co-ordination across the district. Yet the assumption that school-based planning should operate within the district's limits does not mean that school leaders have no role in *curriculum development.* As a matter of fact, they play a very active part in developing a special *curriculum* for their school within district constraints.

Irrespective of the committee structure used for *curriculum* work at the school, there will be a need for strong leadership, which is typically prompted by the principal – compare chapter 1 item 1.6.3.3 paragraph (a) and chapter 5 paragraph 5.1.2.1.

To recap on what was highlighted in the preceding paragraphs, definitions of *SBCD* reflect to a large degree the predispositions of the respective authors. For example, Skilbeck (1992:2) defines *SBCD* as:

> "the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of a programme of students' learning by the educational institution of which those students are members." This definition in itself may seem quite acceptable in accompanying descriptions, Skilbeck is emphasizing particular aspects such as shared decision-making between teachers and students; that *SBCD* is internal and organic to the institution; and that it involves a network of relationships with various groups and is characterized by a definite pattern of values, norms, procedures and roles.

From the analysis of the foregoing definitions of *SBCD*, one can draw the conclusion that *SBCD* can only be possible when identified and existing problems have been acknowledged by teachers, in that particular institutional and basic and action research have been carefully conducted. A successful *SBCD* depends on the democratic or liberal management of the institution so that opportunities can be created for committed and industrious *grade 1 teacher* work in a responsible manner.

2.1.1 Features of *SBCD*

According to Brady (1992:05)

(a) *SBCD* implies teacher participation. This may involve only teachers or other groups as well, but teachers have a significant input. (Compare chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8).

(b) *SBCD* does not of necessity need to be a whole school exercise. The exercise in *SBCD* could apply to a few classes (for example, junior primary or upper primary) or to some aspect of content (for example, core subject or non-core subjects or psychomotor developing subjects) or some approaches to teaching (for example,

competency-based education or behaviour modification) or finally, some particular developments in evaluation (for example, non-testing evaluation).

(c) *SBCD* should not imply severance from the centre. It does, however, imply different development according to local needs. It also involves a shift of responsibility for *curriculum decision-making* (Bauer and Sapona 1994:92-93).

(d) Teachers and administrators will need to modify their outdated roles. They will need to become more concerned with the development of the total *curriculum* and with the sharing of decision-making power in *curriculum* areas (Caldwell and Spinks 1992:81).

(e) *SBCD* may be selective, adaptive or creative, that is, teachers may concentrate upon the provision of appropriate resources; they may adapt existing materials to meet the needs of their students; or they may be involved in creating new curricula.

(f) *SBCD* is a continuing and dynamic process. As well, support structures such as advisers, finances and materials, are necessary in order to keep the process on-going (Print 1993:13).

2.1.2 Characteristics of *SBCD*

Various characteristics of *SBCD* will be discussed below. Based on different theories of management, many aspects of the school's internal functioning may differ between school-based management and external control management (see table 2.1).

TABLE 2.1. SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT AND EXTERNAL CONTROL MANAGEMENT

INTERNAL FUNCTIONING	SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT	EXTERNAL CONTROL MANAGEMENT
School Mission	*Mission clear, shared, and developed willingly. *Emphasize participation in developing educational mission. *Strong and unique organizational culture exists.	*Mission unclear, given by outside, not developed and acccepted by members. *Emphasize keeping and implementing external mission. *Weak and vague organizational culture exists.
Nature of School Activities	*School-based activities: Managing and educating according to characteristics and needs of a school.	*Non school-based activities: content and style of education and management determined by external authority.
Management Strategies concept of Human Nature	*Theory Y *complex person. *Participation and development regarded as important.	*Theory X *Rational Economic man *Supervision and control regarded as important.
Concept of School Organisation	*School is an institution in which earners, teachers and administrators live, everybody has the right for development.	*School is a tool, teacher is employee, kept when needed, out when not needed.
Style of Decision-making	*Decentralization. *Participation of teachers, parents and even students.	*Centralization. *Administrators make decisions.
Leadership Style	*Multi-level leadership: symbolic, cultural and education leadership in addition to technical and human leadership.	*Low level leadership: mainly technical and human leadership.
Use of Power	*Mainly expert and reference power.	*Mainly legitimate, reward and coercive power. *Simple techniques or experiences.
Managing Techniques	*Sophisticated scientific techniques	*Simple techniques or experiences.
Use of Resources	*Autonomy, self-budgeting. *According to school needs. *In time to solve problems. *Tend to broaden sources of education resources.	*Tightly restricted by the central. *According to external rules. *Apply and wait for permission procedures for more resources.
Role Differences Role of School	*Active-developing style: exploit all possibilities for development of the school, teachers, and learners. *Problem-solving.	*Passive-receptive style: implement centralized mission, follow administration procedure. *Avoid making mistakes.
Role of Central Authority	*Supporter and advisor.	*Strict supervisor and controller.
Role of	*Goal developer and leader.	*Watcher of static goals.

Administrator	*People resources starter and coordinator. *Resources developer.	*Personnel supervisor. *Resources controller.
Role of Teacher	*Partner. *Decision maker. *Developer. *Implementer.	*Employee. *Follower. *Order receiver. *Implementer.
Role of Parent	*Receiver of quality services. *Partner positive. *Shared commitment. *Organizational climate: Commitment style.	*Receiver of quantity services. *Outsider: not eligible for participation and cooperation.
Human Relations	*Partnership *Team spirit, open and cooperative. *Shared commitment. *Organisational climate: commitment style	*Hierarchical. *Superior subordinates, closed and defensive. *Conflict of interest and Organisational climate: headless disengagement, or control style.
Quality of Administrator	*Possess knowledge techniques of modern management. *Continue to learn and grow discover and solve problems. *Open-minded.	*Possess considerable administrative experience. *Work according to ordinances and rules, avoid problems. *Familiar with current ordinances.
Index of Effectiveness	*Multi-level and multiple, including input, process and output, academic achievement being only one of them. *Evaluation is a learning process for school improvement.	*Pay much attention to academic achievement or a few final outcomes, neglect the process and development. *Evaluation is a means of administrative supervision.

Adapted from Yukl (1994:10)

2.1.2.1 School Mission

A school without a mission does not have a direction. Shiundu and Omulando (1992: 238) claim, that universally, causes leading to higher attention rates focus on poor professional environment. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.3 paragraph 4.3.1 and chapter 5 item 5.1.2). Although almost every school seems to have a mission, many are abstract and impractical such as "to develop the five virtues of a person", "to foster human ability for the society", "to educate people to become talented", etc. All these cannot be used as guidelines for the managing and teaching activities of a school. From the viewpoint of external control management, the school is regarded as a tool which implements the standard education mission given by the central authority, with well organized

supervision of teaching. Unified public examinations are often used as a focus, which influences teaching. The ideal of a school itself may thus seem to be unimportant or vague, and the ideal of guiding teaching activities has in fact been externally moulded or given. No development of or commitment to the school mission is needed for school members. If we believe that the ideal or mission of a school represents its organizational culture, then schools under external control management probably lack a vivid and strong organizational culture which motivates school members to be hard-working and fully involved in the school (Schein 1992: 49).

2.1.2.2 School-based activities

Hargreaves (1994:17) believes that *SBCD* is based on the beliefs that the *curriculum* consists of experiences, and that there should be development from the learners' needs and characteristics, so that it represents a commitment to the view that educational provision must be individualized. A large measure of freedom for both teacher and learner is a necessary condition for education. *SBCD* views the school as a human social institution. The school must be responsive to its own way.

In terms of management, the school process may be differentiated into either school-based or non school-based control. The nature of school-based activities means that a school, conducts its educational activities according to the characteristics, needs and situation of the school, while the nature of non school-based activities means a school allows external factors (especially the central authorities) to decide its educational activities.

When a school is externally controlled, it implements any assigned tasks according to the policy of the central authority. The content and method of teaching and examinations tend to have unified standards and the facilities, personnel organization, teaching and managing of the school are all carefully controlled by the external central authority and therefore the activities of the school are in essence non- school-based. For example, the *curriculum* of South African schools is standardized, directed and controlled by the

central authority. Although school-based *curriculum* design has been advocated recently, it is confined to changes in teaching methods and teaching aids. Undoubtedly, when school management remains externally controlled, it is difficult for school activities to become really school-based (Sergiovanni 1992:19).

It has thus been shown that school-based control is important in enhancing the quality of education. It indirectly promotes the change to school management from the external control model to the school-based model. However, the effectiveness of any individual school-based activity, such as school-based staff development, always depends on the extent to which the school is functioning in the mode of school-based management. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand why *School-Based Curriculum development* activities often cannot be effectively carried out in externally controlled schools.

2.1.2.3 Management strategies

Stoll and Fink (1992:88) are of the opinion that the change along the direction from external control management to *SBCD* can be reflected in the following aspects of management strategies: concept of human nature, concept of school organization, decision-making style, leadership style, use of power and management skills.

2.1.2.4 Assumptions about human nature

Holding different assumptions about the human nature of teachers and learners, school administrators may develop different means of school management. There are two different assumptions about human nature in management, theory X and theory Y. According to theory X, a school *curriculum* can be designed and developed by external authorities. The managing method and punishment for controlling is inevitable.

The latter assumes that humans do not have an innate dislike for work. Under suitable conditions, a human is willing to serve towards his or her shared goals without being pushed, not only to bear responsibility, but also to look for more responsibilities to take up. Theory Y suggests that democratic participation, professional development, and

work-life improvement are important to motivate teachers and learners. *Grade 1 teachers* and learners may have different levels of need, apart from economic gains. They pursue social interaction and affiliation, self-actualization and development opportunities. In order to satisfy higher level needs, they are willing to accept challenges and work harder (Mohrman and Wohlstetter 1994:80).

2.1.2.5 School organization

According to Arnott (1992:97) in the external control management model, school managers view the goals of the school as clear and simple and the school is only a means to achieve the goals. The *grade 1 teachers* in a school are only employees and their value is instrumental. Suitable *grade 1 teachers* are kept while unsuitable ones are out. Obviously this concept of school organization may not be appropriate in modern management. People believe that an organization is a place for life and development, not only a tool for achieving certain static goals, for example, quantity of product. The school as an organization should not only be a place for the preparation for the future of learners, but also a place for learners, *grade 1 teachers* and even administrators to live, to grow and to pursue development.

Without professional development and enthusiastic *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers* and administrators, a school cannot be developed and improved continuously, and students cannot have a rich learning life. Therefore, a school-based managing school is not only a place which fosters learners growth, but also a place to foster the development of *grade 1 teachers* and administrators. This is also the reason why school-based staff development is important to school effectiveness. The *grade 1 teacher*'s management task is to establish and maintain an effective learning environment for classroom groups (Bauer and Sapona 1994:06).

2.1.2.6 Decision-making style

The National Department of Education (1996:12) shows that decision-making power should be devolved to the lowest possible level at which people are able to make effective decisions. (Compare chapter 1 item 1.6.5, chapter 3 item 3.12, chapter 4 item 4.3.3 and chapter 5 item 5.1). Under the tight control of the central authority, the decision-making of traditional schools is usually done by administrators or the central authority and then the tasks decided on are carried out by *grade 1 teachers* (see table 2.2). *Grade 1 teachers*' participation in decision-making is often minimal, or treated as unnecessary.

However, as educational work and the external environment have become more complicated day-by-day, school management should change from the decision-making style at the school level to power-sharing or participation, for the following reasons:

- The goal of a school is often unclear and changeable. The *involvement* of teachers, parents, students, and even alumni can help to develop goals which will be more able to reflect the present situation and future needs;
- The goals of a school are multiple and the mission of a school is complicated; they need the intelligence, imagination and effort of more people to accomplish. The participation or *involvement* of teachers, parents and students in decision-making is an important contribution to the school;
- Participation in decision-making provides opportunities for members and even administrators to learn and develop, and also to understand and manage the school;
- Participation in decision-making is the best process for encouraging teachers, parents and students to be involved in the school (Fullan 1992:101).

TABLE 2.2. TRADITIONAL CONCEPTS AND NEW CONCEPTS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT.

TRADITIONAL CONCEPTS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT	NEW CONCEPTS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT
1. *Externally controlled* * The central education authorities plan and manage the activities with emphasis mainly on policy concerns. * Staff members are not willing to participate and give opinions. * Activities cannot meet the needs of the staff. * Activities are held outside the school, participants must be absent from their duty and normal school work is affected.	1. *School based* * The staff member plans and manages the activities and the content is designed according to the needs of the staff of each school. * Staff are willing to participate and contribute their ideas. * Activities are mostly carried out in the school, teachers need not be absent from their duty and can have immediate practice.
2. Remedial * Activities are arranged for remedial purposes when the education process goes wrong. * Only take care of problems in general, not particular needs of each school.	2. *Developmental* * Activities are planned for development purposes on the needs of the school, groups and individuals. * Serve the needs of the school.
3. Temporary, not systematic * Activities are mainly temporary, planned and carried -out by outside experts. * Has no long-term strategy for development and no systematic management.	*3. Continuous, systematic* * Activities are included in the annual school plan, fully supported by school administration. * Has long-term strategies and systematic management.
4. Content * Fragmentary *Stress too much on achievement of technical knowledge and behavioural changes.	*4. Content* * Continuous and comprehensive. * Developments of techniques, affects, values and beliefs are taken into account.
5. Focus on individuals * Fragmentary. * Stress too much on achievement of technical knowledge and behavioural changes.	5. Focus on individuals, groups and the school * Emphasize development at all the individual, group and whole school levels.
6. *For teachers only*	6. Not only for teachers, but also administrators and supporting staff.
7. *External speakers mainly* * They are not familiar with the school situation, and irrelevant examples are used.	7. *Both internal and external speakers.* * The content fits the needs of participants and the real cases they share are helpful in practice.
8. *The role of staff is passive*	8. *The role of staff is active*
9. *Simplistic types of activities* * Lectures mainly	9. *Various types of activities.* * Seminars, talks, workshops, coaching, quality circle, classroom research, evaluation, etc.
10. Motivation * Encourage staff participation by extrinsic rewards such as promotion and reduction of work load.	*10. Motivation* * Staff participation is self-motivated by intrinsic rewards such as professional growth and ownership.

Hargreaves (1994:111)

2.1.3 Categories of *SBCD*

2.1.3.1 External factors

This is a situation in which the main imperatives have sprung predominantly from outside the school, but where the initiative has been taken in a distinctive manner within the individual school, as the direct by-product of a national *curriculum development* project. Here *SBCD* is set in motion by the project but takes off in distinctive ways in different schools and the schools are encouraged to "do their own thing" within the ambience of the project (Mohrman and Wohlstetter 1994:82).

A school-initiated response to a national project occurs when the school, having been involved in a national *curriculum development* project, goes on to develop its own distinctive development, taking the ideas further, in many cases transforming them far beyond the vision of the national team. See chapter 5 item 5.1.8. Here the school is distinctively adapting a nationally initiated *curriculum* to its own specialised purposes, enhancing its strengths or alleviating its shortcomings so that they may be more appropriate to its special needs. When a school itself becomes and "takes over" the main focus of a national project; where the project itself is transformed into a *SBCD* exercise; everything becomes effective.

2.1.3.2 Internal Factors

Dimmock (1993:17) is of the notion that *SBCD* can arise from the specific decision of the school to operate courses and teach in a distinctive way. A decision thus places the school within a set of requirements different from those of most other schools. If these distinctive strategies are to be implemented, then the school is faced with the need to help its *grade 1 teachers* to explore these ways to the full. Specific strategies for *curriculum development* have to be generated from within the school. (See chapter 5 item 5.1.1-5.1.8).

SBCD can also arise from the specific teaching needs of the school – this is where a school finds itself in a distinctive catchment area with specific local needs, and a group of learners who have problems or advantages that are not generally to be found, or where the school has a particular concern for aspects of student development that are not generally sought. In such cases an important emphasis is placed upon *curriculum* and upon teacher development (Stoll and Fink 1992:94).

2.1.4 Approaches to *SBCD*

From these conceptions of *curriculum* effectiveness, the approaches to maximizing teaching effectiveness and learning effectiveness through *curriculum* change can be categorized as follows:

2.1.4.1 The simplistic *SBCD* approach

The *curriculum* should be developed or changed at the individual, program, or school level to fit in with *grade 1 teacher* competence and student characteristics, in addition to its consistency with school goals. This approach assumes that *grade 1 teachers* are passive, teacher competence is static, and *curriculum* change can be planned and implemented effectively by administrators or external experts.

2.1.4.2 The teachers' competence approach

Sergiovanni (1992:94) shows that the participation of *grade 1 teachers*, parents, learners and even alumni can help to develop outcomes which will be more able to affect the present situation and future needs. Participation in decision-making is the process for encouraging *grade 1 teachers*, parents and learners to be involved in the *curriculum*. See chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.3. Responding to the change to school-based management, the *grade 1 teacher*'s leadership style may be changed from the lower levels to multi-levels of leadership.

Teacher competence should be developed to meet the demand of the *curriculum*. This approach assumes that *curriculum* change is imposed by administrators or external experts and that teacher competence can be developed easily to satisfy the needs of the school.

2.1.4.3 The dynamic *curriculum* change approach

Yukl (1994:55) says both *curriculum* and teacher competence should be developed and changed in order to maximize *curriculum* effectiveness in terms of facilitating teaching and learning. This approach assumes that:

- *Curriculum* effectiveness is a dynamic concept involving a continuous and cyclical process for developing both *curriculum* and teacher competence;
- The *curriculum* can be developed and changed effectively only when teachers are sufficiently involved in the process;
- Teacher competence should be developed not only to satisfy the demands of the existing *curriculum* or the changed *curriculum,* but also to develop the *curriculum* more appropriately to fit students' characteristics, school goals, and preexisting school conditions in the long run. The comparison between the approaches to *curriculum* change is summarized in table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE APPROACHES TO *CURRICULUM* CHANGE

SIMPLISTIC *CURRICULUM* CHANGE APPROACH		TEACHER COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT APPROACH	DYNAMIC *CURRICULUM* CHANGE APPROACH
Nature of change	*One-way change	* One-way change	*Two-way change, dynamic
Focus of change	**Curriculum*	* Teacher competence	*Curriulum and teacher competence
Ways of maximizing effectiveness	**Curriculum* adapts to teachers and learners	* Teachers adapt to the changed *curriculum*	* Both *curriculum* and teachers should be developed
Initiator of change	*Change planned by administrators or external experts	* Change imposed by administrators or external expects	* Teacher participation in planning change
Teacher role	* Passive implementer	* Passive implementer	* Active implementer and planner
Time framework	* Short-term	* Short-term	* Long-term, continuous, cyclic

The first and second approaches employ a short-term, mechanical perspective for conducting *curriculum* change and implementation. They ignore the dynamic nature of *curriculum* change and *grade 1 teacher* development and the importance of the *grade 1 teachers'* active role, *involvement* and commitment to *curriculum* planning and their own professional development. Because of this ignorance, *curriculum* change through these two approaches may not bring long-term effectiveness to teaching and learning, even if it is not frustrated by resistance including *grade 1 teacher* sabotage, slowdown, protest and apathy.

2.1.5 The significance of *SBCD*

Brady (1990:09) points out that of learners, as well as parents, students and teachers, it is the last group who typically get directly involved. To simplify the analysis, the initial discussion focuses upon *grade 1 teachers*. *Grade 1 teachers* have a major interest in their craft. Maximum satisfactions are achieved if they are able to teach in ways which suit the majority of their students. The occasional successes they have with extremely difficult learners make their endeavours well worth the effort.

Grade 1 teachers generally become involved in *SBCD* activities if they have particular needs but these will be tempered by the limits of their particular teaching environment. *Grade 1 teachers* will be highly motivated to participate if there are important needs to be satisfied, but only if these can be accommodated within the value system of the school community. (Compare chapter 1 paragraph 1.5, chapter 2 paragraph 2.1.1, chapter 3 3.12.3). There are four factors which can affect the directions that *grade 1 teachers* might take and that some compromise between them is always needed. These four factors include predilections of what *grade 1 teachers* would like to do, situations that have to be taken into account and wider external factors of expectations and prescriptions (Smith 1992:76).

However, as indicated in figure 2.1, there will be some teachers who want to participate in *SBCD* activities even though they might be relatively satisfied with their current teaching position. For example, those *grade 1 teachers* seeking promotion realize that they will need to do something extra to give themselves a chance of earning promotion.

They might consider that their active participation in an *SBCD* activity could be a useful way of highlighting their particular strengths, and details of this activity could be included in their *curriculum* vitae. Then again there might be teachers who are prepared to reflect upon their current practices – they have the ability and the desire to do problem-solving about their teaching, even though they are relatively satisfied with their current position.

In addition to those *grade 1 teachers* who might be in the category of being satisfied but mobile, there is the much bigger group of teachers who might be dissatisfied with their present teaching position. A major reason for their dissatisfaction might be poor student attainments in their particular subjects, or individual students performing poorly across a range of subjects. Another reason could be their dissatisfaction with inadequate resources, time-tabling constraints or insufficient preparation time. A related reason might be sheer boredom with the system of rules and regulations and teaching practices.

Eraut (1993:63) argued, therefore, that educators in general, and teachers in particular, are very susceptible to educational innovations. There are various pressures from the media, educational suppliers, professional associations and head office personnel for *grade 1 teachers* to try new teaching practices.

However, *grade 1 teachers* have to balance competing forces when making decisions about whether to use an innovation or not. As the result of considering needs and constraints, *grade 1 teachers* may decide to try out some innovations but not others. The process they undertake may be akin to the force field of "driving" and "restraining" forces (Sergiovanni 1992:87).

It goes without saying that every grade teacher develops his or her own unique configuration of driving and restraining forces, as indicated in figure 2.2.

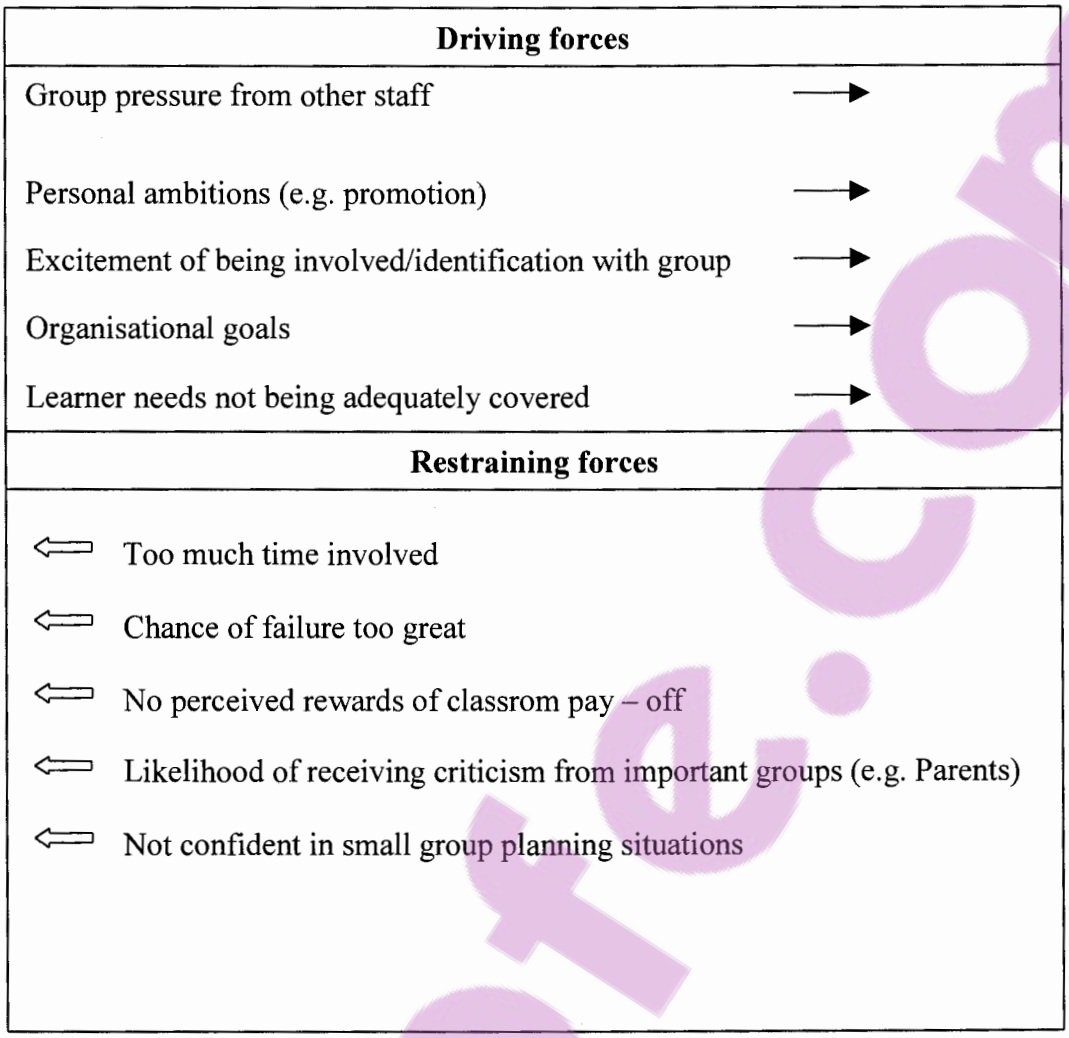


Figure 2.2. Force field for using educational innovations (Sergiovanni 1992:87).

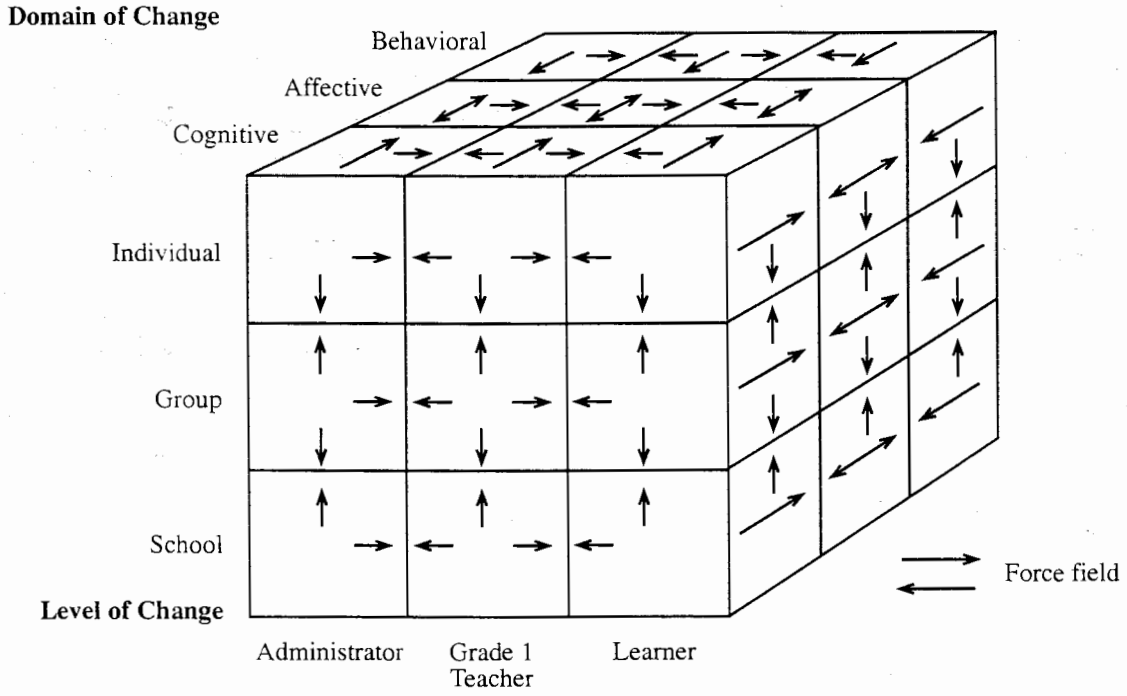


Figure 2.3 Matrix of school-based curriculum change
Shulman (1990:180)

Two or more *grade 1 teachers* will only be willing to interact on *SBCD* activities if they perceive mutually supplementary results from sharing their ideas and preferences (a mutual linking of configurations).

The organisation model of *curriculum* change depicted in figure 2.4 is for groups of *grade 1 teachers* to undertake their chosen innovatory *SBCD* activities on the assumption that improved teaching and learning situations for themselves, and then their learners, will be the result. They are likely to be seeking a new position of stability, a different set of relationships and procedures which will provide them in turn with a reasonable degree of homeostasis.

As indicated at the beginning of this section, *SBCD* can involve parents and learners as well as *grade 1 teachers*. It is argued that the conceptual model applies also to parents and learners. For example parents through their formal contacts (for example, school councils) and informal meetings can lobby for changes and the adoption of certain innovations if they perceive that there are problem areas and issues to be resolved. On the other hand, they may be the restraining forces who feel strongly that certain innovations proposed by the teaching staff should not be adopted (Stoll and Flink 1992:11).

As mentioned in paragraphs 2.1.4.2 and 2.1.4.3, *curriculum* change and teacher competence development are important for effective teaching and learning, but how can they be effectively initiated and maintained towards achievement of planned school outcomes? How does an *SBCD* mechanism contribute to a dynamic approach to *curriculum* change?

Inevitably, all forms of school *curriculum* change happen in a complex organizational context, including *grade 1 teachers*' personal factors, group norms, organizational structure, school culture, leadership, etc. How are *curriculum* changes and teacher development related to organizational factors? Specifically, how can they be facilitated but not hindered by organizational factors?

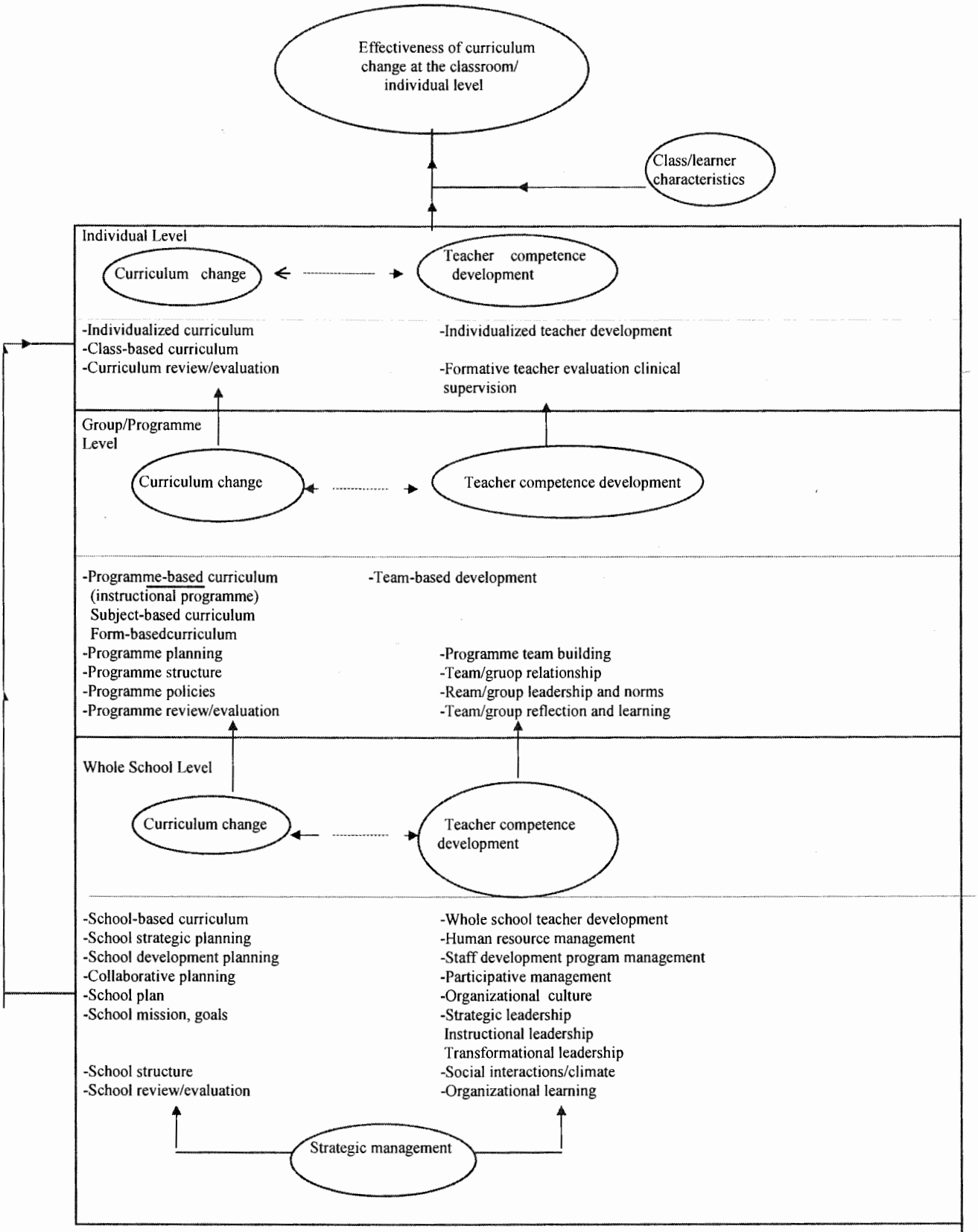


Figure 2.4 The organizational model of curriculum change
Adapted from Cheung (1994: 80)

The school-based management mechanism can initiate and sustain a continuous process of school development, including *curriculum* change and teacher development (Dimmock 1993:19).

2.1.5.1 A three-level organisation context

Curriculum change and *grade 1 teacher* competence development happen in a three-level context of school organization, including the individual level, the group level and the whole-school level as shown in figure 2.5.

2.1.5.2 Mutual development

Curriculum change and *grade 1 teacher* competence development are mutually developed and reinforced at each of the three levels of school organizational context in the long term (Fullan 1992:84).

2.1.5.3 Hierarchy of influence

Maeroff (1993) points out that *curriculum* change and teacher competence development at the individual level are influenced by those at the group level, and that all at these two levels are affected by those at the whole-school level. There is a hierarchy of influence across these levels.

2.1.5.4 Effectiveness and interaction

The effectiveness of *curriculum* change at the classroom or individual level (i.e., effects on teaching and learning) is directly determined by the interaction between changes in *curriculum, grade 1 teacher* competence and the characteristics of learners and the class. (See chapter 6 item 6.2.1.2 (e)). It is also indirectly affected by *curriculum* change and teacher development at the group/programme level and the whole school level (Valentine 1992: 54).

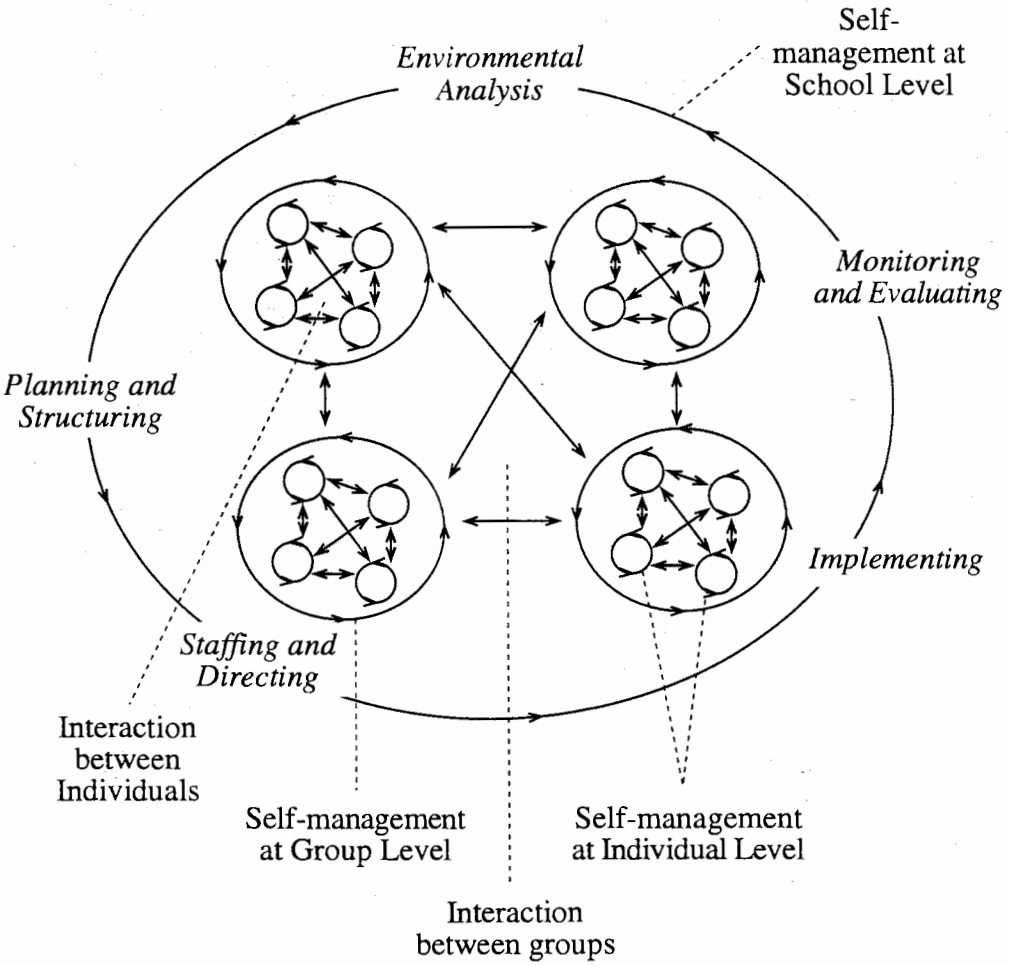


Figure 2.5 School-based cycle at multi-levels
Shulman (1990:111)

2.1.5.5 Congruence

According to the principle of congruence in the school-based management mechanism, the effectiveness of *curriculum* change may be affected by two types of congruence: congruence between *curriculum* change and grade teacher competence development, and congruence between levels. They form a matrix of congruence as congruence is defined in terms of conceptual (cognitive) consistency in goals, objectives, values and assumptions (about change, development, management, teaching and learning) and in terms of operational consistency (for example, coordination). To a great extent, congruence reflects the strength of school culture, (i.e., the strength of sharing of values, beliefs, and assumptions among members) and is believed to be a determinant of school effectiveness (Schein 1992:81).

2.1.6. *SBCD* – in school community situations

Brady (1990:07) indicated that since change agents need information from other school members to design school based change, this technique is appropriate. It aims to encourage staff participation and *involvement* in planning the change, to improve the quality of decision-making and to enhance staff acceptance and commitment to change implementation. The following factors provide technical support to involved members to face and implement the change:

(a) mission – school goals
(b) readiness of participants – teachers, parents, students
(c) leaders or change agents
(d) group dynamics and school climate
(e) time – provisions and allowances
(f) resources – financial and organizational
(g) professional development
(h) processes (Mortimore 1993:19).

2.1.7 Merits of *SBCD*

Grade 1 teachers' involvement in decision-making is an important contribution to the school. (See chapter 1 paragraph 1.6.2, chapter 2 item 2.3.4, chapter 3 item 3.12.3.1 and chapter5 item 5.1). This approach assumes that *curriculum* change is imposed by external experts and that *grade 1 teachers involvement* can be developed easily to satisfy all the needs of the changed *curriculum*. In view of this, Print (1993:14) shows that school management should change from the decision-making style at the school level to power-sharing for the following reasons.

(a) Those in the best position to appreciate the needs of a specific group of learners are the local teachers who can also determine the best use of the school's resources.
(b) Those who implement the *curriculum* are those who have developed it. This gives a greater sense of identification with the learning tasks.
(c) The needs of specific groups of students are met, which in turn has a powerful impact upon learners.
(d) Greater accountability for curricula and teacher performance is noticed.
(e) Parents and community members may be easily involved in meaningful *curriculum* planning.

2.1.8 Demerits of *SBCD*

Curriculum change as a form of planned change in the school may meet resistance, and its implementation may be affected by different organisational factors. Resistance may also be influenced by the following crucial factors:

(a) Lack of support structures for administrators and teachers.
(b) Conformity syndrome of administrators and teachers reduces creativity.
(c) Lack of time for teachers to undertake *SBCD*.
(d) Lack of teachers experienced or trained in the process of *SBCD*.

(e) Movement of teachers between schools for promotion, country service and the like produces an unstable teacher base.
(f) Requires significant changes in the roles of teachers and administrators which are naturally resisted (Print 1993:14 and Brady 1990:08).

As *grade 1 teachers* become increasingly involved with school-level *curriculum decision-making*, they will require a sound understanding of *curriculum* concepts. To participate in *SBCD* effectively, it is imperative that *grade 1 teachers* acquire a basic familiarity with the principles of *curriculum* design and development.

2.2 LIMITATIONS OF *SBCD* AND *GRADE 1 TEACHERS*

The above demerits should not be underrated, as they are very real and are often given as the reasons why particular *SBCD* activities have been abandoned. However, it can be argued that there are more deeply rooted problems about *SBCD* which need to be considered. One major problem revolves around the dichotomy of "policy" and "action." Many educators argue that teachers are concerned predominantly with "action," relating to how to teach specific topics and how to develop particular *curriculum* materials (Eraut 1993:60).

These may be due to several factors such as their relative isolation in the classroom, or their perceived low status in the education hierarchy and lack of empowerment, or their lack of academic training in policy studies. The effect of this dichotomy is that if head offices devolve both policy and action decisions to individual schools it is likely that they will be unable to cope with both tasks. Either head offices will need to give more guidance and information about policy matters, or provide considerably more funds for professional development so as to enable school staffs to develop these skills. The rhetoric of devolving policy decisions to schools rings hollow if little assistance is given to schools to achieve these ends. *Grade 1 teachers* and learners should work hand in hand in order to achieve worthwhile results (See figure 2.6).

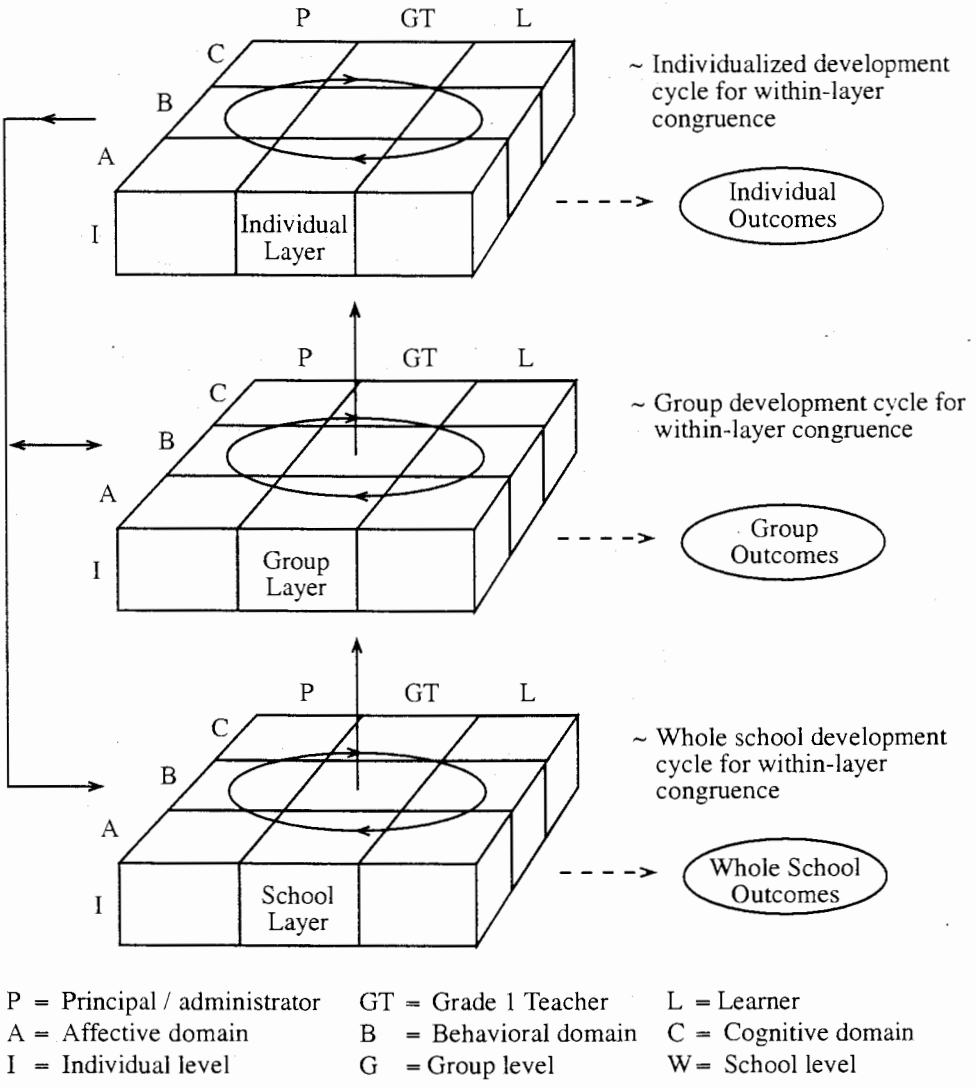


Figure 2.6 The level-layer management
Bolman and Deal (1991:192)

2.2.1 Centre-periphery model

Schon (1991:17) is of the opinion that centre-periphery systems are prone to failure because the demands made on the centre by the periphery invariably outstrip its capacity to manage an appropriate supply of human and material resources to meet them. The centre also outstrips its capacity to stimulate and manage feedback from the periphery. In these circumstances, the centre tends to compensate by flooding the periphery with large quantities of information. Lacking adequate feedback mechanisms, it tends to misinterpret the problem at the periphery as either a problem of communication or a resistance to change on the part of vested interests.

According to Shiundu and Omulando (1993:20) the role of the *grade 1 teacher* in *curriculum development* can be viewed basically from two perspectives, first from the point of view of *SBCD*, and secondly from that of centrally-based *curriculum development*. The former situation is relevant in this study, because the *grade 1 teacher* is responsible for most of the *curriculum* activities right from planning up to assessment and the external influence is minimal. In this way *grade 1 teachers* have a much greater opportunity to participate in translating educational goals into specific objectives and content. In the latter case, the *grade 1 teachers*' role is dominant only at the implementation stage since most curricular activities are done by the central office.

For most systems, especially in the less developed countries, approaches to *curriculum development* are centrally-based. In the case of South Africa, the school *curriculum* is planned centrally at the national Department of Education. This is antithetical to the establishing of democratic, operative forms of *SBCD*. In many education systems *grade 1 teachers* are perceived to be languishing at the bottom of the hierarchy and decisions are filtered down to them. One of the shortcomings in this approach is that teachers tend to think that their role is only in the classroom, and to implement what they have received from the central office. Worse still, some grade teachers follow this externally planned *curriculum* to the letter without appropriately relating it to the local situation.

Bush, Coleman and Glover (1993:135) says that governors view the *curriculum* as the driving force behind school development. As *grade 1 teachers* become increasingly involved with school level *curriculum decision-making*, they will require a sound understanding of *curriculum* concepts. To participate in *SBCD* effectively, it is quite imperative that teachers acquire a basic familiarity with the principles of *curriculum* design and development. Yet, though *SBCD* in some form or other is now fairly common in South African schools, there are many schools in which it does not exist at all and still more wherein, at most, it only occurs rarely and spasmodically. It is therefore necessary to ask the question – what are the conditions in which *SBCD* flourishes?

The creation of proper interests and enthusiasm is of paramount importance. The ability to group learners with others pursuing the same interest demands that a *grade 1 teacher* be able to create groups from a wide selection of learners, more perhaps than one would find within one classroom. Two common terms used in grouping in the school are heterogeneous and homogeneous groups. Usually, these two types of groups are used interchangeably during a school day. Teachers who organize skill groups in the classroom use homogeneous grouping. The key is flexibility: students are moved from group to group as they achieve required skills (Wiles and Bondi 1998:254).

McCutcheon (1995:34) propounds that by its nature, teaching at any grade level, in any community, or in any specific discipline or area, is a complex task. Not only must a *grade 1 teacher* adhere to a *curriculum* policy, but he or she also must adapt such policy to fit comfortably with his or her own practical theory. Moreover, *grade 1 teachers* are provided with particular *curriculum* materials. Administrative *curriculum* policies may be fairly consistent from one educational system to another, but *grade 1 teachers'* practical theories vary.

The ability to respond to varying needs in the learners also demands a wide range of skills and interests in the *grade 1 teacher*. The question arose as to whether, as the learners grow older, one teacher could assemble all those skills and interests. But such a need must not only exist; teachers must recognise that it exists and be ready to respond to

it. Autonomous *grade 1 teachers* may well be encouraged and even inspired to participate in *SBCD;* they cannot be forced to do so. There is also little doubt that their enthusiasm may be reinforced if they see that adequate support – administrative, material and moral – is available. Good resources, adequate professional and non-professional staffing and sympathetic leadership inside and outside the school seem to be important components of ensuring *SBCD.* A good *grade 1 teacher* knows what resources are presently available and what resources will be available in future (Brubaker and Simon 1993:11).

Naicker (1999:94) shows that education for liberation engages the teacher as learner, and learners as teachers, in a process of dialogue. This dialogue means that the learner and *grade 1 teachers* are creating and re-educating knowledge. Effective liaison with the schools from which the *SBCD* school draws its learners – and the schools and other institutions to which they proceed – is also vital. One has already emphasised that no school is an island; if *SBCD* attempts to make it so, then surely its students will be the first victims of its self-imposed isolation. Faced with the many variables that can affect the introduction and subsequent survival of *SBCD*, it is clear that the enthusiasm of the individual teacher, his or her enthusiasm and his or her readiness are central. Not only are such personal characteristics necessary to ensure an adequate level of individual participation, but also the degree of collective responsibility that is accepted and "internalised" by the individual rather than being attributed to "them."

In short, the *grade 1 teacher* must be "inner directed" rather than "outer directed". In reaching this conclusion it is useful to remember that one is not making yet another unrealistic and idealistic prescription. In the realities of school life the inner direction of the teacher may spring not only from high pedagogical principle but also imperative self interest. The search for a solution to new and pressing problems in the classroom situation may well lie at the heart of some of the most successful *SBCD* programmes.

Elliot (1998:22) in support of this view, shows that the stance towards knowledge indicated in curricula either invites *grade 1 teachers* to express and extend their powers

of understanding in the ways they represent knowledge to learners (transaction or transformation orientation), or that their imprisons *grade 1 teachers* as transmission devices which represent knowledge as inert information (a transmission orientation).

2.2.2 Teachers' lack of motivation

Shiundu and Omulando (1992:219) point out that teachers' roles, their status in society, the work they do and the values they represent are related in complex ways to the socio-economic setting in which they operate. Poor motivation is detrimental to *SBCD*. *Grade 1 teachers*, however, are not the sole arbiters of their classroom practice. Just as our decisions in everyday life are sometimes tightly constrained, *grade 1 teachers*' decision in both the preactive and interactive phases of teaching occur within a context that can ultimately exert a powerful influence upon what happens in the classroom. Physical constraints such as the size and composition of the class and the materials available, and expectations about the content and methods of teaching, often determine what is possible for *grade 1 teachers* to do.

These constraints demotivate *grade 1 teachers* as they are beyond their jurisdiction, and as such the teachers develop a negative attitude towards *SBCD*. To develop an understanding of *grade 1 teachers*' classroom practice, of how it may be changed and improved, and of the capacity for teachers themselves to bring about such improvement, the study of teachers' thinking and decision-making must include investigation of the teaching context and the extent to which *grade 1 teachers* are involved in *SBCD,* e.g. in establishing that context and the ways in which it limits or constraints *grade 1 teachers*' thoughts, decisions and activities.

Eggleston (1991:76) maintains that

> "Faced with the pressing day to day curricular problems of discipline, marking children's work, preparing laboratory practicals, maintaining supplies of goods and stationery and

keeping **au fait** with the requirements of the examination boards, do teachers have the opportunity, l*et al.*one the incentive, to concern themselves with ideology in their day to day curricular organisations."

The success or the failure of *curriculum development* is determined by the availability of adequate resources, personnel, space and determined time. Expertise in *curriculum* issues is strongly influenced by the resources support base. In summary, the demotivating factors may be categorised as cultural, socio-political and economic.

2.2.3 Localism and parochialism

Another major problem relates to teacher attitudes and values and levels of motivation (Skilbeck 1992:28). There will be some members of teaching staff who for various reasons have negative reactions to any form of *SBCD*. It may be that they have had unsuccessful experiences with *SBCD* in the past, at another school.

A third problem revolves around the hierarchical structures typically found in schools which are antithetical to the establishing of democratic, cooperative forms of *SBCD*. In many education systems *grade 1 teachers* are perceived to be at the bottom of the hierarchy – decisions are filtered down to them.

A fourth problem relates to aspects of localism, parochialism and conservatism which can often dominate *SBCD* practices (Yukl 1994:08). Too often, superficial "tinkering" by a few active individuals can occur and, because of their limited vision and or experience, the resultant changes can be less than desirable. Worse still, on some occasions powerful lobby groups can bring about changes at the local level which produce curricula that are lacking in breadth, or are biased and out-dated.

The local contexts, whether countries or schools in one province, differ from one another in various aspects e.g. politically, geographically, and socially between and within

systems. It would be ridiculous to expect that intentions for a given *curriculum* package will be valid and reliable for every school. Various teaching-learning situations are likely to manifest quite differing *curriculum* needs and interests. *Grade 1 teachers*, too, similarly vary in the aims they have for education, and therefore by implication possess different criteria for judging the effectiveness of teaching. Some primary school teachers emphasize the importance of basic skills. Others attach more value to personal development and intellectual autonomy. The logical interdependence between the centre and schools, and the need for consultation in *curriculum* decision-making and development between teachers and external *curriculum* developers, is preserved (Eraut 1993:44).

Skilbeck (1992:274) is of the opinion that:

> "….. action to effect *curriculum development* in the school cannot be taken independently of action elsewhere in the education system… the school must work through its relations, discovering how these make its own development possible. The actions that schools take towards developing the *curriculum* are therefore but a part, albeit a key part, of what we mean by *curriculum development*."

Our conception of an effective *curriculum* may, in addition, be complicated by taking into account the process by which certain effects are attained. Some curricula are in themselves more or less desirable. To cite an example, an outdated *curriculum* might be useless in that it might not be relevant to current issues. Not suprisingly, a daily discussion of an effective *curriculum* tends to be somewhat superficial.

Judgements of an effective *curriculum* are often impressionistic and subjective. They are based upon relatively little objective information and involve personal and subjective criteria of what constitutes a good *curriculum* (Fullan 1992:86).

Wiles and Bondi (1998:03) indicate that *curriculum development* usually begins with a set of questions that initially reveal value preferences and later undersized planning efforts.

To a great extent, *curriculum development* or change aims to maximize the effectiveness of teaching and learning through changes in planned content, activities and arrangements for educational processes. If we accept this line of thinking, the discussion of *curriculum* change should be related to another concept – *curriculum* effectiveness. It is crucial to know what, and how, a *curriculum* is effective for teaching and learning, and what main factors contribute to this effectiveness. The structure of *curriculum* effectiveness can be illustrated as shown in figure 2.7. Based on this structure, a *curriculum* is effective if it can appropriately interact with *grade 1 teachers*' competence to facilitate *grade 1 teacher* performance, help learners gain learning experiences that fit their needs and produce expected educational outcomes, under the constraints of preexisting characteristics such as national goals, school goals, school management, subject content, educational technology and resources. The structure suggests that the evaluation of *curriculum* effectiveness may include process and outcome criteria such as *grade 1 teacher* performance, student learning experience and outcomes. The variables that can be manipulated, changed or developed to improve *grade 1 teacher* performance and student learning experience and outcomes, are *curriculum* and *grade 1 teacher* competence.

2.2.4. *Curriculum* and democratic ownership

The question to be posed here is, which stakeholders enjoy democratic ownership of the school *curriculum*? It is difficult for one to acknowledge that *grade 1 teachers* have equal access to control of the school *curriculum*.

SBCD will not come to fruition if there is no respect for the various opinions from various legitimate stakeholders. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.3 paragraph 4.3.3). When all parties are on an equal footing, *SBCD* would be implemented successfully.

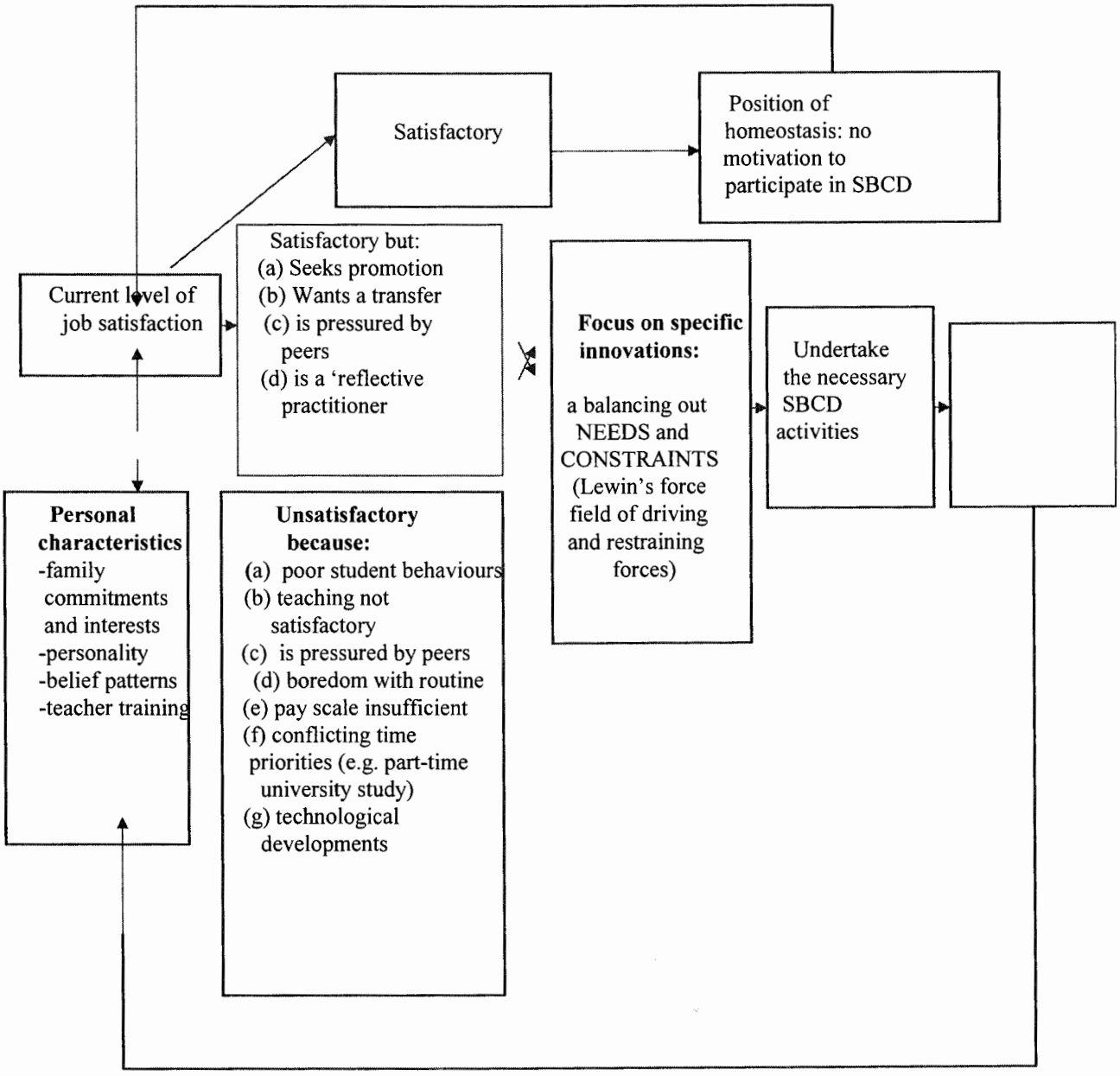


Figure 2.7 Effectiveness in SBCD

Cheng (1994: 80)

Mutual dependence, necessitating a policy of democracy in *curriculum* planning, is intended to reduce a polarisation of this type. In many school districts, a failure to assess the true needs of the learners results in a dysfunctional *curriculum* (Wiles and Bondi 1998: 89).

One major criticism of many school systems is that the administrative staff have kept instructional problem identification as their responsibility and have not shown an eagerness to share it with the teaching staff. Perhaps this action results from the foolish notion that the discovery of problem situations indicates inefficient administration. Whatever the rationale, *SBCD* thrives on the identification of problems by the teacher or a group at least, and typically, the *grade 1 teacher* will identify a series of problems which are more related to the instructional programme than problems administrators would identify. Logically, outcomes of *curriculum* warrant definition prior to the planning stage. Therefore, many school administrators have begun a *curriculum* planning program by asking *grade 1 teachers* to define the objectives of the school, study the objectives or write a philosophical task about the task of the school. The *grade 1 teacher* is thus a design professional, who plans and theorizes on the *curriculum* (Bauer and Sapona 1991:09).

2.2.5 Political syndrome

Christie and Collins in Kallaway (1990:162) show that the cornerstone of liberal analysis of South Africa is a distinction between racial oppression with its concomitant notion of "*baasskap*" (dominance) and was a political factor whose monolithic characters affected *SBCD*. Political parties in some countries take much more interest in education than their counterparts elsewhere. In Sweden, for example, the inclusion of a new subject in the *curriculum* could be debated in parliament. Other countries might consider that only the general structure of the education system is important enough for this. To the extent that *SBCD* increases the power of the school at the expense of central authorities, very close political control could be restrictive.

Perhaps more significant is the presence or absence of a strong political will for equality or opportunity, with the implication that opportunities should in fact be equal, that all students should be offered as far as possible the same educational experiences. This belief would be directly challenged by the introduction of full-scale *SBCD*. In such systems *SBCD* is often limited to certain areas of the *curriculum*.

2.2.6 Implication in administration

Whether education is administered and controlled centrally or locally affects the nature of its influence on *SBCD*. In most countries with tight administrative control of the *curriculum*, there is a reluctance to abandon power, and the further the administration is from the school, the more threatening this prospect seems. Even when autonomy has been granted for the *curriculum* – or some part of it, - the supervisory capacity does not overstep central guidelines (Mortimore 1993: 91).

As it is not possible to enumerate all the constraints developed by different administration systems, a few general points will be listed. First, it matters little if the central control is "rational" or "provincial": either way the centre of control is comparatively remote from the schools, and the main constraint will be the reluctance of both politicians and administrators to abandon control. Every country has legal provisions affecting education and these extreme details, e.g. laying down the hours to be spent at school, have strong effects. Clearly such restrictions are obstacles to change, and it is surprising to find some countries introducing educational change without modifying the relevant laws.

2.2.7 Financial shortcomings

South Africa's yearbook (1998:320) shows that the R40-billion eduction budget accounted for 21,3 per cent of the govrnment's total 1997/98 expenditure. This equals 6.5 % of the gross domestic product. There are two major financial constraints to *SBCD*.

First of all the process itself is expensive; it involves teacher-time spent on other than teaching activities, new materials and support services outside the school.

The amount of money needed is often underestimated when the conditions are created to permit *SBCD*. But *SBCD* also implies a certain flexibility when the financial cake is divided up within the school (Bush *et al.* 1993: 109).

From the above discussion, it is evident that *SBCD* can be summarized as having two basic characteristics:

- School as the major decision-making unit: decisions should be made at the frontier of school functioning; therefore school autonomy on finance and management should be increased and control from the central office should be reduced;
- Ownership as the major requirement of school reform: effective reform does not rely on external procedures but it does need the participation of members concerned to share decision-making.

In addition to these two characteristics, we may further conceptualize school-based management:

Mohrman and Wohlstetter (1994:55) maintains that school-based management means that the school management tasks are set according to the characteristics and needs of the school itself. Therefore school members including SGBS (School Governing Bodies), inspectors, subject specialists, principal, *grade 1 teachers*, parents, learners and other relevant stakeholders) have autonomy and responsibility for the use of resources to solve problems and carry out effective education activities, for the long-term development of the school.

Schein (1992:53) stipulates that traditional school management is often a type of external control management characterized by tight external control from the central office of the school system. In external control management, the school management tasks are performed under instructions from the external central authority, often not in accordance

with school characteristics and needs, and school members do not have much autonomy. The major differences in assumptions about education and management theories are summarized in table 2.4 and illustrated as follows:

TABLE 2.4 **THEORY OF SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT VERSUS THEORY OF EXTERNAL CONTROL MANAGEMENT.**

SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT		EXTERNAL CONTROL MANAGEMENT
Assumptions about Education	* Multiplicity of educational goals * Complex and changing educational environment * Need for educational reforms * Effectiveness and adaptation orientated * Pursuit of quality	* Unification of educational goals * Simple and nearly static educational environment * No need for educational reforms * Standardization and stability oriented * Pursuit of quantity
Theories used to Manage Schools	*Principle of equilifinality:* * Many different ways to achieve goals * Emphasizes flexibility	*Principle of standard structure:* * Standard methods and procedures to achieve goals * Emphasizes generalizability
	Principle of decentralization: * Problems are inevitable, should be solved at where they happen in time * Looks for efficiency and problems-solving	*Principle of centralization:* * Things big or small are carefully controlled to avoid problems * Pursues procedural control
	Principle of self-managing system: * Self-managing * Actively exploitative * Responsible	*Principle of implementing system:* * Externally controlled * Passively receptive * Not accountable
	Principle of human initiative: * Develops internal human resources * Broad participation of school members	*Principle of structural control:* * Enforces external supersion * Expansion of bureaucratic system

Schein (1992:84)

2.2.7.1 Differences in assumptions about education

In the tradition of external control management, educational goals are often assumed to be simple and unified, and the educational environment is seen as nearly static. Therefore, there is no strong need to conduct any educational reforms to adapt to the environment, and the management tends to emphasize standardization and stability and pursue educational quantity.

But in school-based management, educational goals are assumed as multiple, based on the expectations of multiple-school constituencies, and the educational environment is believed to be complex and changing (Eraut 1993:39).

2.2.7.2 Equifinality versus standard structure

Stoll and Fink (1992:84) indicates that the traditional management of school systems emphasizes the function of organizational structures and standard procedures. In external control management, it is assumed that there should be standard methods and procedures to achieve management goals, and that they are suitable for all schools. Therefore, the major means of managing schools is only by inspection from outside, of the extent to which the standard structures have been used. On the contrary, school-based management is based on the principle of equifinality, a modern management theory assuming that there may be different ways to achieve goals. Flexibility is emphasized and schools should be managed by themselves according to their own conditions.

2.2.7.3 Decentralisation versus centralisation

Decentralization and centralization represent two entirely different principles of management. Centralization is consistent with the principle of standard structure, both looking for controlling procedures to avoid creating problems in schools. Being carefully controlled by the central authority, schools have little power of decision-making and have to consult the central authority on nearly everything. As a result, the problems and crises

a school runs into cannot be solved or attended to quickly. This management style has become increasingly ineffective, especially since educational tasks have become more complicated and changeable. Decentralization is an important phenomenon of modern school management reform, which is consistent with the principle of equifinality. It brings about school-based management, of which the basic theory is that school management and teaching activities inevitably have difficulties and problems. Therefore schools should be given the power and responsibility to solve problems effectively.

2.2.7.4 Self-managing system versus implementing system

In the whole education system, schools are often regarded as a tool to achieve educational policy goals, or as a passive implementing system which needs careful external control. The role of the school is to receive orders from the central authority passively, and no initiative, power or accountability are explicitly assigned to it. School-based management does not deny that schools need to achieve policy goals, but there should be many different ways to achieve them (i.e. principle of equifinality). Therefore, it is necessary to let schools become a self-managing system under the umbrella of major policies and structure, possessing considerable autonomy to develop teaching objectives and management strategies, distributing manpower and resources, solving problems and accomplishing goals according to their own conditions. As the schools are self-managing, they are more likely to take the initiative for their own responsibility (Slater and Tedlie 1992: 247-248).

2.2.7.5 Principle of human initiative versus principle of structural control

Wiles and Bondi (1998:170) indicate that a *curriculum* management plan begins with an acknowledgement of power; that is certain persons in each school or district have the power to make decisions. They alter policy, allocate resources, and use proceedings and regulations to provide emphasis to activities. School-based management and external control management represent the past experiences of two different ideologies of management. What is more important, human factor or structure? As long as the goals

and tasks of the organization are clear and well-defined, the structural factors of organization may be emphasized, and an ideal organizational structure or a precise system may be designed to make people work effectively. But if the functioning is not sound or if it creates any problem, something must be wrong with the structure or with the external control. From this perspective, there is always a tendency to enforce supervision on schools and increase ordinances for controlling them. Naturally the result is the expansion of the bureaucratic system of the central authority. A possible ecological phenomenon would be that the more the external control is enforced, the more the school members depend on the central authority, and the lower their initiative. An integrated global economy and changing technologies are having profound effects on knowledge education, work, culture and society. The new information technologies have changed the focus of knowledge from content to skills and competence (National Department of Education 1996: 41).

2.2.7.6 Managerial skills

Following the rapid development of studies in theories of behavioural science and organization, many important management skills have been developed and widely applied to various organizations. For example, there are many scientific methods for decision analysis, various skills for conflict management, and effective strategies for organizational change and development. In external control management, school implement only orders from the central authority which bears most of the internal managing responsibility of the school and thus the managing work and skills required for school administrators are comparatively more simple.

2.2.7.7 The utilisation of resources

In order to carry out universal education, most of the resources and expenses of public schools come directly from the government. The government needs to watch closely how the schools use the resources. (See chapter 4 item 4.3.2). In general, it is also not easy for public schools to procure new resources by themselves under the constraints of the

central authority. Therefore, it is not surprising that schools cannot use their resources effectively in accordance with the needs of management and teaching activities. At the same time the central authority needs a lot of manpower and resources to supervise the use of resources in schools.

2.2.7.8 The role of the school

The role of externally controlled schools is generally passive and receptive. Its major concern is to carry out assigned duties and to follow closely administrative procedures to avoid making any mistakes. Even when some procedural rules may contradict the benefits of students and *grade 1 teachers*, they will still be given priority. But school-based management, however aims at inculcating learners, *grade 1 teachers* and the school in an initiative-developing style, solving problems and exploring all possibilities for facilitating *grade 1 teachers*' effective teaching and learners' effective learning (Sergiovanni 1992: 82).

2.2.7.9 Importance of the education department

Maeroff (1993:89) says that in external control management, the key factor is the central authority (or education department) whose role is that of a strict supervisor to control and supervise all school activities, no matter how big or small, and the expansion of a bureaucratic system is inevitable. In school-based management, the key factor is the school; the role of the central authority is only as a supporter or advisor which helps schools to develop their resources, and especially to carry out effective teaching activities.

2.2.7.10 Significance of administrators

For externally controlled schools, the school mission and goals are provided from outside. The role of school administrators is primarily that of a goalkeeper whose job is to prevent the school from not abiding by the central ordinances. Administraters are also

personnel supervisors and resource controllers who handle personnel affairs and resources by following the regulations. On the contrary, the role of the administrator in school-based management is that of a goal developer and leader, a staff starter and coordinator and also a resource developer (Mortimore 1993: 102).

2.2.7.11 Task of *grade 1 teachers*

According to Dimmock (1993:66), under external control management, the role of the teacher is that of employee, follower, and receiver and implementer of orders. They are passive and cannot participate in decision-making. They only listen to orders and perform duties assigned by the school and the central authority. But in school-based management, the school ideal and managing strategies encourage participation and development, and the role of *grade 1 teacher* is partner, decision maker, developer and, of course, implementer. They work together with shared commitment and participate in decision-making, to promote effective teaching and develop their schools with enthusiasm.

In terms of the nature of *SBCD*, human relations tend to be open and cooperative; team spirit and mutual commitment are emphasized; and the organizational climate seems to be the commitment type. In comparison, external control management emphasizes the hierarchical relationship and implementation of orders, and there are different interests for higher and lower staff. Human relations tend to be closed and realistic. The organizational climate may not be healthy: if the principal is disengaged from the school, the climate will have a headless style; if most teachers tend to be disengaged or not interested in work, while the principal is not helping, the climate will have a disengagement style (Hargreaves 1994: 88).

Bush *et al.* (1993:20) take a step further by showing that in the school-based management mode, schools have considerable autonomy. Participation and development are regarded as important in facing complicated education work and pursuing educational effectiveness. In this case, the requirements or administrator quality is very high. They not only should be equipped with modern management knowledge and techniques to

develop resources and manpower, but also need to learn and grow continuously, to discover and solve problems for school improvement. In short, in addition to being familiar with the present school ordinances, they also need to broaden their views and open their minds to learning so that they can promote long-term development for their schools. Developed from Bolman and Deal (1991:18) the principal's leadership was assessed by the following dimension:

Human Leadership – refers to the extent to which the principal is supportive and fosters participation. It includes seven items and is rated on a seven-point scale; including utilization of resources among different task groups and encouraging effective use of all scarce resources. Additional resources, guidance and support may be provided whenever a need is identified. This stage ensures that the implementation of all programs is effective and consistent with the school policies and objectives.

2.3 MONITORING AND EVALUATING *SBCD*

Bauer and Sapona (1991:40) indicate that the performance of the school as a whole is assessed and monitored to ensure the progress towards the outcomes outlined by its programmes and school plan. The school establishes its own reporting and evaluation systems (for staff appraisal, programme evaluation and school assessment), performance indicators, and standards and reward system for individual staff and programme teams. By means of these systems, the performance of the school is monitored and assessed. The performance is summarized in staff reports, programme reports and the school profile. The focus is to ensure the quality of school programmes, take corrective actions and plan developments. The information obtained at this stage is useful for reflecting on the school's environments, reconsidering the school's direction, re-establishing policies, re-planning action programs and reorganizing structures. In other words, the results of monitoring and evaluating will contribute to the start of the next strategic managing cycle. This stage will provide the necessary information for helping individuals, groups and the school to learn, improve and develop.

2.3.1 Leadership and participation

Throughout the process, participation of school members and the leadership of the principal and administrators are necessary and crucial. Leadership is responsible for initiating and maintaining the strategic management process for developing a school culture that facilitates the continuous pursuit of school effectiveness and development (Caldwell and Spinks 1992:70). Participation serves the following purposes:

- Participation can produce high quality decisions and plans by involving different perspectives and expertise;
- Greater participation can promote greater responsibility, accountability, commitment, support of implementation and results;
- Participation in planning and decision-making is a form of meaning development or culture building that contributes to team spirit and organizational integration;
- Participation in management provides opportunities for individuals and groups to enrich their professional experience and pursue professional development;
- Participation in planning and decision-making provides greater opportunities for schools to overcome resistance and change ineffective practices (Arnott 1992:15).

2.3.2 The potential advantages of strategic management in school

From the experience of using strategic management in the business sector or other organizations as described by Greenley (1991:15), the potential strengths of strategic management in a school may be summarized as follows:

- It helps the school to allocate and use resources more effectively;
- It boosts the commitment of school members to achieve long-term outcomes through participative planning;
- It signals that problems may arise before they happen;
- It alerts the school to changes and allows for action in response to change;

- It improves the channeling of effort toward the attainment of predetermined objectives;
- It facilitates the identification and exploitation of future opportunities for school development and improvement (Greenley 1991:15-16).

2.4 THE ROOTS OF *CURRICULUM* 2005 / *CURRICULUM* 21

The future is embedded in the present, just as the present bears imprints of the past. Therefore, any project that is designed to contemplate a reconstruction of the future of education in a transformed South Africa must first be grounded on a firm understanding of the genesis, evolution and nature of the current educational system and the crisis it has produced. From such an understanding must then issue a clear vision of the rest of the educational enterprise that will serve the broad interest of a unitary and democratically constituted society. The reconstructed education system should and must possess knowledge of the assumptions, canons, philosophical orientations and practices of the old education system and their relation to the prevailing political economy. That critical understanding must inform and undergird the construction of a system that is antithetical to the old in its praxis (Nkomo 1990:291).

In the history of education in South Africa, a scrutiny of policy during the *Verwoerdian* era reflects that education was determined by the character of the country's racial capitalism and reinforced the social relations of apartheid. Enslin in Kallaway (1990:140) stresses that economic exploitation of black labour power was the primary motivation, and political domination by the white minority became the instrument of this, and was carried out through the educational institutions. The National Party (NP) victory in 1948 launched an extraordinary determination to gain firm control over all education institutions for blacks and to implement its Christian National Education (CNE) principles, formulated in 1939. With the passage of the acts a major transformation of education policy was effectuated, catapulting "laissez faire" racial segregation in education into a systematic racial ideology that left no aspect of life, abstract or mundane, untouched. To achieve the grandiose aim of separate development, education was the principal instrument.

Christie and Collins in Kallaway (1990:160) argue that the Eiselen commission, which reported in 1951, considered black education as an integral part of a carefully planned policy of segregated socio-economic development for the black people. Above all it emphasised the functional value of the school as an institution for the transmission and development of the black cultural heritage. 1994 became a watershed year in the South African history in general, and its education system in particular is no exception in this regard. The GNU with the African National Congress (ANC) in the forefront was empowered by the general elections. In the elections, where the ANC was optimistic of victory, the black masses were fed a diet, rich in euphoria, of an ontological utopia wherein all ills of the definite apartheid regime would be straightened out.

The ANC leadership had for some time realized that *Curriculum* 2005 could become the driving force to direct the process of transforming South Africa from its pariah status to a mover and shaker in the international community. The Department of Education (1996:40) shows that the GNU spelled out the significance of *Curriculum* 2005 with particular reference to Science and Technology. To the National Department of Education, *Curriculum* transformation was a **"sine qua non"** in this process as it was considered fundamental. *Curriculum* 2005 gained both credence and visibility in March 1997 when the previous minister of education unveiled South Africa's national *curriculum* for the twenty first century. *Curriculum* 2005 was intended as a therapeutic cocktail, with some essentials as panacea for this country, and other ingredients as performance enhancing steroids to take it to the forefront at international level.

> Naicker (1999:67) propounds that "it is not surprising that many people are perplexed by the changes that they have been confronted with. After all, the shift from a*partheid* education is extremely complex."

In terms of the Foundation Phase Policy Document (Department of Education 1997:1) produced by the Department, the paradigm shift entails moving away from a *curriculum* that perpetuated race class, gender and ethnic divisions and has emphasized separateness

rather than citizenship and nationhood. *Curriculum* 2005 called for a paradigm shift from content based teaching and learning to one based on outcomes. For details see table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Difference between the old and the new approaches

OLD	NEW
Passive learners	Active learners
Exam-driven	Learners are assessed on an on-going basis
Rote-learning	Critical thinking, reasoning, reflection and action
Syllabus is content-based and broken down into subject	An integration of knowledge; learning relevant and connected to real-life situations
Textbook/worksheet-bound and teacher-centred	Learner-centred; teacher is facilitator; teacher constantly uses groupwork and teamwork to consolidate the new approach
Sees syllabus as rigid and non-negotiable	Learning programmes seen as guides that allow teachers to be innovative and creative in designing programmes
Teachers responsible for learning; motivation dependent on the personality of teacher	Learners take responsibility for their learning; learners motivated by constant feedback and affirmation of their worth
Emphasis on what the teacher hopes to achieve	Emphasis on outcomes – what the learner becomes and understands
Content placed into rigid time-frames	Flexible time-frames allow learners to work at their own pace
Curriculum development process not open to public comment	Comments and input from the wider community are encouraged

Curriculum 2005 (1997:6-7)

The *Northern Province* as the other South African Provinces, has embarked on this new system of *OBE* in the Foundation Phase or *grade 1* with effect from 1998. *Curriculum* 2005 (1997:9) propounds that "other countries in the world like Australia and the Netherlands are also using the *OBE* approach." This may be taken to mean that these are the countries from which we have adopted the approach. Canada, New Zealand and some states in the United States of America (USA) have also had some experience with the *OBE* approach.

In their report "A South African *Curriculum* for the twenty-first century," the Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005 (2000:17) stress that *Outcomes-Based Education* will be retained in *Curriculum* 21, for the majority of those who have had exposure to *Outcomes-Based Education* support the underlying principles of the new *curriculum* regardless of the observed flaws of *Curriculum* 2005.

2.5 THE CONCEPT *OBE*: AN OVERVIEW

To avoid monotony, the acronym *OBE* will be used instead of *Outcomes-Based Education*. According to McDonald and Van der Horst (1997:7), *Outcomes-Based Education* is

> "an integrated and holistic approach to teaching and learning. In the past, teaching often concentrated on the memorization and reproduction of content. The *curriculum* was content-driven. According to the principles of *OBE*, the learner's intellect, skills and attitudes, values or habits of mind are developed together. It is therefore an holistic approach which educates the whole person, not only the memory part of the intellect." (See table 2.6)

TABLE 2.6. New directions and old traditions in studying school effectiveness (Valentine 1992:87)

	NEW DIRECTIONS	OLD TRADITIONS
Nature of School Effectiveness	*Based on multiple conception of school functions:technical, social, political, cultural and educational. *Conception at five levels: individual, institutional, community, society and international. *Both short-term and long-term onsiderations.	*Based on simplistic conception of school functions, particularly on technical and social functions only. *Conception only at one to two levels, particularly at the individual or institutional levels. *Mainly short-term consideration.
Expectation of School Effectiveness	*To different constituencies, different types of school effectiveness are expected. *Dilemmas exist.	*Emphasizing mainly technical or social effectiveness, assuming no big differences in expectations. *Dilemmas are ignored.
Assumption about Relationships	*Complicated relationship between types *Complicated relationship between levels *Complicated relationship between effectiveness and efficiency *Between-relationships not necessarily positive, need to be studied and managed.	*Positive relationship between types. *Positive relationship between levels. *Positive relationship between effectiveness and efficiency. *No strong need to study and manage between-relationships.
Disciplines for investigation	*Interdisciplinary cooperation and efforts are needed.	*Mainly single discipline is used, separate efforts are made.
Focus of Study and Discussion	*Multi-types of effectiveness *Multi-levels of effectiveness *Relationship between types *Relationship between levels *Relationship between effectiveness and efficiency.	*Separate/single type of effectiveness *Separate/single level of effectiveness
Implications for Management and Policy	*To maximize effectiveness in multi-types of multi-levels. *To maximize efficiency in multi- types at multi-levels. *Need to ensure congruence between types and between levels. *Need to ensure congruence between effectiveness and efficiency.	*Mainly to maximize effectiveness in separate type at single level. *Mainly to maximize efficiency in separate type at single level. *No need to ensure congruence between types and levels. *No need to ensure congruence between effectiveness and efficiency.

Lubisi, Wedekind and Parker (1998:3), in support of McDonald and Van der Horst, maintain that:

> "*OBE* is education which is not planned around certain prescribed subject matter that students 'ought to learn'; it is geared instead towards the students being able to show clear signs of having learnt valued skills, knowledge or attitudes" (these are the educational outcomes).

OBE means clearly focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences. This means starting with a clear picture of what is important for learners to be able to do, than organizing *curriculum*, instruction, and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens. The keys to having an outcome-based system are:

- Developing a clear set of learning outcomes around which all of the system's components can be focused.
- Establishing the conditions and opportunities within the system that enable and encourage all students to achieve those essential outcomes (Spady 1994:1).

The proponent frequently associated with the *OBE* approach in the USA literature is that of William Spady.

Guskey quoted by Schwartz and Cavener (1994:326) indicates that:

> "all the basic tenets of what we now call '*OBE*' were elegantly set forth by Ralph Tyler over 40 years ago."

King and Evans (1992:73), like Schwartz and Cavener (1994:326), argue that:

> "While its label is relatively now, *OBE* actually developed over the course of the past several decades."

These scholars also identify the names of Bloom and Mager, and their work on behavioural objectives, with the roots of *OBE*. In Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives, outcomes of learning are commonly categorized into three domains namely: the cognitive which is an area of knowledge, the affective, an area of emotion, and the psychomotor, an area of skills (see table 2.7). Spady uses outcomes and goals interchangeably (King and Evans 1991:73).

TABLE 2.7. ACTIVITIES AND OBJECTIVES FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

	FOR TEACHERS	**FOR ADMINISTRATORS**
Behaviour (Technique)	*Increase knowledge, techniques and special teaching and learning. *Find out the factors hindering the full play of teachers' competence. *Improve teaching performance. *Encourage participation and development. *Assist the work of colleagues.	*Enhance administrative efficiency *Improve leadership *Master techniques of planning and management. *Improve supervision style. *Encourage open mind and learning. *Assist the development of colleagues.
Effective	*Reinforce confidence in the teaching profession. *Enhance satisfaction in teaching. *Increase personal commitment to education.	*Reinforce confidence as administrative leader. *Enhance satisfaction in administration. *Increase concern and support for colleagues. *Increase personal commitment to education and administrative work.
Cognition	*Understand current educational trends. *Understand current policies and objectives of school functions. *Recognise the values of teaching and establish personal beliefs about education. *Provide teachers with opportunities for role clarification. *Identify with the school mission. *Self-evaluate and reflect on educational work.	*Understand current educational trends. *Reflect on current school policies and objectives of school functions. *Recognise ethical and moral issues of administration. *Recognise the values of administration. *Establish personal beliefs about leadership.

	*Responsible for outcomes of teaching.	*Clarify the role of administration. *Self-evaluation and reflection on administration. *Be responsible for colleagues performance and administrative results.
Behaviour (Technique)	*Provide opportunities for members to learn from each other. *Work together to teach and develop *curriculum.* *Provide inter-class visits. *Learn to share and participate.	*Solve internal conflicts and improve communication. *Lead group/team work. *Learn to delegate and distribute work.
Affective	*Establish team spirit. *Encourage mutual trust of members. *Foster friendship.	*Establish team spirit. *Encourage mutual trust of members. *Foster friendship.
Cognition	*Discuss and understand the relationship between group work and school policies. *Evaluate the effectiveness of group work. *Analyse strengths, weaknesses and development of the group. *Ensure the role and value of group work. *Commitment to group effectiveness.	*Discuss and ensure the relationship between groups and school policies. *Recognise the values of collaborative management and participative decision-making. *Evaluate strengths and weaknesses of each policy . *Ensure the role and value of the administrative group. *Commitment to policy effectiveness.
Behaviour (Technique)	*Provide opportunities for whole-school teaching collaboration. *Improve the use of whole-school resources. *Find out whole-school factors unfavourable for teaching.	*Provide opportunities for whole-school collaboration for teaching and management. *Improve the management of whole-school resources. *Find out and prevent factors unfavourable for the full development of staff. *Develop the whole-school image.
Affective	*Foster a sense of belonging to the school. *Establish whole-school collaborative climate among teachers. *Develop a homely atmosphere in the school.	*Establish whole-school climate and a sense of belonging. *Establish close relationship between administrators and teachers. *Develop a homely atmosphere in the school.
Cognition	*Evaluate school effectiveness. *Participate in developing school mission and goals. *Ensure the values of school education. *Identify with the unique mission and vision of the school.	*Lead discussion and reflection on school policies. *Lead the staff to develop school mission and goals. *Lead and ensure the values of school education. *Lead and ensure the unique mission and vision of the school.

Adapted from Eraut (1993:74)

King and Evans (1991:74) take a step further by pointing out that *OBE* itself has emerged during a decade of accountability concerns and they further point out that:

> "the real attraction of *OBE* may be effective coupling of control with autonomy. At the central level, legislatures and school boards exert control by setting exit outcomes, at the same time, they give schools the autonomy to achieve these outcomes in any number of ways. With the ends set, the means to those ends can rest totally in the hands of school people, and the *OBE* challenge becomes a technical one of implementation. Schools have both the freedom to effect exit outcomes in any appropriate way and the responsibility for producing a result."

Schartz and Cavener (1994:335), unlike King and Evans, argue that "the emphasis on standardization and accountability, on a paradigm shift not necessarily selected by them, keeps *grade 1 teachers* voiceless, yet responsible for the results."

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:07) in line with documentation on *curriculum* 2005/ *curriculum* 21 (1997:9) are of the notion that *OBE* can be described as an approach which requires teachers and learners to focus their attention on two things:

- *Firstly* the focus is on the desired end results of each learning process. These desired end results are called the outcomes of learning and learners need to demonstrate that they have attained them.
- *Secondly* the focus is on the instructive and learning process that will guide learners to these end results. Teachers are required to use the learning outcome as a focus when they make instructional decisions and plan their lessons.

OBE is perceived as an approach that aims at transforming the education and training system which will equip South Africans to meet the challenges of the new millennium.

The focus changes from the consumption of knowledge to the construction of knowledge. The learner, and not the subject, is always at the centre of the *curriculum* process. In a nutshell, the approach is meant to encourage and to promote a thirst for knowledge and love for learning (Lumadi 1998:2).

Spady and Marshall (1991:67) explain that *OBE* is based on three basic premises, namely:

- All students can learn and succeed
- Success breeds success
- Schools control the condition for success.

Glatthorn (1993:359), in line with Spady, is of the notion that the *OBE curriculum* model is "a design down process moving from the exit outcomes to the lesson outcomes." The skeleton outline of Spady's design model is as follows:

i. Exit Outcomes
ii. Programme Outcomes
iii. Course (Grade Level) Outcomes
iv. Unit Outcomes
v. Lesson Outcomes.

Spady (1994:18) defines the concept outcomes as:

> "of high quality, culminating in demonstrations of significant learning in contexts. Demonstration is the key word, an outcome is not a score or grade, but the end product of a clearly defined process that students carry out."

- According to *OBE* an educator's success will be measured by learning outcomes; participatory management says a school's success must be measured by its learning outputs.

- Educators must provide evidence for learning success by clearly defining performance indicators; participatory management states that schools must do the same.

- Educators must continuously assess their own and their learners' progress; participatory management states that schools must continuously assess or evaluate their progress towards their defined 'outputs'.

- Teaching should be learner-centred (it must be inclusive) and outcomes and performance indicators must be shared with learners; participatory management talks of an inclusive, people-centred approach with pre-defined and transparent performance indicators (*Curriculum* 2005 1998:8).

McDonald (1991:85) in support of the above argument shows that:

> *"die onderwyser moet wegbeweeg van die inhoud in die rigting van die leerling om die leerlinge die geleentheid te gee om selfstandig met die inhoud om te gaan."*

Spady, however regards aspects of *Curriculum* 2005 as not typical of *OBE* (e.g. technicist language and "overprogramming"). He calls for a return to the source of the original idea which is sound *Outcomes-Based Education* (Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005:11).

2.6 KEY PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE *OBE* TEACHING:

The following principles of effective *OBE* teaching are described in *Curriculum* 2005 (1998:11) documentation:

- *Firstly*, all the steps in the teaching process are linked. This makes *OBE* different from the previous practices of many educators who saw planning as the beginning and assessing as the end. Now assessment provides the information needed for planning.

- *Secondly*, *OBE* shifts the bulk of the educator's work to the planning stage. Rather than doing lots of talking in the classroom, educators need to think and prepare interesting and appropriate learning activities before they go to class.

- *Thirdly*, it should specified what learners should learn and how they can be more certain that they have learned these things. To do this, we must be clear about our learning outcomes, but even more so, the evidence we require to prove that learners have achieved these outcomes must be clearly stated. These pieces of evidence are called performance indicators.

- *Lastly*, *OBE*: focuses more on what learners do and learn than on what we, as educators, do. In other words, as educators we must ensure that our learners leave with useful skills and knowledge and not only with an ability to use the information we taught them to write examinations (see figure 2.8).

The above principles hold for sound *Outcomes-Based Education*, and therefore also for *Curriculum* 21.

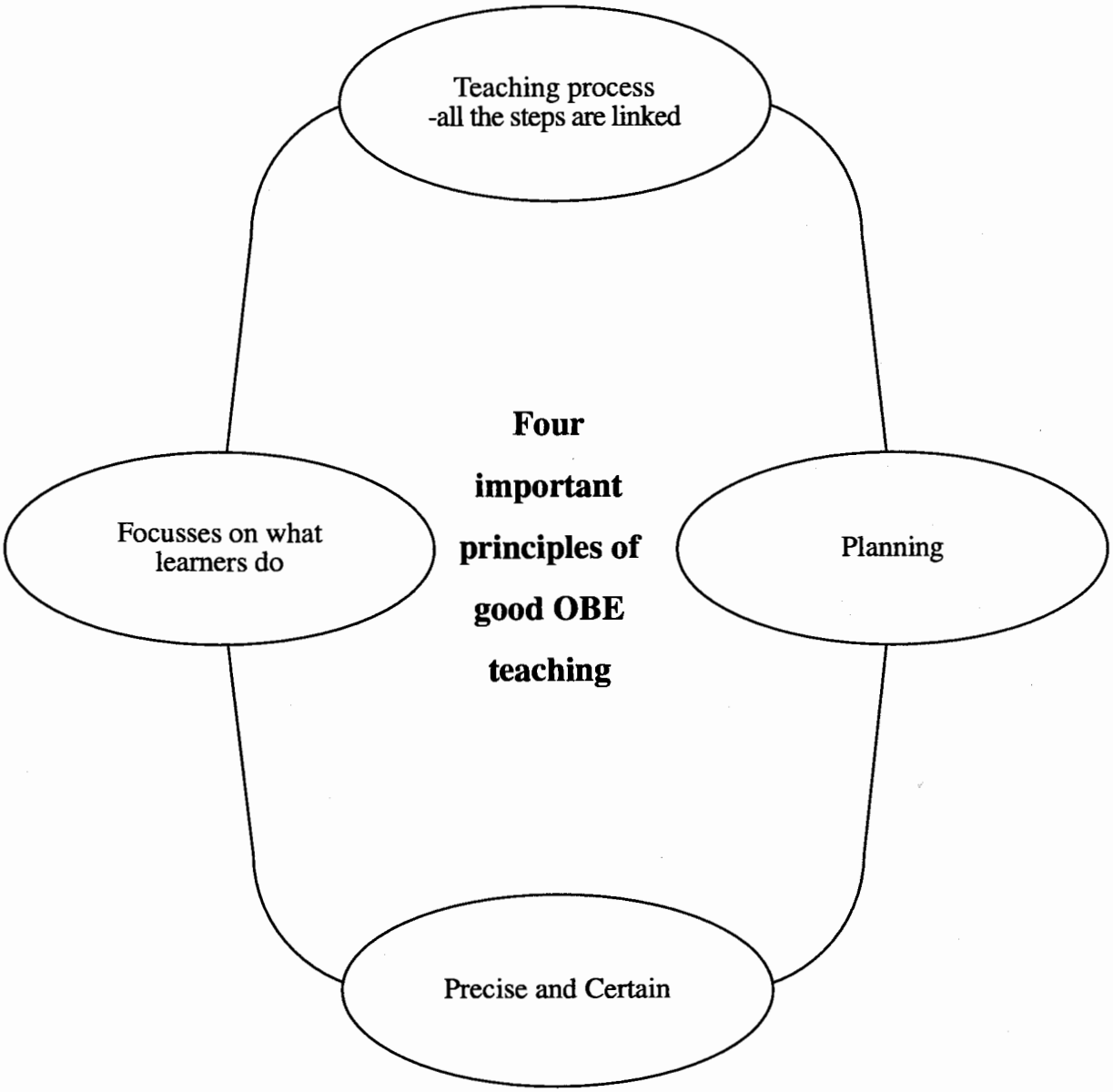


Figure 2.8 National Department of Education (*Curriculum 2005*, 1997)

Curriculum 2005 (1998:11) stresses that good *OBE* educators guide their practices by asking some inter-related questions, such as:

- What does one want learners to know, be able to do, value and be like as a result of effective teaching?
- What sort of learning environment (activities and assessment) should one construct to assist them in developing this knowledge and ability?
- How will one know if learners are achieving this knowledge and ability? Are one's performance indicators clearly spelt out and communicated to learners?
- How will one use assessment to improve teaching and learners' learning? How will one change the activities designed?
- Can one construct a school environment where collaboration with colleagues in planning and teaching becomes normal and accepted?

The starting point is a clear statement of intended learning outcomes and their associated performance indicators. When these are clearly and publicly stated and then used as the foundation for all other decisions about teaching and learning, there is an *OBE* system.

All individual learners must be allowed to learn to their full potential. This means that both *grade 1 teachers* and learners must have high expectations for successful learning on the part of all learners, regardless of background, previous achievement, age, sex, learning style, or other factors. It has been proved time and again that learners rise to their teachers' expectations of them. Those expectations must, however, be realistic. In South Africa we have to guard against stereotyping learners from different groups in this regard, such as regarding learners from a certain group as uncreative, lazy, weak in Mathematics, et cetera (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:7).

Teaching in an *OBE* approach is more creative and innovative than teaching in a traditional approach. No longer will *grade 1 teachers* and trainees just implement a *curriculum* designed by an education department. They can instead be creative in implementing a *curriculum* which they designed and developed in order to produce the

required outcomes. In fact, both trainers and *grade 1 teachers* will no longer be overburdened by becoming depositors of knowledge. Learners will be trained to take full responsibility for their own learning which will alleviate the pressure on both *grade 1 teachers* and learners.

2.6.1 TYPES OF *OBE*

According to Spady and Marshall (1991:69) three types of *OBE* are identified namely: traditional, transitional and transformation.

2.6.1.1 Traditional *OBE*

Curriculum 2005 (1998:17) indicates that traditional *OBE* is similar to the old objectives approach to education. It does focus on clearly defined outcomes, but these are narrow (rather than holistic) and are often not linked to the learner's ability to use this learning in work or life. Outcomes are drawn direct from the content of an existing *curriculum*. Some forms of traditional *OBE*, or objectives teaching, have been called mastery learning because the intention behind defining the objectives is to help learners master small sections of content or discrete skills.

(a) Characteristics of traditional *OBE*

- It doesn't give learners or educators an understanding of why this learning is important.
- It focuses strongly on either applying or recalling content.
- Because of this, educators do not change the learning environment much. Things carry on just as before the outcomes were defined.

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:3) show that the *Curriculum-Based Education OBE* is based on a certain understanding of what educational processes try to achieve, so it has a certain formy, assessment to match that understanding of the learning and teaching process.

2.6.1.2 Transitional *OBE*

Although transitional *OBE* is related to traditional *OBE*, in that it compels educators to be clear about what they want to achieve, its deep seated difference is that:

- Planning begins with the critical outcomes and the *curriculum* is simply used to achieve these outcomes.
- It always asks whether the outcomes have any value in society.
- It focuses strongly on integrating knowing, doing and feeling.
- Because integration is so important, and because educators must develop 'competence', it requires changes in the learning environment.

In the Transitional *OBE* staff and community members almost universally emphasize broad attitudinal, effective, motivational, and relational qualities or orientations. These schools give priority to higher-level competencies, such as critical thinking, effective communication, technological applications, and complex problem solving, rather than particular kinds of knowledge or information and *curriculum*, mastery learning, accountability and criterion-referenced assessment (Spady and Marshall 1991:69).

Critics of this form of *OBE* say that it does not necessarily lead to enough real changes in the education system. Irrelevant content remains, and although it is possible to use the existing *curriculum* in new ways, this is not always easy and old practices remain unchanged. Others argue that by keeping the content and using it to develop new approaches, educators will be offered a stepping stone – a "frame" – that will guide the transition towards other expressions of *OBE* (*Curriculum* 2005 1998:18).

Both *Curriculum* 2005 and *Curriculum* 21 can be classed on a continuum from transitional to transformational *OBE*

2.6.1.3 Transformational *OBE*

Transformational *OBE* arises from a sense that the existing education system and *curriculum* impede the development of a new society and do not meet the needs of learners. They do not help learners to develop the attitudes, knowledge and skills that will enable them to participate competently in society. Naicker (1999:88) maintains that the *grade 1 teacher* interacts with learners on the understanding that there are different learning styles and different learning rates. Learners could have talents in any area, e.g. spatial, linguistic, inter-personal.

This situation arises most commonly when there has been, or is a demand for, rapid social change. In societies that are complex, dynamic and technologically sophisticated, an education system that is flexible and able to prepare adaptable learners for life and work in a rapidly changing society, is necessary. Transformational *OBE* is a collaborative, flexible, transdisciplinary outcomes-based, open system, empowerment-oriented approach to schooling (Spady and Marshall 1991:68).

According to Spady and Marshall (1991:68) transformational *OBE* is centred on "Why do schools exist in this day and age?" The *OBE* response is to equip all students with the knowledge, competence, and orientations needed for success after they leave school. Hence, its guiding vision of the graduate is that of the competent future citizen (Spady and Marshall, 1991:78). To its credit, transformational *OBE* takes nothing about schooling today as a given; no existing features are considered untouchable in carrying out a *curriculum* design. Spady and Marshall (1991:69) argue that transformational *OBE* fully embraces and embodies the four *OBE* principles which they call 'success for all' and state:

- *Ensure Clarity of Focus on Outcomes of Significance.* Culminating demonstrations become the starting point, focal point, and ultimate goal of *curriculum* design and instruction, Schools and districts work to carefully align (or match) *curriculum*,

instruction, assessment, and credentialing with the substance (criteria) and process of the intended demonstration.

- *Design Down from Ultimate Outcomes. Curriculum* and instructional design inherently should carefully proceed backward from the culminating demonstrations (outcomes) on which everything ultimately focuses and rests, thereby ensuring that all components of a successful culminating demonstration are in place.

- *Emphasize High Expectations for All to Succeed.* Outcomes should represent a high level of challenge for students, and all students should be expected to accomplish them eventually at high performance levels and be given credit for their performance whenever it occurs.

- *Provide Expanded Opportunities and Support for Learning Success.* Time should be used as a flexible resource rather than a predefined absolute in both instructional design and delivery (to better match differences in student learning rates and aptitudes). Educators should deliberately allow students more than one uniform, routine chance to receive needed instruction and to demonstrate their learning successfully (Spady and Marshall 1991:70).

In summary, *OBE,* following a long line of related *curriculum* work, can be characterized as traditional, transitional, or transformational, and points to objectives tied to learner outcomes, core and extended information management systems (Capper and Jamison 1993:432).

Spady (1994:21) introduced the metaphor of the Demonstration Mountain which represents the three forms of *OBE*. It also represents the act of climbing from the most basic demonstration of outcomes of learning, with the modes of the traditional classroom setting, to the contraction of outcome based on transformational *OBE*. Failing mid-way between the base (i.e. traditional *OBE*) and the top of the Demonstration Mountain lies the demonstration of outcomes from the traditional *OBE* model.

It is argued at great length that all implementers of the *OBE* model must of necessity go through all three levels of the Demonstration Mountain. This would mean that one endorses the application of the *OBE* principles at the traditional level where they are applied to the traditional school contents, as long as the system allows the gradual climbing that will add the outcomes of less traditional areas (Transformational *OBE*), with the aim of possibly moving away from the traditional school disciplines to more contextualised outcomes relating to the real life situations outside the confines of the school. About the top part of the Demonstration Mountain, there is some uncertainty concerning its relevance to learning as it occurs in the schools:

> "Because this zone of the mountain seems beyond the structures and frames of reference used most often in the schools, we might ask two questions: are complex Role Performances possible in school? What Role Performances link the world of schooling to the real life?" (Spady 1994:21).

From these questions it would appear that Spady himself is not ready to commit the schools to the so-called Transformational *OBE*. Spady and Marshall (1991:70) say that Transformational *OBE* represents the highest evolution of the concept of *OBE*. They explain that the school districts, which are attempting Transformational *OBE*, set their existing *curriculum* frameworks aside when addressing the issue of future-driven exit outcomes. They further note that,

> ...because these districts have few examples of mature *OBE* designs on which to model their efforts, these pioneers are building a new legacy of work whose designs and results are not yet certain (Spady and Marshall 1991: 70-71).

Is it not strange then that this is the very format of *OBE* which our Department of National Education is ready to assign to South African schools? Or has our pre-occupation with the concept of "transformation" contributed to this decision? In a nutshell, transformational *OBE* is an approach to teaching and learning which stresses the need to be clear about what learners are expected to achieve (Sieborger and Macintosh 1998 : 35).

2.6.2 The key values of *Curriculum* 2005 / Curriculum 21

Shiundu and Omulando acknowledge the following principles of *curriculum* design followed by the national Department of Education:

(a) Learner-centred designs

In this design, a learner should always be at the centre of the *curriculum* process. Supporters of these *curriculum* designs generally view society in democratic terms and perceive individuals as being 'naturally good'. Hence learner-centred designs emphasize individual development and their approach to organizing the *curriculum* emerges from the needs, interest and purposes of learners. As a result, there are two essential differences between this and the subject-centred designs.

Learner-centred designs take their organizational cues from individual student needs rather than a body of subject matter. Consequently learner-centred designs are usually not as preplanned as other designs, for they evolve from teacher-student interaction in relation to learning tasks. In some cases the *curriculum* may have no preplanning at all, and may emerge as a group of students reveal their concerns, interests and needs.

Print (1993:99) identifies two forms of learner-centred approaches which can be distinguished in *curriculum* design:

- *Activity/experience design.* This approach is based on determining the genuine needs and interests of learners which in turn form the basis of the *curriculum*. An important claim of this approach is that "People only learn what they experience... Learning in its true sense is an active transaction". Consequently it is very difficult to preplan, although with experience certain trends emerge. An important role for the teacher, therefore, is to develop the ability to ascertain genuine student interests and then create an appropriate *curriculum* around them (Shiundu and Omulando 1992:115).

- *Humanistic design.* Similar in approach to the experience design, the humanistic design emphasizes the meeting of individual needs in a conducive, supportive learning environment. The humanistic approach to *curriculum* design may well incorporate all the features of the experience design with the additional factor of providing a supportive environment for the individual learner (Print 1993:100).

The essential differences between the two designs is that the *curriculum* developer has some preconceived views, based on the intents of humanistic psychology, on what is of value to learners and that these ideas are integrated into a *curriculum* based upon the learner's needs (Le Grange and Reddy 1998: 4).

(b) Integration of education

One of the key principles of *OBE* is the integration of education and training. Many schools of thought recognize the gulf between theory and practice. This is the existing and much criticized divorce between theory and practice in education, and, more broadly between education and life. Therefore in designing *Curriculum* 2005 and its implementation, the learner must learn what has relevance and meaning for everyday experiences which are likely to enlarge his horizons as an outcome. The approach of learning and integration of knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and practical work is of great significance. The implication is that the teacher must be initiated into a wide variety of learning areas at university level. Learners make sense of the new knowledge

in the context of their own knowledge and then develop their original concept as learning takes place (Le Grange and Reddy 1998:06).

(c) Attainability

Naicker (1999:87) shows that learners need to demonstrate clearly what they have learnt. In other words, outcomes are described with clear action verbs, e.g. "counteract". For outcomes to be viable they must be attainable by learners. Levels of learner competency and experience, the availability of resources and the availability of time must be taken into account when devising outcomes in order to ensure they are attainable. It may well be sensible for learners to understand and appreciate, for example, a gravitational force. However, it would be extremely difficult, in terms of time and cost, for students to acquire that learning experientially. If the outcome is important, it would need to be constructed in a way that was attainable (by using audio-visual material perhaps).

(d) Validity

Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:11) view validity as the extent to which the assessment measures what it is supposed to measure, or whether it does what it is meant to do. In order to be valid and reliable a *curriculum* must reflect the reality it purports to represent. In other words, the *curriculum* must state what it is intended to state. If, for example, a *curriculum* refers to standards of student literacy and the ensuing objectives refer only to literature, then these outcomes are likely to be invalid. Leedy (1993:40) indicates that validity is concerned with the soundness and the effectiveness of the measuring instrument.

(e) Consistency

Hammersley (1992:67) shows that the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different people may be referred to as reliability. Not only should outcomes be comprehensive but they must also be consistent with each other

and with the goals from which they come. When constructing outcomes it is important to see that they relate effectively to each other. If an outcome for enhancing the learner self-concept, for example, emphasized a supportive, nurturing environment, and another required all learning experiences to be assessed through rigorous, multiple-choice testing procedures, then inconsistency and a clash would occur. To maintain a logical development and extension of the fundamental *curriculum* intent, outcomes must always be consistent.

(f) Specificity

The noun "specificity" is derived from the adjective "specific," which means clearly defined or relating to a particular subject (Thompson 1996:876). To avoid ambiguity and to be readily understandable to all concerned, outcomes should be precise. Outcomes that lack specificity, and thus perhaps clarity, are likely to be misunderstood by both learners and instructors. To some *curriculum* developers this means writing outcomes in behavioural terms. Furthermore, an outcome may be precise, although not in strict behavioural terms, and still meet the criteria of specificity. As so much of the *curriculum* is concerned with outcomes, and as they are so important in subsequent *curriculum* planning, it is a worthwhile investment of time and effort to make them effective. Using the above criteria as a screening device, *curriculum* developers will enhance their outcomes and hence their subsequent curricula.

(g) Suitability

The South African yearbook (1998:323) states explicitly that the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Service (NCESS) were appointed by the Minister of Education in October 1996. The role of the NCSNET is to restructure the *curriculum* to such an extent that it becomes suitable for the needs of learners at all levels.

The issue of the suitability of a *curriculum* is a somewhat vexed one, as educators hold different opinions as to what those needs are and who will decide on them. *Curriculum* developers agree that outcomes must be suitable to learners' needs, but what are these needs, and who decides if they are suitable? Furthermore, are the objectives suitable for learners, given their level of maturation and the social context within which they function?

Curriculum developers may decide, for example, that all learners in *grade 1* should learn about human reproduction. This appears to be a logical need of learners, particularly in the context of modern society where the acquisition of such knowledge may be, at best, haphazard. But do all *curriculum* developers agree that students should acquire this learning? And at what age? And do the learners want this information or do certain adults suggest they do?

2.6.2.1 Different Outcomes

According to Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:35-36) outcomes are also called attainment targets or standards. The targets that which learners have to aim at, or a statement of the standards which they are expected to achieve. Spady (1994:49) shows that outcomes are the learning results we desire from students, which lead to culminating demonstrations. These results and their demonstrations occur at or after the end of a significant learning experience; hence the term "culminating." This also means that outcomes are not simply the things students believe, feel, remember, know, or understand; these and other similar things are all internal mental processes, rather than clear demonstrations of learning. Instead, outcomes are what students actually can do with what they know and understand.

The South African *OBE* is currently comprised of three different outcomes namely, critical cross-field outcomes, Learning Area outcomes and specific outcomes. In *Curriculum* 21 the Learning Area Outcomes may be dropped (Review Committee on Curriculum 2005 2000:X).

(a) Critical cross-field outcomes

According to Naicker (1999:97) *curriculum* 2005/*Curriculum* 21 is informed by twelve critical outcomes which are in turn informed by the constitution of the new South Africa. Le Grange and Reddy (1998:8) name seven outcomes which perpetuate the development of productive and independent citizens. The following critical outcomes have been adopted by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA).

Learners will:

- Identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking
- Work effectively with others as members of a team, organisation and community
- Organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively
- Collect, analyse and critically evaluate information
- Communicate effectively using visual or language skills in various modes
- Use Science and Technology effectively and critically
- Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation
- Reflect on and exploring 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

(b) Learning area outcomes

Curriculum 2005 has been criticised for having too many Learning Areas (eight).The Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005 have suggested that the eight Learning Areas be diminished to six, as the Economic and Management Sciences Learning Area and the Technology Learning Area should be dropped (2000:X).

OBE endorses a holistic approach where a fusion of learning content is emphasized. *Curriculum* 2005 (1997:17) shows that every learning area will have its own broad outcomes which are called the Learning Area Outcomes (LAO). These are general skills, abilities and values a learner will be expected to demonstrate in that learning area. The following eight learning areas in *curriculum* 2005 are tabulated by Naicker (1999:98):

i. Communication, Literacy and Language Learning
ii. Numeracy and Mathematics
iii. Human and Social Sciences
iv. Natural Sciences
v. Arts and Culture
vi. Economic and Management Sciences
vii. Life Orientation
viii. Technology (see figure 2.9 for these eight Learning Areas)

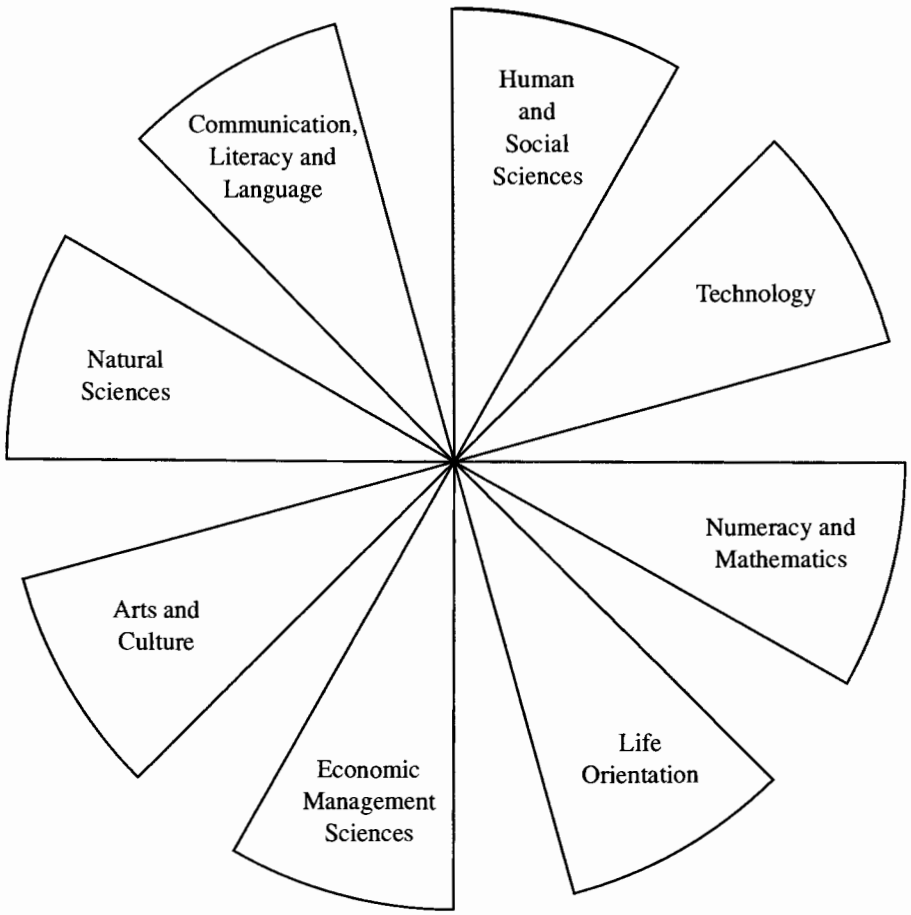


Figure 2.9 A Balanced *Curriculum*
Cirriculum (2005:15)

(a) **Specific outcomes**

These refer to the specific knowledge, values and attitudes,which should be displayed in a particular context (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:48).

McDonald (1991:86) shows that *"die onderwyser se funksie as ontsluiter van die werklikheid strek veel verder as die onderrig van vakinhoude.'n Onderwyser met wye,*

oorspronklike en lewensegte algemene kennis en kundighede vertoon beweeglik en effektief in die lessituatie."

The South African Critical Outcomes have been informed by the values and vision of the South African constitution and these outcomes form the foundation for the description of more specific outcomes in all learning areas (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:48).

2.6.2.2 The rationale behind *OBE*

The rationale behind the introduction of *OBE* is that there has been a steep decline in the quality of educational performance by most learners. The main rationale is that there is inequality in education provision. For instance, for the past two years, the *Northern Province* has experienced the highest unemployment rate, which is rocketing sky high because the education learning received does not enable people to become competent and marketable outside the classroom situation.

Bhika (1997:49) has pointed out that the past and current matriculants are misfits in society and the outside world. The National Department of Education felt that something had to be done urgently to rescue the situation before it went out of hand, hence the introduction of the *OBE* approach. *OBE* is therefore not a programme, but a way of designing, delivering and documenting instruction in terms of its intended goals and outcomes. *OBE* puts emphasis on competencies (knowledge, skills and behaviour) that are observable and thus measurable.

Hager and Beckett (1995:2) point out that "the concept of competence includes the notion of the abilities or capabilities being applied to the performance of some tasks."

Van Schalkwyk (1995:20) is of the view that "the scheme, *curriculum* 2005, sounds good in principle, for it is intended to equip school leavers with the skills and knowledge required by the market, through the development of intellectual and social skills resting on an inter-active process which will not require rote learning. The Outcomes Based

Curriculum is the product of the enlightened concept that education is a life-long process."

2.6.2.3 The cascade model

The cascade model's objective is to co-ordinate and consolidate the existing *OBE* management capacity within the Department of Education, Arts, Culture and Sports (DEACS) and the development of a cadre of *OBE* trainer-facilitators capable of preparing *grade 1 teachers* to implement *OBE.* The DEACS decided to utilize either the cascade or train – the trainer model and the cluster model for phasing in *curriculum* 2005 (DEACS 1998:1).

Prior to *Curriculum* 2005's implementation, quite a number of educators were selected in all South African provinces to attend the train – the trainer workshop organized by the national Department of Education in Pretoria in 1997. The overall aim of the workshop was to equip and empower educators so that they should in turn equip their fellow *grade 1 teachers* in their respective provinces. In the *Northern Province* which educates learners at school level, only twenty facilitators were selected to attend the workshop.

(a) Strengths of the model

- It is economic in the sense that the ones trained in turn train trainees
- Teachers are trained in stages
- Developments can be assessed easily
- It equips and empowers educators (Eraut 1993:70)

(b) Weaknesses of the model

- It warrants a lot of time to train all teachers
- Incompetent educators dilute the content to be carried over the teacher (Eraut 1993:70).

In *Northern Province*, for example, the provincial facilitators, who were trained nationally, in turn trained thirty grade one educators from the 30 identified pilot schools, across the length and the breadth of the province – five schools per region. Out of 31 areas, only 19 areas had seconded educators and 12 areas had no facilitators. The shortage of training staff is in effect a problem, which needs urgent attention. Towards the end of 1997 *Northern Province* further workshopped 5000 *grade 1 teachers* in preparation for the implementation of *Curriculum* 2005 (DEACS 1998:01).

2.6.2.4 The cluster model

The DEACS (1998:1) shows that apart from the cascade model, the cluster model is used in order to change the classroom practice of teachers of grades one, two, three and seven in schools, by equipping them with skills to develop learning activities, in order to enhance their implementation of the new *curriculum*.

(a) Strengths of the Model

- It focuses on consolidation of knowledge and skills
- It boosts teachers' confidence and reinforces their prior knowledge (DEACS 1998:02).

(b) Weaknesses of the model

- It has financial constraints because teachers from different schools meet weekly at a stipulated venue – and scheduled time
- Facilitators experience problems on visiting schools for follow up sessions (Arnott 1992:76).

2.6.2.5 *OBE*'s constraints

(a) Inadequate training at workshops, e.g. half a day or once a month without a follow-up

session

(b) Poor resource materials and infrastructure e.g. overcrowded classrooms, shortage of water etc

(c) A death of expertise in *OBE* which results in lack of motivation in teaching.

(d) Financial constraints experienced in delivery

(e) Bombastic terminology

(f) Politics and education

(g) Poor *involvement* by many key stakeholders such as teachers, principals, lecturers, educational practitioners, parents, students and many others.

(h) Continuous assessment where there is a dearth of resources (Arnott 1992:76).

2.6.3 *OBE* Critique

2.6.3.1 Ongoing assessment

Although ongoing assessment is a key principle of *OBE*, it becomes difficult to implement in overcrowded classrooms. (See chapter 4 item 4.3.1). Lumadi (1998:142) shows that one of the basic principles of *OBE* is that learners have to progress at their own pace. If they have to progress at their own pace, will it become possible for a facilitator to apply thus principle of individualization? Proper cognizance should be taken of the fact that three groups of learners are found in a classroom situation such as above average, average and below average.

The classrooms for most black institutions are predominantly overcrowded. If the learner-teacher ratio is abnormal, how can one apply the principle of individualization? Turney *et al.* (1992:5), in support of this principle of individualization, argue that teachers must seek to know and understand learners' individual needs, interests, abilities and backgrounds. When learners are squeezed into one classroom, they become psychologically disturbed. As such, they do not concentrate fully. Unless something is done, this will remain a futile exercise.

2.6.3.2 Financial constraints

The discussion document (1996:67) shows that a policy for financing education in South Africa should attend to institutions, resources, facilities, learners and their financial needs. Initially, the Ministry of Education had intended to implement *OBE* in *grade 1* and 7 in 1998. However, the department managed to implement it in grade one only. Facilitators of *OBE* in various regions indicated that the department could not succeed because of budgetary constraints. Officials were hardly able to visit schools to assess whether everything is up to date because of the financial implications. Facilitators also pointed out that there are many schools that could not be covered due to long distances and a shortage of manpower. Although they requested the department to appoint more people, this was in vain. The negative response they got from the department was that new appointments had serious financial implications. Can we say *OBE* is going to be a success when the departments are failing at grassroots level? *OBE* implementation warrants both a *curriculum* review and retraining of teachers.

2.6.3.3 Time factor

The failure of the cascade model shows that time spent on training teachers in the *OBE* approach has been insufficient. For instance, in the *Northern Province*, *grade 1 teachers* received six days for intensive training (with the exclusion of cluster meetings). Enough time should have been given for the assessment of *OBE*. (See chapter 4 item 4.3.4 regarding this matter). In terms of continuous assessment, learners need to progress at their own pace. Why can the same not apply to *grade 1 teachers*? There is no point in doing this in a haphazard way. If some of the schools' *grade 1 teachers* are not clear regarding the *OBE* approach, how do we expect them to deliver the goods in the classroom situation, given such a short period? They will still resort to the subject-centred approach (Lumadi 1998:142).

2.6.3.4 Political ploy

Jansen (1990:32) shows that racial education change is essentially a response to historical conditions; in this case the racial capitalism of *apartheid*, which continues to be reproduced in the South African school system, influenced the decision to implement *OBE* in 1998. The introduction of *OBE* was speeded up because of the 1999 elections that were just around the corner. The decision-making process to adopt and to implement *OBE* was to a certain extent hierarchical and only to a lesser extent participatory. Is democracy in education viewed along those lines in our country or are the stakeholders (e.g. *grade 1 teachers*) maximally involved in *curriculum development*?

2.6.3.5 Backlog in infrastructure

"Almost one quarter of our schools have no access to water within walking distance. Over half have no electricity. In some provinces, 40% of school buildings are in poor condition. About 13% of schools have no toilets at all and of those that do, nearly half are pit latrines. Refer to chapter 4 item 4.3.2 and chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1(b). Nearly 40% of schools have poor stationery suppliers. Libraries and laboratories are beyond the wildest dreams of most of our 3200 schools. There is a shortage of nearly 58000 classrooms, over a million desks and chairs for pupils and over 100000 chairs for teachers" (The Star 26 August 1997).

Apparently there are still areas that do not have enough materials on *OBE*. Are enough materials going to be supplied in schools? Adequate facilities are needed for *OBE* to become a reality. There is a drastic shortage of classrooms, media and many other related factors. Should one expect miracles for *OBE* to become a reality?

The enormous backlog in infrastructure is a major barrier to the effective implementation of *Outcomes-Based Education.* In economically backward provinces like the *Northern Province*, serious efforts must be made to redress the inequities of the past so that the

minimum infrastructure is in place for the introduction of "*Curriculum* 2005 /*Curriculum* 21."

2.6.3.6 Technical jargon

A multitude of terms, which sound familiar, but have unique meanings in the context of *OBE*, need to be clearly understood, learned and applied. How many of the majority of the fully qualified, let alone unqualified and underqualified, *grade 1 teachers* are able to understand and correctly apply terms.

Jansen (1997:67) shows that the language of innovation associated with *OBE* is too complex, confusing and at times contradictory: For instance, concepts such as critical outcomes, specific outcomes, NQF, performance indicators, SAQA fields and many others. Simple, clear and straightforward language ought to have been used. Although one does not dispute the fact that various terminologies should be used in various learning areas, a policy document should always be simplified for various stakeholders. The role of teacher preparation in this regard the cascade has failed according to the Minister Asmal.

2.6.3.7 The hidden *curriculum*

Serious concerns have been raised by critics in the USA where *OBE* has been in place in quite a number of states. The following are a selection of comments from an article titled "*Outcomes-Based Education*: Political Hot Potato. Educational Miasma?" that appeared in Sowetan (1999:14).

1. "The biggest problem is that it is inherently a system of social change. Outcomes are determined by educators and policy makers rather than by a standard level of expectations, social demands for achievement, or parental output.

This leaves the educational process open to interpretation and abuse according to individual political and social agendas.

2. *OBE* is brainwashing, not education. Skinnerian techniques of psychological conditioning is used to obtain 'politically correct and compliant workers who feel good about themselves;
3. The objective of *OBE* is the destruction of Judeo-Christian culture by developing a morality of relativism based on what one feels is good in situations;
4. *OBE* undermines academic excellence by "de-emphasizing or lowering academic standards such that all students can meet the requirements." "Where core academic subjects are taught, they are treated as processes only, used to achieve the real attitudinal goals
5. It makes the teacher into a facilitator or coach in place of conducting a directed learning environment'. Learners self direct their learning through active *involvement* with each other through group work and team work.
6. There is an integrated *curriculum* where traditional subjects are grouped into learning areas and where learning "occurs primarily through projects, learning centres and play activities
7. In the *OBE* system, all evaluation is subjective; standardized testing is out and individually formulated methods of evaluation are used to determine when a student has reached the desired outcome. With this type of non-standard evaluation, it is unclear what is being measured, which student knows what, and what the test scores mean."

2.7 IMPORTANCE *SBCD* IN AN *OBE* FRAMEWORK?

Both *SBCD* and *OBE* are intertwined in the teaching-learning situation. In *SBCD, grade 1 teachers* have the authority to dictate terms in *curriculum development. Grade 1 teachers* are always in the forefront of the teaching-learning situation. Teachers always have high expectations of learners, irrespective of the pace at which they learn (Naicker 1999:89). As such, it is of vital importance for teachers to take part in the development of *OBE* as they are obviously the facilitators and implementers of *OBE* in the teaching-

learning situation. To address the importance of *SBCD* in an *OBE* framework, the elements of *curriculum* design will be used below.

2.7.1 Components of *curriculum* design

Curriculum design refers to the arrangement of its elements, which include *curriculum* intent (aims, goals and outcomes), content (subject matter), learning activities (teaching/learning strategies) and evaluation (assessment procedures) (Print 1993:73). Longstreet and Shane (1993:57) view *curriculum* design as the outcome of a process by which the purposes of education are linked to the selection and organisation of content. Content may be viewed as being in either a dynamic or a static state. Design may be referred to as a deliberate process of devising, planning and selecting the elements, techniques and procedures that constitute some objects (Morrison 1993:165). From these definitions it is quite evident that *curriculum* design identifies the elements of the *curriculum*, indicates what their relationships are to each other, and shows the administrative conditions under which the *curriculum* is to function (Finch and Crunkilton 1993:39).

2.7.1.1 Situation analysis

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:173) are of the viewpoint that "situation analysis refers to finding out information about the learners at the beginning of a lesson, year, et cetera. What do learners know? What are they interested in? What is their experience? How do they learn? "A situation analysis answers the 'WHAT' question? A situation analysis can be considered as the recognition of some school problem which then becomes a springboard for *curriculum development*" (see table 2.8).

TABLE 2.8 DECISION-MAKING IN THE *CURRICULUM* PROCESS

PROCESS	AGENCY	ROLE
Situational analysis	Teachers, heads of school departments, and school principal.....	D_1 D_2
	Learners.....	D_2
	Parents.....	D_2
	Consultants (local authority).....	A
	(college and university)	
	(other schools)	
	(research agencies)	
	Administration.....	S
Outcomes	Teachers.....	D_1
	Learners.....	D_2
	Parents.....	D_2
	Consultants.....	A
	National governments and government departments.....	A
	Project teams.....	S A D_2
	Administration.....	S
Design	Teachers.....	D_1
	Learners	D_2
	Parents.....	D_2 S A
	Consultants.....	A
	Project teams.....	S A D_2
Implementation	Teachers.....	D_1
	Learners.....	D_2
	Administration.....	S
Assessment	Teachers	D_1
	Learners.....	D_2
	Consultants.....	A
	Government departments.....	S A
	Administration.....	S

Key: S + Support; A = Advice; D_1 = Decision; D_2 = Discussion.

Brady (1990:112)

Krüger (1980:76), in support of Marsh (1992:79), shows that *"situasie analise behels die geheelsoorsig oor die terrein wat gedek will word in 'n bepaalde onderrigsekwens en die daaruit ontspringende doelstelling of voorneme met die onderrig."*

According to Print (1993:81) the process of examining the content for which a *curriculum* is to be developed and, the application of that analysis to *curriculum* planning, is called situation analysis.

Lumadi (1995:15) further indicates that a situation analysis is sometimes termed "diagnosis of needs". Although it might be much more than a diagnosis of needs, the process of diagnosis must be maintained throughout the whole of the planning and working out of the unit. He argues that though separate steps can be indicated for the purposes of analysis and discussion, there is no point at which one stops and the next begins.

Grade 1 teachers in *SBCD* may contribute positively through the introduction of *OBE* in seminars and workshops. Through these teachers, the problems of *SBCD* are diagnosed. Authority to developing the *curriculum* has been accorded to teachers, unlike the transitional *OBE* where the *curriculum* is disseminated to the consumers for implementation after a thorough consultation. This is a top down approach. For one to conduct a situation analysis, a *curriculum* developer should obey certain rules and regulations namely problem identification, selection of suitable aspects, data collection and analysis and recommendations which should be made. (See table 2.9).

TABLE 2.9 FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

EXTERNAL FACTORS TO THE SCHOOL	
1	*Cultural and social changes and expectations.* This includes major changes to society such as unemployment patterns, societal values, economic growth and family relationships. Parental, employment and community expectations of schools are included (e.g. the need for improved literacy and numeracy).
2	*Educational system requirements and challenges.* Includes systemic influences such as policy requirements, inquiry reports, external examinations,major *curriculum* projects and significant educational research.
3	*Changing nature of content.* The subject matter taught in schools requires constant revision to update it with developments in the outside world. Examples include new knowledge acquired, technological developments and new literature.
4	*Teacher support systems.* A variety of external systems can contribute to enhancing teaching/learning strategies, content updates, evaluation techniques, audio visual material and other resources. Support may come form tertiary institutions, educational institutes (ACER, CDC), local teacher centres, *curriculum* consultants/advisory teachers, in-service courses and subject associations (e.g. Science Teachers Association).
5	*Resources. Curriculum* developers need to be aware of the availability and flow of resources into the school. These may come from Commonwealth sources (Priority Schools Project, projects of national significance), State education departments, the community and business organisations.
INTERNAL FACTORS TO THE SCHOOL	
1	*Learners.* Significant data that may be gathered on learners include abilities, physical and psychological development, aptitudes, emotional and social development and educational needs. An accurate understanding of the nature of learners allows for effective *curriculum* planning.
2	*Teachers.* What are the skills, experience, teaching style, values and special strengths and weaknesses of a school teaching staff? Special strengths may broaden *curriculum* offering (e.g. aeronautics, horticulture, meditation) and allow for *curriculum* enrichment and extension.
3	*School ethos.* The school climate/environment is a significant factor influencing *curriculum* and includes principal *involvement*, power distribution, social cohesiveness, operational procedures and professional cohesiveness.
4	*Material resources.* What exactly does the school possess in terms of buildings, equipment, resources (books, *curriculum* materials), land and vehicles as well as financial resources for future purchases? Knowledge of resources facilities *curriculum* planning (e.g. can we offer horticulture, sewing and photography?).
5	*Perceived problems.* Major stimulus for *curriculum* change emanates from a perception of needs or problems. *Curriculum* planners ascertain these from parents, teachers, learners and the community. Needs-assessment techniques may be used.

Print (1993:84)

(a) Problem identification

In order to develop a school *curriculum*, one should be aware of learners' needs and interests. If a needs assessment technique is continuous, this may be helpful since the key components are related to a situation analysis, namely the learner, the teacher, the particular society and the instructional situation (Le Grange and Reddy 1998:34).

- **The learner**

According to *OBE* principles, the learner should always be at the centre of the *curriculum* process. All aspects of the learner's daily milieu should be borne in mind, for example socio-cultural, economic, affective and cognitive development. Significant data that may be gathered on students include abilities, physical and psychological development, aptitudes, emotional and social development and educational needs. An accurate understanding of the nature of learners allows for effective *curriculum* planning. In terms of *OBE,* learners progress into the next phase with their age cohorts (Naicker 1999:88).

- **The teacher**

Naicker (199:87) points out that the learners and the teacher are both very clear from the beginning about what the learner needs to demonstrate at the end of the learning experience. The following crucial issues are of cardinal importance when a teacher designs and develops a *curriculum*: professionalism, learning area specialization and teaching style. Support may come from tertiary institutions, educational institutes, local teacher centres, advisory teachers, in-service courses and subjects. These strengths broaden the *curriculum* offering and allow for *curriculum* enrichment (Print 1993:84).

- **Nature of society**

Vermeulen (1997:16) shows that society expects the *curriculum* to be up to date with current developments and future trends, especially as they are manifested in technology. An outdated *curriculum* is of no value to *SBCD*. Major changes in society such as unemployment rates, in this instance in South Africa, and family relationships should be dealt with when developing a relevant *curriculum* for a society. Cornbleth (1990:12) shows that in any attempt to provide an adequate *curriculum* in a period of rapid social change, it is necessary to understand the nature of society as it is and to extrapolate likely trends. The *curriculum* designer is bound to survey and interpret the nature of society and its basic stable values, and the areas in which it is changing.

- **The didactic situation**

The didactic situation is also termed the teaching-learning situation or classroom situation (Lumadi 1997:02). Some of the factors to be considered in a didactic situation are resources and funds for school's academic policy. In fact, *curriculum* developers need to be made aware of the availability of resources.

(a) Selection of suitable aspects

After identifying a problem, a *curriculum* designer and developer should address the factors in table 2.9.

(b) Data collection and analysis

Various techniques can be used to collect data. See table 2.10. The collected data should be analysed to determine their importance at a particular point in time.

TABLE 2.10 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

FACTOR	TECHNIQUES	DATA COLLECTED
Learners	Interviews	Learners' information and attitudes.
	School records	Background and achievement data.
	Systematic observation	Learners' behaviour patterns.
	Questionnaires	Learners' attitudes (large scale).
	External examination	Comparative student performance.
	Psychosocial environment	Learners' perceptions of classroom climate.
	Self-reporting scales	Learners' attitudes.
Teachers	Anecdotal records	Information on teacher behaviour and attitudes.
	Staff profiles	Records of staff skills and abilities.
	Questionnaires	Teacher attitudes.
School ethos	Systematic observation	Impression of school climate.
	Psychosocial environment	Aggregated classroom climate.
	Interviews	Learners/teacher/parent attitudes.
Resources	Inventory Checklist Systematic observation	Listing of school resources. Impression of school resources.

Print (1993:87)

(c) **Recommendations**

Recommendations guide the *curriculum* designer and developer in the development of *curriculum* intent, content, activities and evaluation.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:14) propound that the teacher must first analyse the learner's needs, for instance, the learner's entry level in terms of foreknowledge, level of proficiency, interests, et cetera. Instructional design for each learner is an ongoing process of observation, reflection and analysis.

SBCD must, ideally, form the basis of a situation analysis. In the *OBE* context relevant stakeholders in education such as teachers, parents, community, learners and many others share the responsibility for learning. This notion is well supported by Brady (1990:05) in his definition of *SBCD,* where he advocates that different stakeholders must be co-operating partners, both in *curriculum development* and implementation. Print (1993:22), too, emphasizes that parents and the community, teachers as well as learners may be easily involved in meaningful *curriculum* planning. This shows that *SBCD,* like *OBE,* encourages people to share decisions democratically.

Carl (1995:2) observes that in order to optimize the teaching and learning situation in the school and classroom, teachers and pupils should be empowered with regard to the process of *curriculum development.* However, empowerment does not mean unrestrained and unstructured actions, but in fact enhances the learning outcome, and other experiences developing the learner.

The empowerment of teachers in *SBCD* is their autonomy to exercise their craft, for instance by means of *OBE*, especially in transformational *OBE*, where the *curriculum development* assumes that the learner needs something that can be met by the instructional process being planned. Learners too, should be empowered by *OBE,* as it encourages them to be active and to think reflectively and abstractly.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:14) maintain that careful planning is vital for successful teaching in *OBE.* This argument implies that in *OBE* one cannot teach effectively unless there is thorough preparation. A relevant *curriculum* addresses the needs and interests of learners.

2.7.1.2 *Curriculum* intent

It is imperative to point out that aims and goals are interpreted differently by various scholars. Goals and aims are long-term intentions, whereas objectives refer to school-term intentions.

Curriculum intent is a term which incorporates the various forms of aims, goals, objectives and outcomes found in *curriculum* documents. Together they will hopefully be achieved by learners as they interact with the *curriculum*. As such, aims, goals, objectives and outcomes provide guidance to teachers and developers (Print 1993:92).

Vermeulen (1997:17) indicates that the question of "why" a particular learning area is selected seeks clarity regarding the aims (outcomes) of the *curriculum*. This usually refers to the specific knowledge (learning content), skills and attitudes that the *curriculum* aims at. To avoid confusion to readers, aims, goals, objectives and outcomes will be defined separately.

(a) Aims

Krüger and Müller (1990:39) define aims as the long-term educational intent. They are an essential component of long-term *curriculum* planning. Lumadi (1995:20), in support of Krüger and Müller (1990:39), argues that aims are written only for those learning situations that pursue the end results in the long term, and should not be written for situations whose results cannot be foreseen. They are written so as to express and emphasize their continuity, making it possible to translate them into specific learning environments and activities. These guide teaching and learning and if they do not comply with the proviso, they are regarded as worthless.

Aims are broadly phrased statements of educational intent. They state what is hopefully to be achieved by the *curriculum*. They are purposely stated vaguely because they are developed for a general level of education and by society (Print 1993:93).

Teaching and learning are intentional activities. This means that they are not performed randomly, but with a particular aim in mind. The instructional activities are not only planned, but also guided and assessed by means of explicitly formulated and instructionally justified aims. The outcomes in *OBE* that must be considered and striven

for in a particular teaching-learning situation, follow from the situation analysis which precedes reflection on the particular situation (Vermeulen 1997:17).

(b) Goals

Print (93:93) indicates that goals are more specific, precisely worded statements of *curriculum* intent and are derived from aims. Usually phrased in non-technical language, goals are directed towards student achievement by emphasizing content and skills. Goals are medium to long term depending upon how they have been translated from aims.

According to Marsh (1992:85) goals are more precise statements of *curriculum* interest. Educational goals are written, operational statements of the outcomes of education (Finch and Crunkilton 1993:177).

Parkay and Hass (1993:98) regard goals as properly determined when the demands of society, the characteristics of the students, and the potential contributions of the various fields of knowledge have been taken into consideration. Geyser (1992:62) shows that *"met doelstelling word die ideale mikpunt van die kurrikulum bedoel."* Without educational goals, the translation of general goals into programmes is likely to be haphazard (Wiles and Bondi 1998:84).

(c) Objectives

Longstreet and Shane (1993:59) maintain that outcomes represent the analysis and transformation of goals, into actions believed to support the achievement of the goals. Objectives are also viewed as specific statements which are short (Marsh 1992:85). Doll (1992:206) stresses that if objectives are written in a way which indicates what the course is intended to achieve, they do not have the same usefulness as guides to planning or as a basis for assessment techniques.

Lumadi (1995:23) argues that aims, goals and objectives play a vital part in the development of curricula and in instruction and assessment. The ideal position regarding this principle is for teachers to have a fairly wide range of objectives which are clearly and precisely expressed. Objectives may also be seen as short term in nature and as such, may cover a month, a day, a week, a term or a semester (see table 2.11).

TABLE 2.11 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AIMS, GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

CRITERIA	AIMS	GOALS	OBJECTIVES
1. Definition	vague, generally phrased statements of what should be achieved by curricula.	More precisely phrased statements of curricula intent derived from aims.	Specific statements of program intent, derived from goals.
2. Expression	Broadly phrased, non-technical language.	Generally phrased in non-technical language although more precise than aims.	Phrased in technical language, using precise key words, may use behavioural terms.
3. Time	Long term, usually covering many years.	Medium to long term, depending upon how they are translated from aims.	Short term, may cover a lesson, a day, a week, a term or a semester.
4. Stated by	Society through forms such as politicians, education systems, major inquiries, pressure groups.	Education authorities at system, region and subject level *curriculum* committees, school policy documents.	Classroom teachers individually, groups of teachers. Some *curriculum* documents (unit objectives).
5. Examples	Schools should enhance learners self-concepts.	Learners will examine South African *curriculum*.	Given pen and paper learners will analyse the role if *curriculum*
	Learners should be familiar with mathematical and computer skills.	Learners will construct three pieces of furniture employing woodworking skills.	Learners will draw a map with nine provinces of South Africa on a prepared outline.
	Learners should appreciate the role of the skilled trades person in society (TAFE).	Learners will understand reading readiness procedures.	Learners will know the correct use of capital letters.

Brady (1992:14)

Freysen (1991:30) *et al.* show that when formulating outcomes it is necessary first to determine globally what must be achieved, after which the learning content achievement must be delineated before it is, finally, expressed by the specific nature of the learning content. The phases proceed as follows:

- *Overview phase:* during it, one must look at inter alia, **who** the target group is, **what** must be learnt, **how** it must be learnt, **when** it must be learnt and for **how long** it must be learnt as well as the methods, techniques and media to be used.
- *Delineation phase:* here, one must determine within which learning area or domain (cognitive, affective or psychomotor), or combination of learning areas, the learning achievements fall.
- *Expression phase:* learning achievement is embodied in the learning content by means of significant facts, concepts, relationships, structures, methods, skills, values and attitudes. In brief, features of effective objectives are comprehensiveness, consistency, attainability, suitability, validity and specificity.

The question should be posed: what will be the results or outcomes of my teaching. There is no doubt about the fact that *SBCD*, like *OBE,* caters for the needs of learners. In *OBE* what a learner is to learn is clearly identified beforehand. In *SBCD* a teacher should always have a *curriculum* intent in advance. There is a clear focus on culminating outcomes of significance. Each learner is provided with time and assistance to realize his or her demonstrated achievement. In *OBE* each learner's needs are accommodated through multiple teaching and learning strategies, and assessment tools, and lastly each learner is provided the time for assistance to realize his or her potential (*Curriculum* 2005:17).

Print (1993:21) argues that *SBCD* implies teacher participation. This may be only teachers or other groups as well, but teachers have the most significant input. In fact, the benefits of both *SBCD* and *OBE* are no less impressive. They can help to advance *curriculum* ownership. Teachers will become partners in the system and not merely the conducts through which a *curriculum* is transmitted. They will have encouragement and

every opportunity to expose and nurture the best talents of those in care. *OBE* is evolved from educational objectives, competency-based education, mastery learning and criterion-referenced assessment. Furthermore, *OBE* is based on knowledge to be acquired or discovered. In *SBCD* too explain, teachers will have skills to be mastered and attitudes and values to be formed.

2.7.1.3 *Curriculum* content

According to Freysen (1991:31) the teacher uses selected learning content to unlock an aspect of reality for the learner. After the teacher has determined which aspect of reality he or she wants to unlock, he or she must determine what content will be representative of the whole. He must also decide how he can present the content as simply as possible to the learner.

Selection and organisation of the content of a *curriculum* involve criteria other than outcomes, such as validity and significance, and the making of proper distinctions between the various levels of content (Longstreet and Shane 1993:70).

Brady (1990:12) claims that content is sometimes selected because it is necessary to the understanding of something else. Krüger (1980:75) says *"geselekteerde en geordende leerinhoud is 'n voorwaarde vir effektiewe onderrig en leer."* Geyser (1992:69), in support of Krüger, states that *"onderring en leer is ondenkbaar sonder inhoud."* Consequently many teachers tend to think in terms of what content students should learn, and of what content is of value to learners, when they begin to plan for *curriculum development* (Print 1993:107). *OBE* goes beyond the context beyond the content centred approach since it focuses on the learner-centred design model which addresses outcomes.

Content should meet the following criteria: validity, significance, interest and learning ability (Beane 1990:70). Print (1993:111) goes a step further by including social relevance and utility.

After the learning content reduction a decision must be made as to how to order it. The following principles have become increasingly acceptable as criteria for sequencing content:

- Simple to complex
- Prerequisite learning
- Chronology
- Whole to part learning
- Spiral sequencing.

SBCD is of paramount importance in the *OBE* framework, in that teachers should always be selective when it comes to the choice of learning content. The teacher should ensure that the learning content to be selected should meet the needs and interests of learners. It should function as a means to facilitate the learner's achievement of learning outcomes.

This is where Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:14) indicate that in *OBE* teachers are forced to plan and prepare with a clear instructional purpose in mind. The learning outcomes guide the teacher's content selection and strategic planning.

The role of the teacher cannot be by-passed by either the administrator or *curriculum* developer because they have to teach what they selected. A decision about *curriculum development* could theoretically be made by the Minister of Education, but at the end the teacher's *involvement* does not mean that he or she is a teacher of the *curriculum*. Rather, it suggests that *SBCD* is incomplete without the teacher's input (Carl 1995:82).

Bhatt (1996:260) says that a satisfactory climate for student participation can be facilitated by democratic administrator-teacher relationships and by means of flexible teaching guides. The teacher has to start at the level on which the learners in the class can think and work co-operatively and move to higher levels, in terms of the maturity level of the group and its growth in the ability to assume greater responsibility.

For *OBE* to become a success, a teacher must therefore be able to prioritise, that is, determine what is most important and what is less important (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:48).

2.7.1.4 Learning opportunities

The question of what is taught focuses on the learning content selected and organized for the purpose of attaining the aims or outcomes of the *curriculum*. The selection of learning content involves singling out and demarcating the content that may contribute meaningfully towards achieving the aims or outcomes (Vermeulen 1997:17). Learning opportunities may be defined as those activities offered to learners in the teaching-learning situation, designed to enable learners to achieve the stated outcomes. This would include all teaching or instructional, strategies as well as those methods by which students may learn by themselves within the classroom (Print 1993:125).

The planning of learning opportunities for someone is viewed as an important teaching skill (Grunnigs 1990:81). Vermeulen (1997:17) shows that the question of how the learning content should be taught requires information regarding the opportunities and activities appropriate for teaching the selected learning content, in order to reach the predetermined outcomes. The teacher creates certain learning opportunities on the basis of his or her knowledge of *curriculum* theory and design (macro-structure), his knowledge of the learners, his or her knowledge of the learning area and the subject structure (micro-structure), as well as on the basis of the aims, objectives and outcomes that are to be pursued (Freysen 1991:33).

Categorising teaching-learning situations in terms of the dominant type of learning opportunity entails the identification of the nature of the learning content which is to be expected. Learning opportunity thus refers to what the teacher does to facilitate learning within the learner. In other words, it simply denotes what is offered to learners and how the teacher imparts content and provides opportunities for learners to acquire that content.

Criteria for selecting learning opportunities are *curriculum* intentions or outcomes, learner appropriateness, resources and constraints, while the criteria for organising learning opportunities are continuity, sequence and integration.

Brady (1991:04) is of the notion that *SBCD* is one of the constituents of the school structure because it has a very strong relationship with all the activities that are done to improve the internal school function. There must be relevancy to what other groups are doing in the development of such *curriculum,* e.g. the values and norms of the community should be taken into account. The roles played by different groups are also relevant in *SBCD.*

Bush *et al.* (1993:19) reiterate that teachers are commonly believed to possess a high level of professional autonomy. Equally, they are often held responsible, either collectively or individually, for the events in their classrooms and for the effects of their teaching.

SBCD implies effective teacher *involvement*, i.e. if other groups are playing a role, the teacher's role is significant because he or she is the one who is constantly in contact with learners. Teachers themselves may well have a set of personal beliefs about the nature of teaching and how they should carry out their work, but in the process of translating these into action, other factors frequently seem to have a powerful effect upon the outcome. If teachers' practice is indeed at least partly determined by the context in which they work, it is imperative for teachers and other *curriculum* developers to discover the significant features of this context and the process by which their influence is exerted (Shiundu and Omulando 1992:215).

According to Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:92) an effectively managed work-oriented classroom is likely to be orderly and quiet, like a well oiled machine. Learners in work oriented classrooms will be more likely to construct knowledge, and obedience is valued in these classroom. Taking responsibility for one's own learning is valued in the learning-oriented classroom.

A school which operates upon the basis of individual freedom for the teacher, with little or no concerted planning and action, loses its finest opportunity to live democratically and to refine its programme through the pooling of the intelligence of all members of staff. But a school which is alert to its responsibility for meeting the needs of youth is engaged continuously in the process of *curriculum* reorganization. Every time a teacher utilizes new materials, plans with the learner for new types of learning activities he or she is engaging in *curriculum* development (Bauer and Sapona 1994:93).

2.7.1.5 Learning experience

Learning experience is characterized by interaction between the learner and the learning content. During this interaction the learner obtains knowledge and practices skills (Vermeulen 1997:17). Freysen (1991:33) claims that learning experiences must be seen as learning opportunities that are utilised by the learners to make the learning content their own. This therefore means that learning experiences are opportunities for the learner to convert the elementals to fundamentals. The accepted premise is that learning experience is a prerequisite to learning (Lumadi 1995:29).

In terms of *OBE*, the critical cross-field outcomes or specific outcomes guide educators in drawing up learning programmes, teaching or learning experiences (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:49). This is a good time for students to write about their progress and to share their findings and thoughts with others. According to Bhatt (1996:304) the degree of maturity of the students will determine the activities to be undertaken and the extent to which various areas are to be explored. In selecting learning experiences the teacher and students should examine carefully the suggested activities which relate to the theme of the learning unit.

In a rapidly changing environment educators will have to update their professional and subject content knowledge regularly, so that they continue to develop appropriate and useful learning experience in their learners (*Curriculum* 2005 1998:13).

2.7.1.6 Evaluation and assessment

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:169) state that evaluation is the process of making a decision about the learning of the learner, using information gained from formal and informal assessment. They continue to say that evaluation requires that one should make a judgement about learners' knowledge, learners' behaviour or performance, or learners' values or attitudes. Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which the outcomes and assumptions of the *curriculum* have actually been achieved. In particular, evaluation reflects upon and provides value judgements concerning the quality and the effectiveness of didactic activities (Vermeulen 1997:17).

Geyser (1992:92) indicates that *"die begrip evaluering kan verwys na die bepaling van leerlingprestasie en die toekenning van punte, maar dit kan ook verwys na evaluering van die kurrikulum self."* Lumadi (1995:30) says that evaluation enables us to compare the actual outcomes with the expected outcomes, otherwise it is impossible to know whether objectives or outcomes have been achieved, and if so, to what extent (Suen and Ary 1990:110).

In lesson planning, definite teaching and learning outcomes are set which must be achieved. In order to determine to what extent the outcomes have been achieved, and how successful a lesson has been, assessment must be carried out. Both the learner's achievement and the teacher's actions must be assessed throughout the lesson and at its conclusion. (See chapter 6 item 6.2.1.2 paragraph (f).)

Freysen (1991:35) views evaluation as a complex and often subjective activity in which various factors are considered in order to arrive at a qualitative assessment. Various concepts related to evaluation are measuring, testing, examining, norm-referenced and criterion-referenced. Three types of assessment are identified, namely diagnostic, formative and summative evaluation. To avoid confusion, a brief description of each type follows:

(a) Formative assessment

Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:24) stress that formative assessment gives information in order to help learners to grow and to make progress. Formative assessment is directed towards determining the degree of mastery during a learning task and to pinpoint that part of the task not mastered (Print, 1993:154). Good examples of this assessment are questions during the lesson, and group work monitored and given feedback on the spot. Formative assessment, also termed continuous or ongoing assessment, helps the teacher to adapt teaching strategies and methods during the lesson time in order to effect greater understanding and learning. Formative assessment therefore has a "teaching" function (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:171).

(b) Summative assessment

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:38) point out that this involves traditional formal testing and is used to provide information about a learner's knowledge of content at a given time. Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:172) note that summative evaluation is usually conducted at the end of a lesson, a unit or a course. It offers an opportunity for some learners to demonstrate what they have learnt. Summative tests can measure learner outcomes, but are unfortunately often only used to test learner's recall of knowledge, e.g. mid-year examinations or end of year examinations. Summative evaluation, also termed final assessment, can thus be viewed as a general assessment of the degree to which the larger outcomes have been attained, over the entire course, to indicate progress. In a nutshell, summative assessment is used to report to others about the achievements of a learner (Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:24).

(c) Diagnostic assessment

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:171) show that when diagnostic assessment is used prior to one's teaching or at the beginning of a lesson, it provides one with planning information. Diagnostic evaluation is directed towards two purposes, or to discover the

underlying cause of deficiencies in student learning, as instruction unfolds (Print 1993:154). Diagnostic evaluation, also termed identification evaluation, diagnoses the nature and extent of possible teaching and learning problems.

In a nutshell, the above types of evaluation mean that teachers make use of decisions before, during and at the end of the course for detailed information (see table 2.12).

TABLE 2.12. TYPES OF EVALUATION

	FORMATIVE	**DIAGNOSTIC**	**SUMMATIVE**
Function	*Analysis of learning units. Feedback to learners and diagnosis of difficulties. *Feedback to teachers and quality control. *Forecasting summative evaluation result.	*Diagnosis of prerequisite entry behaviour and skills. *Diagnosis to determine the extent of prior mastery of course objectives. * Placement diagnosis for alternative curricula.	*Assignment grades. *Certification of skills and abilities. *Prediction of future success. * Initiation of subsequent learning. Feedback to learners. Comparing outcomes of different groups.
Emphasis	*Cognitive entry behaviour. *Affective entry characteristics.	Cognitive and affective behaviours. Physical, psychological and environmental factors.	*Cognitive outcomes. *Affective outcomes. *Rate of learning. Type of achievement.
Time	*At frequent intervals: whether or not preliminary instruction is complete.	*For placement. Before commencing a unit of learning. *During instruction when a learner reveals repeated inability to profit from the learning experiences.	*Generally, at the end of a unit of learning. *More frequently at progressive stages in a course of study (i.e. continuous assessment of developmental stages in learning).
Type of instruments	*Instruments constructed to test the essential elements of a unit: e.g. *Teacher made tests, work samples, interviews, checklists, and rating scales.	*Standardised achievement tests. *Standardised diagnostic tests. *Teacher-made instruments. *Observations and checklists.	*Final summative examinations, * unit progress tests, * work samples, *self- reports.

Brady (1992:17)

Bhatt (1996:296) indicates that in planning the method of assessment individually and in groups, each member can evaluate his or her learning habits and thus, more effectively, set for himself or herself a plan to improve his or her ability to use techniques of learning.

SBCD is a continuing and dynamic process wherein support structures such as advisers and specialists are necessary in order to keep the process ongoing. *OBE,* like *SBCD,* emphasises that evaluation should take place on an ongoing basis. *SBCD* should be sustainable and subject to change like other curricula. South African teachers should develop a *curriculum* that correlates with the recent approach of *OBE.* Both *SBCD* and *OBE* complement each other. The skills, knowledge and values accumulated should always be revisited in order to be up to date.

2.8 SYNTHESIS

In summary, *SBCD* is a way of decentralising educational control. Here the whole process of development is the responsibility of the teachers, learners, parents and the community. These are the relevant stakeholders who must be involved right from scratch until the implementation stage. In *OBE* all individual learners must be allowed to learn to their full potential. This means that both teachers and learners must have high expectations for successful learning on the part of all learners regardless of background, provisions, achievement, age, sex, learning style etc (Van der Horst and McDonald 1997:7). If one wants the foregoing issues to be related to *SBCD* it means that teachers and learners need to work together co-operatively and collaboratively for them to realize the real outcomes that they need to achieve. *SBCD* can only be successfully carried out when situation analyses and needs assessments have been conducted. The *curriculum* developer can thus come up with the solutions and a plan of action, strategies that will make training of the school teachers and their principal more closely linked to needs, so that barriers to implementation will be removed. Both *SBCD* and *OBE* empower teachers and learners to be responsible for their education.

Chapter 3 will address qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in SBCD.

CHAPTER THREE

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH AS A STRATEGY TO ADDRESS PROBLEMS IN *SCHOOL-BASED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT (SBCD)*

Aim of chapter 3: Chapter 2 focused on SBCD and OBE while the aim of chapter 3 is to examine qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in SBCD. Qualitative research is preferred in this study because it assesses the quality of findings and it is also concerned with process rather than outcomes.

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The term qualitative research refers to any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other empirical means of quantification. It can also refer to research about persons' lives, stories, behavior, but also about organisational functioning, social movements, or interactional relationships. Some of the data may be quantified, as with census data, but the analysis itself is a qualitative one. Actually, the term qualitative research means different things to different people. Many researchers gather data by means of interview and observation techniques; these are normally associated with qualitative methods (Strauss and Corbin 1990:17).

There is no standard approach among qualitative researchers. For instance, Marshall and Rossman (1990:10) list six different qualitative symbolic interactions. These all share a commitment to naturally occurring data, as each interaction assumes that systematic inquiry must occur in a natural setting, rather than in an artificially constrained one such as an experiment. However, Marshall and Rossman further recognise a wide variation between various approaches. The approaches vary, depending on how intrusive the researcher is required to be in the gathering of data, whether these data document non-verbal or verbal behaviour or both, whether it is appropriate to question the participants as to how they view their worlds, and how the data can be fruitfully and effectively analysed (Marshall and Rossman 1990:11).

Gay (1996:208) states that qualitative research can best be "defined" by describing what it entails, together with its rationale. Qualitative research involves data collection, that is a collection of extensive data on many variables over an extended period of time in a naturalistic setting. Holloway (1997:01) maintains that qualitative research is a form of social inquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experience and the world in which they live. A number of different approaches exist within the wider framework of this type of research, but most of these have the same aim: to understand the social reality of individuals, groups and cultures. Researchers use qualitative approaches to explore the behaviour, perspectives and experiences of the people they study. The basis of qualitative research lies in the interpretative approach to social reality.

Qualitative methods consist of three kinds of data collection: in-depth open-ended interviews, direct observation and written documents including such sources as open-ended written items on questionnaires, personal diaries and programme records. The data from open-ended interviews consists of direct quotations from people about their experiences, day to day activities, opinions, feelings and knowledge. The data from observation consists of detailed descriptions of program activities, participants' behaviour, staff actions and the full range of human interactions that can be part of programme experiences (Patton 1992:07).

Qualitative research relies on observation of interaction and interviews with participants to discover patterns and their meanings. (Compare chapter 4 items 4.1.1-4.1.3). These patterns and meanings form the basis for generalisation. Such patterns and meanings are then tested through further observation and questioning. Approximately ten important aspects of qualitative research can be identified, namely: naturalistic inquiry, inductive analysis, holistic perspective, qualitative data, personal contact and insight, dynamic system, unique case orientation, context sensitivity, empathic neutrality and design flexibility (Gay 1996:41).

Although the researcher will make mention of quantitative research in this study, qualitative research will be preferred because it assesses the quality of things. This is supported by Reaves (1992:16) who propounds that qualitative researchers are primarily concerned with the process rather than mere outcomes of products. The qualitative research in this study focuses on the experience of *grade 1 teachers* as it is lived and felt in their *involvement* with *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*.

3.2 AN INTRODUCTION TO QUALITATIVE METHODS

Leedy (1993:141) indicates that qualitative research becomes reliable because of its coherence, insight and instrumental quality. Qualitative evaluation data begin as raw, descriptive information about programme and people in programme. The evaluator visits the programme to make firsthand observations of programme activities, sometimes even engaging personally in those activities as a "participant observer." The evaluator talks with participants and staff about their experiences, attitudes, opinions and perceptions. Records and documents are usually also examined. The data from these interviews, observations, and documents are then organised into major themes, categories, and case examples through content analysis.

Dunn, Norton, Stewart, Tudiver and Bass (1994:65) stress that report only aggregate demographic information as ages in ranges. Determining who participated in the study, and who did not, is then only a matter of elimination for those familiar with the research setting. A typical qualitative evaluation report will provide the following:

- detailed description of programme implementation;
- analysis of major program processes;
- description of different types of participants and different kinds of participation;
- descriptions on how the programme has affected participants;
- observed changes (or lack thereof), outcomes, and impacts; and
- analysis of programme strengths and weaknesses as reported by people interviewed (e.g., participants, staff, funders and key informants in the community).

Herbert (1992:134) shows that conventional reporting includes the development of monographs that are available on demand from participants and other interested parties, whether or not peer reviewed publication occurs. Qualitative evaluation data thus may be presented alone or in combination with quantitative data. Recent developments in the evaluation profession have led to an increase in the use of multiple methods, including combinations of qualitative and quantitative data.

Colin (1993:371) identifies types of qualitative analysis. He produced a useful if complex typology of qualitative analyses. A total of twenty-six different kinds of approaches to qualitative research are distinguished and they are reduced to four basic groupings: where interest is in the characteristics of language, the discovery of regularities, the comprehension of the meaning of the text or action and reflection.

Leedy (1993:140) stresses that qualitative methodology should be an alternative to the experimental method. Four major methods used by qualitative researchers are identified: observation, content analysis, interviews, and recording and transcribing. These four methods are often combined. For instance, many case studies combine observation with interviewing. (See chapter 4 item 4.1.2.1). Moreover, each method can be used in either qualitative or quantitative research studies. Refer to Table 3.1 for the overall nature of the research methodology which shapes how each method is utilised effectively.

Table 3.1: Different uses for four methods

	Methodology	
Method	**Quantitative research**	**Qualitative research**
Observation	Preliminary work, e.g. prior to framing questionnaire	Fundamental to understanding another culture
Textual analysis	Content analysis, i.e. counting in terms of researchers' categories	Understanding participants' categories
Interviews	'Survey research': mainly fixed choice questions to random samples	'Open-ended' questions to small samples
Transcripts	Used infrequently to check the accuracy of interview records	Used to understand how participants organise their talk

Adapted from Silverman (1994:09)

Methods are ways which take on a specific meaning according to the methodology in which they are used. In qualitative research, small numbers of texts and documents may be analysed for a very different purpose. The aim is to understand the participants' categories and to see how these are used in concrete activities such as telling stories. Critics argue that researchers employing this method assume that they already know what is important. The reliability of the analysis is less frequently addressed. Instead, qualitative researchers make claims about their ability to reveal the local practices through which given "end-products" are assembled (May 1997:133).

Dooley (1990:07) shows that interviews are peculiar verbal interactional exchanges in which one person (interviewer) attempts to elicit information from another. Interviews are commonly used in both methodologies. Quantitative researchers administer interviews or questionnaires to random samples of the population; this is referred to as "survey research." "Fixed-choice" questions are usually preferred because the answers they produce lend themselves to simple tabulation, unlike "open-ended" questions which produce answers which need to be subsequently coded.

Both open-ended and close-ended questions will be utilised in this kind of study to establish the extent to which *grade 1 teachers* are involved in *SBCD*. "Authenticity" rather than reliability is often the issue in qualitative research. The aim is usually to gather an "authentic" understanding of people's experiences and it is believed that "open-ended" questions are the most effective route towards this end. So, for instance, in gathering life histories or in interviewing parents of handicapped children, people may simply be asked: "tell me your story." Qualitative interview studies are often conducted with small samples, and the interviewer-interviewee relationship may be defined in political rather than scientific terms (Silverman 1994:10).

Finally, transcripts of audio-recordings are rarely used in quantitative research, probably because of the assumption that they are difficult to quantify. The researcher will not use them because they are inappropriate to his study. Conversely, audio-recordings are an increasingly important part of qualitative research. Transcripts of such recordings, based on standardised conventions, provide an excellent record of "naturally occurring" interaction. Compared to field notes of observational data, transcripts and recordings can offer a reliable record to which researchers return as they develop new hypotheses.

This rather abstract presentation can now be made more concrete by examining a number of qualitative studies using each method. As with any observational study, the aim is to gather first-hand information about social processes in a 'naturally occurring' context. An attempt will be made to interview the *grade 1 teachers* concerned because the focus is upon what they actually do in the environment, rather than upon what they think about what they do in *SBCD*.

In summary, it is worth pointing out that *curriculum development* must recognise the importance of both process and product. This is the process of developing the *curriculum*, of the *curriculum* plan being developed, and of the instructional process to be generated by *grade 1 teachers*.

3.2.1 Types of qualitative methods

3.2.1.1 Participant observation

Spindler (1992: 64) indicates that participant observation is frequently possible in traditional anthropological fieldwork. In *participant observation* the researcher studies an organization or a group by becoming a part of the organization or group. This *involvement* can either be *open* or *disguised.* That is, in some cases, the researcher openly becomes associated with the group for the purpose of studying the group; in other cases the researcher hides the true reasons for *involvement.* Sometimes, the person doing the research is already a member of the group, as the researcher would be if he or she were to study the organisation for which he or she works. (See chapter 4 paragraph 4.1.3).

The choice of whether to select open or disguised participation depends upon the situation. Ethically, it may seem better to make it clear to group members who a researcher is and what the researcher is doing. This approach certainly makes it easier to take notes and ask questions. There is no need to concoct a cover study that seemingly explains a researcher's desire to be part of the group. Group members may be more willing to co-operate with the researcher and explain group interactions if they know that one is a researcher. Sometimes there is no choice except to be open about what the researcher is doing.

Bogdewic (1992:55) stresses that observation is the more passive dimension of the participants' observer role. By definition, being a participant denotes some form of active *involvement.* Doing observational research covertly, however, has some drawbacks. From an ethical point of view, the researcher's participation may be uncomfortable. Furthermore, once the researcher has been accepted as a bona fide member of the group, he or she may change the interaction of the group by his or her own interactions with it. For example, suppose that employees of the firm the researcher has joined for covert research purposes want to form a union to act in their interest. If the researcher's position has placed him at the executive level, as a company employee, he should pass on this

information to the top executives, who will probably do everything in their power to squash the unionisation attempt. If the researcher is at the clerical level, he or she may be asked to provide leadership or at least support for the union drive. Either way, the researcher will be under pressure to be more than a passive observer.

Ethically, the researcher can find himself or herself in difficulty whether he or she enters into an observational research situation overtly or covertly. Let us say that one is studying about a high failure rate for *grade 1 learners* in the *Northern Province*. To level criticisms against *grade 1 teachers* as those responsible for the high failure rate in the *Northern Province* is a serious allegation.

There is no better way than participant observation to become sensitised to a particular social group or social process. By becoming part of the group, the researcher learns to see the world from the perspective of the group. Actions taken by group members that would seem puzzling or illogical from an outside perspective could make sense when viewed from the special perspective of the group. Observation by participants requires prolonged periods of intensive social interaction between the researcher and subject and can take more than a year to complete (Zyzanski, McWhinney, Blake, Miller and Crabtree 1992:234).

This method is viable because the researcher would be involved in *SBCD* with *grade 1 teachers*. The *grade 1* learners for whom the *curriculum* is intended are a prime consideration in the process of *curriculum* design and development. The principle of individualisation is warranted because learners are unique as individuals. It is the various areas of intelligence quotients that call for a suitable approach to developing the *curriculum,* as well as to actual implementation once a *curriculum* is operationalized. This can be detected once a researcher becomes an active participant.

3.2.1.2 Case Studies

Miller and Crabtree (1992:05) indicate that case studies examine most or all of the potential aspects of a particular distinctly bounded unit or case. The term case study is often used as a synonym for participant observation. Case study analysis involves an effort to use qualitative research to identify the processes that lead to one type of outcome. In social science jargon, participant observation studies examine many separate independent and many dependent variables. Case study analysis generally involves one dependent variable but many independent variables. In an investigation of the *grade 1s'* high failure rate, for example, a participant observation study would involve efforts to understand the culture of teaching and learning in the context. Who is involved? How are they involved? Which part do they play in their *involvement*? Do *grade 1 teachers* socialise with their learners? Do they create a relaxed atmosphere in their classrooms? Are they not monsters in the teaching-learning situation? In contrast, in a case study, the researcher might try to answer one specific question, such as how *grade 1 teachers* are involved in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*.

The *involvement* of the *grade 1 teachers* is thus a dependent variable. Independent variables might include the culture of teaching and learning in that particular year, the amount of effort department officials expend in restoring the tarnished culture of teaching and learning and so forth. Long-term participant observation studies often contain individual case studies, meant to answer specific questions. In applied research, the same programme may be observed in many different locations in order to find out if there is a common underlying cause for the problems with the programme. Sometimes a team of applied researchers will visit several locations, and observe and talk to, people operating programme at these locations; these trips are called site visits (May 1997:133).

Leedy (1993:186) shows that a case study lies midway between the descriptive and survey method and the experimental method. Case studies become particularly useful where one needs to understand some particular problems or situation in great depth, and where one can identify cases rich in information - rich in the sense that a great deal can be learned from a few examples of the phenomenon in question. For example, a great

deal can often be learned about how to improve an instructional program by studying select dropouts, failures or successes.

Case studies are particularly valuable when the evaluation aims to capture individuals' differences or unique variations from one programme setting to another, or from one program experience to another. A case could be a person, an event, a programme, a time period, a critical incident or a community. Regardless of the unit of analysis, a qualitative case study seeks to describe that unit in depth, in detail, in context, and holistically. Case study design, because of its flexibility and adaptability to a range of contexts, provides some of the most useful methods available in educational research. Case study allows the researcher to contribute to the development of research based knowledge. More data regarding case studies will be provided at a later stage. Data sources that may be used in a case study approach are usually of various types:

* interviews of various people or participants in the setting who are involved in the phenomenon of study;
* documents such as minutes of meetings, newspaper accounts, and observations of the phenomenon in action.

The more a programme aims at individualised outcomes, the greater the appropriateness of qualitative case methods. The more a programme emphasises common outcomes for all participants, the greater may be the appropriateness of standardised quantitative measures of performance and change (Jennett 1994:104). A case study is more appropriate in *SBCD*. In a school setup, the rate of absorption in *grade 1 learners* is grossly affected by individual differences in mental ability; learners in one area, e.g. *Northern Province,* may be disadvantaged because of earlier environmental deprivation, and as a result may not be as quick in grasping learning materials as those whose environment prior to, and during, school attendance was more favourable. Creation of a conducive learning atmosphere helps deprived *grade 1 learners* to improve in their day to day academic activities.

3.2.1.3 Focused Interviews

According to May (1997:112) a focused interview is a way of gathering qualitative data by asking respondents specific questions concerning social processes or behaviours of interest. This research tool may be employed as part of a participant observation study, as part of a case study, or by itself. Unlike a structured or semi-structured interview, in which respondents must answer closed-ended questions by choosing one of several predetermined responses, a focused interview is an open-ended approach. That is, the respondent is free to answer the questions in his or her own words, either briefly or at length, but more importantly the respondent should think reflectively. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.1.1).

A focused interview is much freer in form than any survey interview. Although the researcher will have worked out in advance the particular topics that will be raised in the questions, the questions themselves are not written down in a formal questionnaire. For any particular social issue being researched, the topics covered in a focused interview may vary from person to person and from interview to interview (Spindler 1992:80).

It is through these focused interviews that the researcher was able to examine and note stumbling blocks prevalent in various schools in *Northern Province*. These are stumbling blocks which make change in positive directions rather difficult; the purpose was that *grade 1 teachers* could understand how these stumbling blocks originate as well as how they could be dealt with accordingly. *Grade 1 teachers* have to promote democratic values through *curricula* that will develop in the learners the attitude of mind and value systems that are conducive to the maintenance of democracy.

Table 3.2. Basic forms of qualitative research

	Degree of focus	**Degree of *involvement* by the researcher**
Participant observation	Broad-based effort to understand the lifestyle of a group or general workings of an organisation.	Closely involved with members of the group or organisation, ranging from passively observing to actively participating in group activities.
Case study	Focused effort to understand the causes of a specific problem.	Some *involvement* with members of the group or organisation, but participation is usually less active.
Focused interview	Narrow focus on the perspective of a single individual, on a narrowly defined problem area.	Limited *involvement* with members of the group or organisation, normally on a one-to-one basis.

Silverman (1992:18)

Table 3.2 sums up the characteristics of the three basic forms of qualitative research: participant observation, case studies, and focused interviews. Depending on the problem to be researched and the amount of time and money available, all three forms may be employed, or only focused interviews may be possible.

3.2.2 Research methodology in qualitative research

Qualitative data analysis requires organisation of information and data reduction. Data analysis in qualitative research is a process of categorisation, description and synthesis. Qualitative research is very researcher-dependent, for example, it has been said that for data collection the researcher is the instrument. This means that while data collection is ongoing, and during the entire research process for that matter, the researcher makes

decisions about what data to collect, who to interview, where and when to interview, and so on. Interviews and observation inventories are less structured and standardised than with quantitative research, so the researcher's perspectives are highly influential in qualitative research (Tuckman 1994:373).

Qualitative research has the natural setting as the direct source of data, and the researcher is the key instrument. Researchers enter and spend considerable time in schools, neighbourhoods and other local learning sites. Although some researchers use videotape equipment and recording devices, many go completely unarmed, save for a pad and a pencil. Even when equipment is used however, the data are collected on the premises and supplemented by the understanding that is gained by being on location. Qualitative researchers, unlike quantitative researchers, go to particular settings because they are concerned with context. They know that action can best be understood when it is observed in the setting in which it occurs (Biklen 1992:29).

Qualitative research is descriptive because the data collected are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The written results of the research contain direct quotations from the data to illustrate and substantiate the argument. The data include interview transcripts, field notes, photographs, videotapes, personal documents, memoranda and other official records which might be appropriate. The qualitative research approach demands that the world be approached with the assumption that nothing is trivial, that everything has the potential of being a clue that might unlock a more comprehensive understanding of what is being studied (Biklen 1992:29).

Holloway (1997:01) maintains that researchers focus on the everyday life of people in natural settings. The data have primacy; the theoretical framework is not predetermined but derives directly from the data. Qualitative research is thus context bound. This means that the researchers have to be sensitive to the context of the research and must immerse themselves in the setting and situation. Something which is very fascinating, is that qualitative researchers describe in detail: they analyse and interpret; they use thick

description. The relationship between the researcher and the researched is close and is based on a position of equality as human beings.

It is evident from the foregoing discussion that qualitative research is both descriptive and inductive. The researcher chose the qualitative paradigm because of being an inductive research that commences with data collection, empirical observation and builds theoretical categories from relationships discovered among data.

3.2.3 Themes in qualitative methods

3.2.3.1 Making decisions about method

Stewart (1992:15-17) shows that data collection methods require careful selection. Informed choices regarding which information collection tools to adopt, given the research question posed, are vital to the success of any research project. The chosen measurement tools are the bricks, mortar and lathe of the completed research project.

The selection of data collection options and strategies for any particular evaluation depends on answers to several questions:

* Who is the information for and who will use the findings of the evaluation?
* What kind of information is needed?
* How is the information to be used? For what purposes is evaluation being done?
* When is the information needed?
* What resources are available to conduct the evaluation?

In this study, the researcher will thus phrase questions of this kind in the context of *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD*.

Howie (1991:13-15) stresses that the data required to study the questions must be accessible. Questions should be relevant, based upon needs, experience and past research. Answers to these questions will determine the kinds of data that are appropriate in a particular evaluation. The challenge in evaluation is getting the best possible information

to the people who need it - and then getting those people to actually use the information in decision-making.

3.2.3.2 Naturalistic inquiry

Denzin and Lincoln state that qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This shows that qualitative designs are naturalistic to the extent that the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the programme or its participants for purposes of the evaluation. Evaluations engaged in naturalistic inquiry study are naturally occurring activities and processes, e.g. *grade 1* classroom activity in progress. These activities are natural in the sense that they are not planned and manipulated by the evaluator as would be the case reflected in figure 3.1. The researcher should collect and interpret data. An explanation which follows the analysed data gives the researcher an extensive naturalistic inquiry. This approach is particularly useful for studying variations in programme implementation (Patton 1992:13).

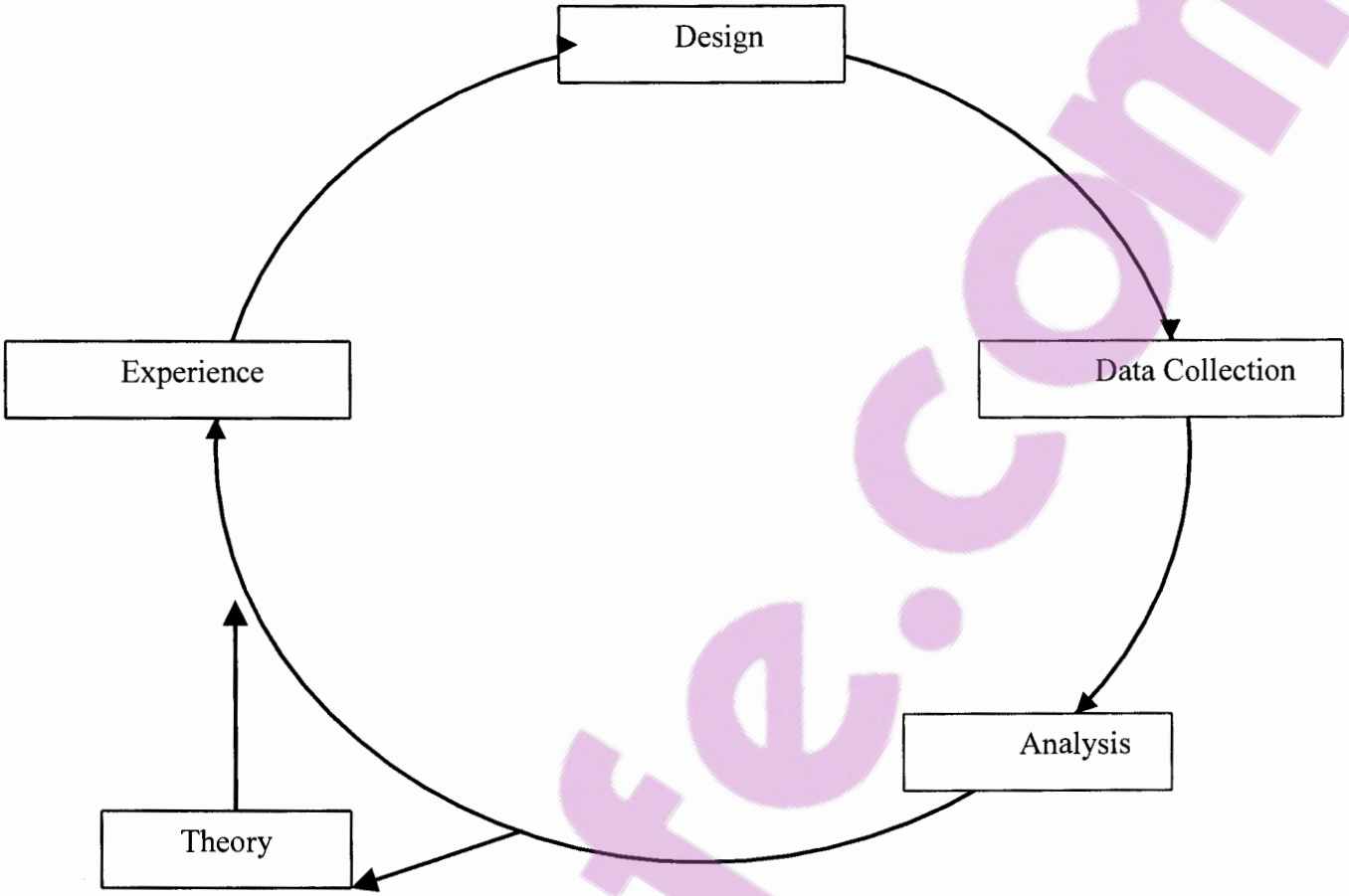


Figure 3.1 The Constructivist Inquiry
Adapted from Miller and Crabtree (1992:10)

Schensul and Schensul (1992:162) show that before considering the strengths and

Schensul and Schensul (1992:162) show that before considering the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative methods, it is useful to place the decision to gather qualitative data within the larger context of evaluation decision in general. What happens in a programme often varies over time as participants and conditions change. Programme that are implemented in numerous locations will manifest important differences from site to site. The nature of these variations cannot be fully predicted or anticipated.

By capturing whatever happens to occur spontaneously, a naturalistic inquiry is open and sensitive to deviations from plans, unanticipated variations, and important idiosyncrasies of program experience.

Qualitative data can, for instance, be collected in experimental designs where participants have been randomly divided into treatment and control groups. Likewise, some quantitative data may be collected in naturalistic inquiry approaches. Nevertheless, experimental designs predominantly aim for statistical analyses of quantitative data, while qualitative data are the primary focus in naturalistic inquiry. Appropriate data analysis techniques are fundamental to quality work. A careful descriptive review of all collected data is wise as a first step. Then, depending upon the selected research questions, either quantitative and or qualitative analyses may be appropriate (Tudiver and Ferris 1992: 159-162).

Bryman (1990:61) characterises qualitative research according to six criteria. These criteria are set out in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Qualitative research: its first version

♦ Taking the subject's perspective
♦ Describing the mundane detail of daily settings
♦ Comprehending actions and meaning in their social context
♦ Emphasis on time and process
♦ Open and relatively unstructured research designs
♦ Avoiding concepts and theories at an early stage

Adapted from Bryman (1990: 61 – 69)

However, Bryman's (1990:61) characterisation of qualitative research runs up against the difficulty of over-generalising a variety of different theoretical and research orientations. This means that there are difficulties with some of his criteria. Criterion 1 involves a "subjective" perspective which derives from an analysis of the perspective of the

conceptual framework of those studied. This can involve a failure to analyse objectively, and ignores practices rather than perceptions. As Bryman asserts: "there can be little doubt that the commitment to explicating the subject's interpretation of social reality is a sine qua non of qualitative research."

Similarly, criteria 5 and 6 may be out of tune with the greater sophistication of contemporary field research design, born out of accumulated knowledge of interaction and greater concern with issues of validity and reliability. Hammersley (1990:1-2) offers a definition of ethnography rather than "qualitative research." Nonetheless, it shares some properties in common with Bryman's (1990:61-69). See Table 3.4. Once again, the criteria used in Table 3.4 are problematic, as follows:

Table 3.4 Qualitative research: second version

♦ The daily contexts' use instead of experimental situation
♦ Data collection: range of sources
♦ Unstructured data collection preferences
♦ A concern with the 'micro' features of social life
♦ An interest on the meaning and function of social action
♦ The supposition that quantification plays a subordinate role

Adapted from Hammersley and Atkinson (1990:1-2)

The following criteria are elaborated on by Hammersley and Atkinson (1990:1)

Criterion 1

Most non-ethnographic research does not only use experimental research designs.

Criterion 2

Non-ethnographic research also uses a range of sources. Audio-and video-tapes, as well as official documents, are also used as sources of non-ethnographic data.

Criterion 3

This may have been true in the past, but increasingly ethnography begins with prior hypotheses and or prior definitions.

Criterion 4

This is generally true but qualitative research is increasingly comparative.

Criterion 5

"Meaning" is a term which is contested amongst different field researchers. However, "function" should be central to the analysis of actions.

Criterion 6

This is generally true but there is an increasing use of tabulations in field research. This leaves us with very little that is non-problematic from Table 3.4.

Table 3.5 Qualitative research: third version

♦ A preference for qualitative data – use of words rather than numbers. However, in principle, there is no reason to prefer any form of data: We are not faced, then, with a stark choice between words and numbers, or even between precise and imprecise data; but rather with a range from more to less precise data. Furthermore, our decisions about what level of precision is appropriate in relation to any particular claim should depend on the nature of what we are trying to describe, on the likely accuracy of our descriptions, on our purposes, and on the resources available to us; not on ideological commitment to one methodological paradigm or another, (Hammersley 1992:163).
♦ A preference for naturally-occurring data – observation rather than experiment, unstructured versus structured interviews. However, this fails because, even observation can affect a setting, while choosing "a natural setting can be unrepresentative because it differs in important ways from cases in that category." Also no research is untouched by human hands.
♦ A preference for meanings rather than behaviour – attempting to document the world from the point of view of the people studied. However, as Hammersley (1992:164) rightly points out, this is a copout since respondents can do this for themselves; ultimately, the social scientist must analyse rather than simply let the participants speak for themselves.
♦ A rejection of natural science as a model. However, there are many different kinds of natural science (from e.g. botany to theoretical physics). Also qualitative research has a very problematic status if it totally fails to address the validity of its findings or reduces validity to participants' agreement with a set of findings.
♦ A preference for inductive, hypothesis-generating research rather than hypothesis-testing. However, hypotheses must at some point be tested, otherwise we are limited to mere speculation. As Hammersley (1992:160) writes: "which of these approaches is most appropriate should depend on our purposes, and the stage that our research has reached, not on paradigmatic commitments."

Source: adapted from Hammersley 1992: 160-172

Ultimately, Hammersley (1992:182) finds no grounds for distinguishing a separate basis for ethnographic research which would differentiate it from other social science

approaches. Instead, he argues that: "the process of inquiry in science is the same whatever method is used, and the retreat into paradigms effectively stultifies debate and hampers progress." The following table describes ethnographic research as a social sciences approach.

Table 3.6: Qualitative research: fourth version

♦ Preference of natural settings as the primary source of data.
♦ Fidelity to the phenomena under study – this requires a cultural description of the meaning of phenomena to participants.
♦ The use of an inductivist methodology which avoids the premature testing of hypotheses.

Adapted from Hammersley and Atkinson (1990:69)

The version set out in Table 3.6 depends upon a preference for "naturalism" which presents the following problems:

- "Artificial" and "natural" settings are both "part of society" (11); no data or its analysis is ever asocial or untouched by human hands.

- Drawing data from "natural" settings is no guarantee that one's findings are valid in other settings or in the similar settings.

- "Naturalism" limits social research to cultural description, allowing no claims to validity other than understanding people's experiences (Hammersley and Atkinson 1990:69).

Dunn *et al.* (1994:59) indicate that qualitative research results may be so direct, so on target, that those who have participated may have nowhere to hide. The nature of qualitative research and the fact that its data are collected, stored, and retrieved as descriptive text, lulls the researcher into a false expectation that, after months of recording, reporting will be easy.

Qualitative content analysis is a complex process. It starts with the idea of process, or social context, and views the author as a self-conscious actor addressing an audience under particular circumstances. The task of the analyst becomes a "reading" of the text in terms of its symbols. With this in mind, the text is approached through understanding the context of its production by the analyst themselves. This may be derived either through the use of secondary sources or, as in the above example, other methods such as observational studies. In the process, the researcher picks out what is relevant for analysis and pieces it together to create tendencies, sequences, patterns and orders. The process of deconstruction, interpretation, and reconstruction breaks down many of the assumptions dear to quantitative analysts (Erickson 1992: 54).

According to LeCompte, Milroy and Preissle (1992:04), to claim competence in qualitative research is, at most, to claim general familiarity with what is currently being done, coupled with experience in one or two particular facets. The flexibility of this method, as with participant observation, is regarded as a prime advantage. It enables the researcher to consider not only the ways in which meaning is constructed, but also the ways in which new meanings are developed and employed. Thus, such a study provides us with detailed insight into the relationship between the media used and the cultural construction of environmental issues. In the process, theory is generated, modified and tested, moving from the particulars of the document to a general understanding of its context and ways of representing the social world.

There are two primary approaches to the systematic direct observation of behaviour. These two approaches can be categorised roughly into a qualitative and a quantitative approach. They can be mutually complementary and not mutually exclusive. The quantitative approach, sometimes described as a positivistic approach, contains a number of strengths and weaknesses. The main advantages are its objectivity and replicability. When properly conducted, the results of a quantitative observational study are independent of the observer; in other words, different observers following similar procedures should report similar results. This makes the results more credible to an

external audience. The main disadvantage of this approach is that when a complex behavioural phenomenon is reduced to a few quantifiable variables, the phenomenon can be overly simplified. Qualitative research becomes believable because of its coherence, insight and instrumental utility (Leedy 1993:141).

Fine and Grant (1992:430) maintain that in research, qualitative approaches are often viewed as a vehicle to generate hypotheses and to identify problems for later positivistic research. Alternatively, qualitative methods are employed after a basic science study has been conducted; at this latter stage they are used to identify appropriate strategies for disseminating the results of basic science research in the community. Countering this "handmaiden" role in primary research, the researcher believes that qualitative methods are also relevant in their own right. They are a useful method for interpreting the response of persons and communities to critical events, and identifying the social-cultural meanings of these "events-that-happen" by casting problems, purposes, and intentions in a new light.

In short, qualitative studies enable investigators to examine and explain problems and events from the perspective of the actor, experiences, understanding, and interpretations of events and "events-that-happen." The non-directive methods of participant observation, semi-structured interviews, and focus groups are commonly used by means of uncovering these understandings. Qualitative research does not pretend to be explorable. In *Curriculum Studies*, there is often an interplay between qualitative research observations and the development and refinement of the hypotheses, and consequently the categories, to be used in the analysis. The categories for coding the data are often developed during and after the data collection phases, and this is therefore an inductive approach (Marshall and Rossman 1990:148).

The preference for hypothesis generation rather than hypothesis testing should not be assigned too rigorously, as otherwise qualitative research will be restricted to speculation, and at some stage hypotheses will require testing. Because of the interplay between the stages of qualitative research, and the tendency towards grounded theory, the design,

methods and analysis of each qualitative method will be elaborated on. In view of the above discussion the researcher will attempt to show that *involvement* by *grade 1 teachers* is a precondition of responsiveness in *curriculum development*. It is a process that requires responsibility and demonstration. A fixed *curriculum*, the output of unresponsive *curriculum development*, requires minimal complex *involvement*. It does not require democratic decision-making processes, and operates chiefly by directive coercion rather than by group inquiry. Rigidity in *SBCD* may be particularly detrimental to unsuccessful learners.

3.2.3.3 Skills required in conducting qualitative research

Wolcott (1990:32) stresses that one way to assemble data is to begin with a set of general questions. What do people in the setting have to know? How are skills and attitudes transmitted and acquired, particularly in the absence of intentional efforts at instructions? The requisite skills for doing qualitative research are to step back and: have refined questions, a sampling design; to critically analyze situations, to recognise and avoid bias, to collect and analyse data, and to manage data. This is strengthened by figure 3.2 which shows that to obtain valid and reliable data the researcher has to think abstractly. To do this, a qualitative researcher requires theoretical and social sensitivity, the ability to maintain analytical distance while at the same time drawing upon past experience, and theoretical knowledge to interpret what is seen, astute powers of observation, and good interactional skills.

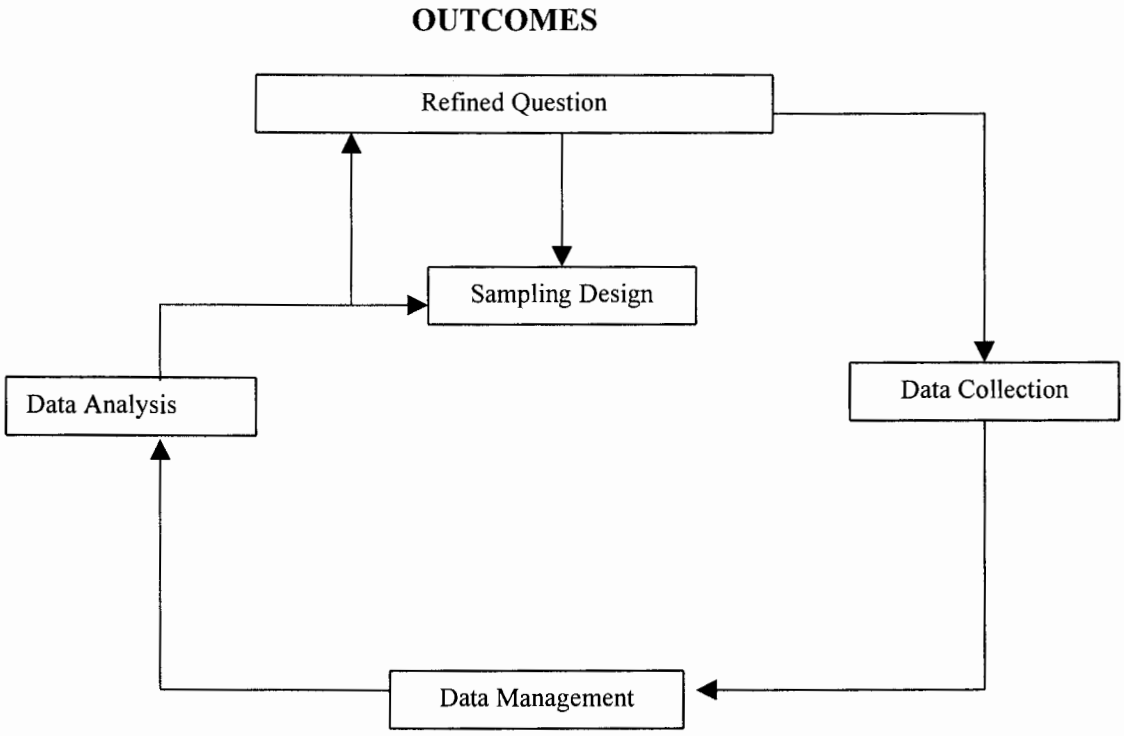


Figure 3.2 The Iterative Qualitative Research Process
Adapted from Miller and Crabtree (1992:xv)

3.2.3.4 The rationale for conducting qualitative research

According to Marshall and Rossman (1990:145) qualitative study aims at exploring a problem. A process or a pattern of interaction will be its validity. There are many valid reasons for doing qualitative research. One reason is the nature of the research problem. Some areas of study naturally lend themselves more to qualitative types of research, for instance, research that attempts to uncover the nature of persons' experiences with a phenomenon, such as politics, religious conversion, or addiction. Qualitative methods can be used to uncover and understand what lies behind any phenomenon about which little is yet known. It can be used to gain novel and fresh slants on things about which quite a bit is already known. Also, qualitative methods can uncover the intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods.

3.2.3.5 Who qualifies for conducting qualitative research?

Deyhl, Hess and LeCompte *et al.* (1992: 27) are of the notion that qualitative researchers in education have never agreed among themselves about whether to make more of the differences among their approaches, or to emphasise their commonality, in order to effect a common front. Qualitative research is done by researchers in the social and behavioural sciences, as well as by practitioners in fields that concern themselves with issues related to human behaviour and functioning. This style of research can be used to study organizations, groups, and individuals. It can be carried out by research teams or by persons acting in pairs, or alone. When qualitative methods are combined with qualitative ones, the qualitative aspect is usually subsidiary to the larger research project and is likely to be carried out by individuals or a small team of specialists.

3.2.3.6 The essential elements of qualitative research

Dunn *et al.* (1994:121) show that qualitative studies require long and intense data collection that demands time and invades the privacy of workers. Basically, there are three major components, namely data, analytical and verbal reports. Data can come from various sources. Interviews and observations are the most common sources. They are used to arrive at findings or theories. These procedures include techniques for conceptualising data. This process, called "coding", varies with the training, experience, and purpose of the researcher.

Written and verbal reports make up the third component of qualitative research. These may be presented in scientific journals or conferences and take various forms depending upon the audience and the aspect of the findings or theory being presented. For instance, someone may present either an overview of the entire findings or an in-depth discussion of one part of the study.

Often when describing qualitative research, types, purposes, and approaches to analysis become confused and mixed up in the description. Some of the different types of

qualitative research are grounded theory, ethnography, the phenomenological approach, life histories, and conversational analysis. These types can be and are used by researchers of different disciplines. Educators, anthropologists and sociologists may use ethnography to study a problem related to their discipline, just as they could use grounded theory. Qualitative research should respond to concerns that the natural subjectivity of the researcher will shape the research (Marshall and Rossman 1990:147).

One of the major controversies and questions concerning qualitative research pertains to the question of approach. Or, how much interpretation should be there of data? Some researchers believe that, per se; but, rather, the researcher's task is to gather the data and present them in such a manner that "the informants speak for themselves." The aim is to give an honest account with little or no interpretation of – interference with – those spoken words or of the observations made by the researcher. Other qualitative researchers are concerned with accurate description, when doing their analysis and presenting their findings.

3.2.3.7 Inductive analysis

Qualitative methods are particularly oriented toward exploration, discovery and inductive logic. An evaluation approach is inductive to the extent that the evaluator attempts to make sense of the situation without imposing pre-existing expectations on the programme setting. Inductive designs begin with specific observations and build toward general patterns. Qualitative analysis is guided not by hypotheses but by questions about issues and a search for patterns (Patton 1992:15).

3.2.3.8 A holistic perspective

Suen and Ary (1990:7) are of the notion that without qualitative exploratory observations, qualitative methods may lead only to superficial results that could be only tangential to the phenomenon under observation. Evaluators using qualitative methods strive to understand programmes and situations as a whole. The evaluator searches for the totality

of the unifying nature of particular settings. The holistic approach assumes that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. It also assumes that a description and understanding of a programmes social and political context is essential for overall understanding of the programme. In summary, the significance of qualitative research is emphasised in this thesis. Qualitative research addresses the context as well as the problems experienced by the people involved. In this case it refers to *grade 1 teachers* and the problem experienced in *SBCD*.

3.3 CHARACTERISTICS AND OUTCOMES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Different types of qualitative research have common characteristics and use similar procedures, though differences in data collection and analysis do exist. The following elements are part of most, though not all, qualitative approaches.

The data have primacy; the theoretical framework is not predetermined but derives directly from the data. Qualitative research further focuses on the emic perspective; the view of the people involved in the research and their perspectives; meanings and interpretations. The research also describes in detail; it analyses, interprets and it uses thick description. The relationship between the researcher and the researched is close and based on a position of equality as human beings. Data collection and data analysis generally proceed together and interact. Qualitative research is not static but develops mentally and is dynamic in character; the focus is on process as well as outcomes (Deyhl *et al.* 1992:610).

Qualitative research is context-specific, with the researcher's role being one of inclusion in the situation. As Wiersma (1991:14) indicates, qualitative research is based on the notion of context sensitivity, the belief that the particular physical and social environment has a great bearing on human behaviour. Qualitative researchers emphasise a holistic interpretation. Tuckman (1994:336) identifies various features of qualitative research.

Qualitative research has a natural setting as the direct source of data and the researchers as the key instruments. Researchers enter and spend considerable time in schools, families, neighbourhoods and other locations learning about educational concerns. Although some researchers use videotape equipment and recording devices, many go completely unarmed except for a pad and a pencil. Even when equipment is used, however the data are collected on the premises and supplemented by the understanding that is gained by being on location (Tuckman 1994:336).

Miller and Crabtree (1992:13) are of the opinion that qualitative research is descriptive. The data collected are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The written results of the research contain quotations from the data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. Qualitative articles and reports have been described by some scholars as "anecdotal." This is because they often contain quotations and try to describe what a particular situation or view of the world is like in narrative form. The written word is very important in the qualitative approach, both in recording data and discriminating amongst the findings.

The qualitative research approach demands that the world be approached with the assumption that nothing is trivial, that everything has the potential of being a clue that might unlock a more comprehensive understanding of what is being studied. Qualitative researchers are concerned with the process rather than simply with outcomes or products. How do people negotiate meaning? How do certain terms and labels come to be applied? In this study, the qualitative emphasis on process will be particularly beneficial in educational research, in clarifying the self-fulfilling prophecy code that learners' cognitive performance in schools is affected by *grade 1 teachers'* expectations of them. Qualitative research thus involves assessing the quality of things (Reaves 1992:16).

TABLE 3.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

QUALITATIVE		QUANTITATIVE	
Terms/Phrases Associated with the Approach		*Terms/Phrases Associated with the Approach*	
- ethnographic -fieldwork -sort data -symbolic interaction -inner perspective -naturalistic -ethnomethodological -descriptive	-participant observation -phenomenological -Chicago School -documentary -life history -study -ecological -emic	-experimental -hard data -out perspective -empirical	-positivist -social facts -statical -etic
Key Concepts Associated with the Approaches		*Key Concepts Associated with the Approach*	
-meaning -common-sense understanding -bracketing -definition of situation -everyday life	-understanding -process -negotiated order -for all practical purposes -social construction -grounded theory	-variable -operationalise -reliability -hypothesis	-validity -statistically significant -replication -prediction
Theoretical Affiliation		*Theoretical Affiliation*	
-symbolic interaction -ethnomethodology -phenomenology	-culture -idealism	-structural functionalism -realism, positivism -behaviouralism	-logical empiricism -system theory
Academic Affiliation		*Academic affiliation*	
-sociology -history	-anthropology	-psychology -economics	-sociology -political science
Goals		*Goals*	
-develop sensitising concept -describe multiple realities	-grounded theory -develop understanding	-theory testing -establish the facts -statistical description	-show relationships between variables -prediction
Design		*Design*	
-evolving flexible, general -describe multiple realities	-grounded theory -develop understanding	-theory testing -establish the facts -statistical description	-show relationship between variables -prediction
Written Research Proposals		*Written Research Proposals*	
-brief -speculative -suggests area research may be relevant to -often written after some data have been collected	-not extensive in substantive literature review -general statement of approach	-extensive -detailed and specific in focus -detailed and specific in procedures	-through review of substantive literature -written prior to data collection -hypotheses stated
Data		*Data*	
-descriptive -personal documents -field notes	-personal's own words -official documents and other artifacts	-quantitative -quantifiable coding -counts, measures	-operationalized variables -statistical

-photographs			
Sample		*Sample*	
-small -nonrepresentative	-theoretical sampling	-large -stratified -control groups -precise	-random selection -control for extraneous variables
Techniques or Methods		*Techniques or Methods*	
-observation -reviewing various documents and artifacts	-participant observation -open-ended interviewing	-experiments -survey research -structured interviewing	-quasi experiments -structured observation -data sets
Relationship with Subjects		*Relationship with Subjects*	
-empathy -emphasis on trust -equalitarian	-intense contact -subject as friend -stay detached	-circumscribed -short term	-distant -subject-researcher
Instruments and Tools		*Instruments and Tools*	
-tape recorder -transcriber	(the researcher is often the only instrument)	-inventories -questionnaires -indexes	-computers -scales -test scores
Data Analysis		*Data Analysis*	
-ongoing -models, themes, concepts -inductive	-analytic inducted -constant comparative method	-deductive -occurs at conclusion of data collection	-statistical
Problems in Using the Approach		*Problems in Using the Approach*	
-time consuming -data reduction difficult -reliability	-procedures not standardised -difficult studying large population	-controlling other variables -reification	-obstructiveness -validity

Hammersley (1992:3)

3.4 QUALITIES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

3.4.1 Layered truth

Leedy (1993:116) views data as extremely ephemeral. Researchers should recognise therefore that even the most reliable, most refined, most carefully controlled data may have a very elusive quality about them. Data are volatile, they evaporate quickly. In qualitative research, truth is always layered. That is, there are multiple interpretations of any given social phenomenon. No matter how exhaustively the subject is studied, no single common truth may emerge. In other words, one's view of reality and someone else's view of reality never precisely coincide. To make matters more perplexing, no one else's view of reality will be exactly the same because things are viewed from different paradigms.

3.4.2 Sensitisation

The noun sensitisation is derived from the verb sensitise, which means to make sensitive or to require tactful treatment (Thompson 1996:829). The process of sensitisation helps the qualitative researcher recognise that things are not always what they appear to be. Which perspective is the truth? Both are; they are different layers of the overall truth of the situation. To reflect either one because of internal contradictions would be to dismiss important qualitative data that could aid in understanding the social issues involved.

When truth is seen as being layered, many alternate explanations of a social process must be accepted, depending upon the viewpoint of the respondent. This complicates the search for the mechanisms that explain the social process, but helps to emphasize the complexity of social behaviour. Thus, there is less chance that a phenomenon will be oversimplified in explanation. The explanations found tend to be those given by the subjects who are being studied. As a result, the views of the subjects of qualitative research rather than the ultimate users' view are emphasised; in survey and experimental research it is often the other way round. In fact, theoretically guided research may be used to test an existing theory (Woods 1992:382).

Finally, it should be noted that the explanations obtained through qualitative research emphasise the respondents' subjective views of their own behaviour rather than the objective view that an outsider might use in coding that behaviour. Although objective

coding might reveal hidden motivations for behaviour, if respondents actually believe that their subjective views represent the truth, such reasoning cannot be lightly dismissed. The researcher needs to be aware of the potential constraints that groups can place on individual's responses, and if resources allow one can obtain information in individual interviews (Kuzel 1992:36).

3.4.3 Flexibility

According to Zyzanski *et al.* (1992:32) qualitative research designs are best characterised as unique and flexible. They are evolving constantly throughout the research process. One concurrently frames and reframes not only the research question, but the analysis, and the theory construction. In fact, it is clear that this flexibility maximises the likelihood of gathering data rich in details.

In many ways, qualitative research is far less structured than other forms of applied research. For example, in an experiment, a predetermined hypothesis is tested. Variables are controlled as closely as possible; a narrow focus is maintained. In survey research, the questionnaire is meticulously developed and standardised; again, a tight structure is required. In contrast, qualitative research often begins with a much broader intent. The aim is to first get an overview of the situation. Specific and detailed research hypotheses are not formulated. In applied research, this approach is termed formative evaluation. Formative evaluation is especially advantageous when researching complicated and poorly understood problems. During instruction, *grade 1 teachers* have to carry out their own formative evaluation of the teaching process to guide them through their systematic planning for the teaching learning process (Jansen and Peshkin 1992:703).

Erickson (1992:208) shows that despite the limit on the researcher's information processing capacity, observation and reflection enables the researcher to develop an interpretive model for the organization of the event. Because of the lack of a detailed, preliminary structure imposed during qualitative research, it is possible to reformulate hypotheses in the midst of a project. As new evidence is brought forth and new relationships seen, qualitative social research can refocus the research and concentrate upon newly discovered important problems. Such flexibility is simply not possible in other forms of research, such as survey research, where a detailed and rigid instrument must be prepared in advance. The researcher in this study will be flexible in order to avoid finding himself in a chaotic situation with *grade 1 teachers*.

3.4.4 The Total Process

Most data-gathering techniques focus upon one or two narrowly defined cadence. A survey only obtains answers to the specific questions asked; an experimental researcher manipulates two or three variables at most. In contrast, the qualitative researcher attempts to understand how different factors in the environment interact to create observed outcomes. It is the interdependence of different people and their actions that are observed. In observing the total process, the complexity of human interactions is stressed rather than its simplicity. But sometimes an understanding of such complexity is precisely what is needed to determine effective actions. Through observations and in-depth interviews, such complexity can be discovered. In-depth qualitative interviewing with a large number of people is both expensive and time consuming and these considerations frequently dictate the methods employed (May 1997: 129).

Kincheloe (1991:145), in support of the above discussions, mentions that qualitative research endeavours to represent human experience with the necessary empathy towards the people who have experienced it. Renewal in the process of democracy, whether applied to *SBCD* or government, depends on people working together; it depends entirely on commitment and *involvement*, not pseudoparticipation.

3.5 ESSENTIAL ASPECTS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

3.5.1 The literature in qualitative research

Creswell (1994:145) maintains that "in qualitative research the literature should be used in a manner consistent with the methodological assumptions; namely it should be used inductively so that it does not direct the questions asked by the researcher. One of the chief reasons for conducting a qualitative study is that the study is exploratory not much has been written about the topic or population being studied and the researcher seeks to listen to informants and to build a picture based on their ideas".

3.5.2 Problems of qualitative research

(a) The concept is "immature" due to a conspicuous lack of theory and previous research.

(b) A need exists to explore and describe the phenomena and to develop theory.

(c) The nature of the phenomenon may not be suited to qualitative measures.

(d) It could be that the available theory may be inaccurate inappropriate, incorrect, or biased. Any form of bias on the part of the researcher influences results negatively (Lumadi 1995:33).

Before one gets a discussion of the actual methods and procedures used in doing qualitative research, one must consider some of the basic difficulties associated with this approach. Some of these problems have to do with the way the qualitative research is perceived by policy makers; other problems arise from the nature of qualitative research itself (Norton, Dunn, Bain, Birtwhistle, Davis, Herbert, Lemelin, Meslin, Talbot and Woods 1994:100).

3.5.2.1 Misperception of difficulty level

There is a danger in this kind of thinking - both for the applied social researcher and the decision-maker. Qualitative research properly carried out is far from easy, and not just anyone is capable of doing it. Researchers who naively attempt to undertake qualitative research without adequate training will most likely obtain results of little worth or quickly discover the error of their ways. Decision-makers who suggest or approve unqualified qualitative research will only be creating headaches for themselves and the researchers assigned to the task (Jones 1994:53).

3.5.2.2 Organisational and administrative consideration

What makes qualitative research difficult to do properly? This study will address the question in various ways:

First, there is the matter of conceptualisation. A research process is not value free. A typical qualitative research situation is so broadly based as to be almost amorphous (Herbert 1992:131).

Second, there is the problem of instrumentation. In other words, what questions should the researcher ask of research subjects and how should he or she phrase the questions? In survey research, at least the researcher has a prepared set of questions. In qualitative research, the researcher may only have some initial topics - actual questions have to be devised as he or she goes along.

Third, there are "mechanical problems". According to Bogdewic (1992:58) what may amount to routine activities for the inhabitants become pieces of an interaction puzzle to the participant observer. The temptation to continue observing and participating rather that stopping to record the experience is strong. Decoding field notes from observations or interviews in such a way that information is retrieved takes practice and experience. Decoding observations and interview responses becomes even more difficult when the researcher has to rely upon memory, as is often the case because the situation does not permit immediate recording of data.

Fourth, there is the problem of remaining objective during qualitative research. Regardless of the group the researcher is investigating, his or her emotions influence how he or she perceives individuals and their perceptions. No matter how much training the researcher had in qualitative research, he or she begins each new project basically in a state of apprehension due to ignorance and preconceptions (Morse 1994:59).

Fifth, Norr (1994:116) views another basic problem area with qualitative research as the time that it requires. Qualitative studies are highly labour intensive, and a project seldom has the personnel, time or financial resources to conduct an intensive qualitative investigation of all of these porters. Sometimes, because decision makers realise that qualitative research requires a lot of time, the approach is not sanctioned, and period. That is no problem of time - no research either. But if qualitative research is approved, not enough time may be scheduled for the project. One may be expected to produce results in a few days or a few weeks, when months are actually necessary to gather sufficient valid data. Or, one might be expected to do too many things simultaneously.

3.5.3 Strengths and weaknesses of qualitative research

The great strength of qualitative research is the validity of the data obtained from individuals when they are interviewed in sufficient detail for the results to be taken as true, correct, complete and believable reports of their views and experiences. Its main weakness is that small numbers of respondents cannot be taken as representative, even if great care is taken to choose a fair cross-section of the types of people who are the subjects of the researcher (Hakim 1992:26).

3.5.4 Data recording procedures

Creswell (1994:149) notes that before entering the field, qualitative researchers plan their approach to data recording. What is to be recorded? And how will it be recorded? It is advisable for the researchers to design in advance protocols for collecting information. Researchers engage in multi observations during the course of a qualitative study. A protocol, or form for recording information, is needed to note observations in the field. One might design an observation protocol as a single page with a dividing line down the middle to separate descriptive notes: portraits of the informants; a reconstruction of dialogue; a description of the physical setting; accounts of particular events, activities from reflective notes; and opportunity for the researcher to record personal thoughts such as speculation, feeling, impressions and prejudices.

A protocol is also useful in conducting interviews. This protocol would include the following components:

(a) a heading
(b) instructions to the interviewer (opening statement)
(c) the key research questions to be asked.
(d) probes to follow key questions.
(e) transition messages for the interviewer.
(f) space for recording the interviewers' comments
(g) space in which the researcher records reflective notes (Cresswell 1994:149).

3.5.5 Guidelines for coding of qualitative data

Glesne and Webb (1992:796) show that qualitative data analysis is an effort to construct order out of the booming, buzzing confusion that stands before the researcher. Coding is of categories in the data. The researcher should try to discover genuine categories and give them a (provisional) name – and not simply precise phrases in the document or other material. Categories should be related as specifically and variably as possible to the contexts in which they occur, e.g. conditions, consequences. The researcher should always do this on the basis of specific data, underlining or highlighting each occurrence, referencing frequently, giving page, line, etc. Core categories should be developed, relating all categories and sub-categories to the core.

Colin (1993:386) further shows that unrelated categories should be discarded, unless one can find some way of linking them to the core. Simplistically put, qualitative research is the collection and analysis of extensive narrative data, in order to gain insights into a situation of interest which would not be possible using other types of research. Descriptive, correlational, causal comparative and experimental research are considered to be qualitative research because they all involve primarily the collection and analysis of numerical data.

Pitman and Maxwell (1996:736) see qualitative evaluation as being concerned with verification as well as with discovery. A qualitative study's transferability of generalisability to other settings may be problematic. The generalisation of a qualitative study to other populations, settings, and treatment arrangements - that is, its *external* validity - is seen by traditional canons as a weakness in the approach. To counter challenges, the researcher can refer back to the original theoretical framework to show how data collection and analysis will be guided by concepts and models. By doing so, the researcher states the theoretical parameters of the research. Then those who make policy or design research studies within those same parameters can determine whether or not the cases described can be generalised for new research policies and can see how research ties into a body of theory.

Gilchrist (1992:87) views *triangulation* as an essential check for the researcher. Triangulation is the act of bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single point. Derived from navigation science, the concept has been fruitfully applied to social science inquiry. Data from different sources can be used to corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate the research in question. Designing a study in which multiple cases are used, multiple informants or more than one data gathering technique can greatly strengthen the study's usefulness for other settings.

The third construct is *dependability*, in which the researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study, as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting. This represents a set of assumptions very different from those shaping the concept of reliability. Positivist notions of reliability assume an unchanging universe, where inquiry could, quite locally, be replicated. The assumption of an unchanging social world is in direct contrast to the qualitative assumption that the social world is always changing, and the concept of replication is itself problematic. The equivalent terms for reliability and validity are dependability and confirmability (Zyzanski *et al.* 1992: 234).

The final construct, conformability, captures the traditional concept of objectivity. A qualitative research proposal should respond to concerns that the natural subjectivity of the researcher will shape the research. Again, the researcher must assert the strength of the qualitative study. Some understanding should be gained, even sympathy, for the research participants in order to gain entry into their world. The researcher's insights increase the likelihood of accurately describing the complex social system being researched.

The qualitative researcher should be familiar with the issues and data quality and analysis, and must display an ability to devise controls and methods that are appropriate to the research. According to Kuzel (1992:33) qualitative research does not pretend to be replicable. The researcher purposefully avoids controlling the research conditions and concentrates on recording the complexity of situational contexts and interrelations as they

occur. Moreover, the researcher's goal of discovering this complexity by altering research strategies within a flexible research design cannot be replicated by future researchers, nor should it be attempted.

However, qualitative researchers can respond to the traditional social science concern for replicability by taking the following steps. First, they can assert that qualitative studies by their nature (and, really, all research) cannot be replicated because the real world changes. Second, by keeping thorough notes and research diaries that records each research design decision and the rationale behind it, researchers allow others to inspect their procedures, protocols, and decisions. Finally, by keeping all collected data in well-organized, retrievable form, researchers can make them available easily if the findings are challenged (Gay 1996:41).

Finally, researchers need to allay the fears (both their own and those of their reviewers) that they will not know how to begin data analysis. Again, a pilot study, a hypothesized model, or an outline of possible data analysis categories can be appended to the proposal. The qualitative researcher should always caution that such models, outlines, and categories are merely tools, tentative guides from which to begin observation and analysis. However, they are reassuring to those who have low tolerance for ambiguity.

3.5.6 Steps in coding qualitative research

Cresswell (1994:145) provides steps to consider coding qualitative research. The researcher should carefully read and acquire a sense of the whole transcriptions. Perhaps some ideas should be jotted down as they come to mind. One document (one interview) should be picked: the most interesting, the shortest, the one on top of the pile. The researcher should go through it, asking himself or herself, what it is all about. The "substance" of the information should not be thought about, but rather its underlying meaning. Thoughts should be written in the margin.

When the researcher has completed this task for several informants, he should make a list of all topics. Cluster together similar topics. Form these topics into columns that might be arranged as major topics, unique topics and leftovers. The topics should be abbreviated as codes and the codes should be written next to the appropriate segments of the text. The preliminary organising scheme should be tried to see whether new categories and codes emerge.

The most descriptive wording for the topics should be found and they should be turned into categories. The total list of categories should be reduced by grouping topics that relate to each other. Perhaps lines should be drawn between categories to show interrelationships. A final decision on the abbreviation for each category should be made and the codes should be alphabetized. The data material belonging to each category should be assembled in one place and a preliminary analysis performed. If necessary, the existing data should also be recorded (Cresswell 1994:145).

To round this discussion, qualitative research is an excellent way of gaining an overview of complicated and poorly understood social phenomena. Because of its flexibility, qualitative research can also be used to move from a general to a specific research focus by allowing research hypotheses to be reformulated during the course of the study (Leedy 1993:142).

3.6 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

3.6.1 Purposeful Sampling

"In qualitative study, the sampling is usually purposive, meaning that the sample is selected purposefully, i.e. precisely because it is believed to be a rich source of data of interest" (Gay 1996: 213-214). Purposeful sampling is done in this thesis to increase the utility of information obtained from school samples. When doing purposeful sampling the researcher searches for information, rich key informants, groups, places, and events to study. The chosen samples are considered as those who are knowledgeable and

informative about the phenomena the researcher is busy investigating. For example, in the case of the school, when the researcher wants to know about the mutual relationship between the school and the community, the researcher will first interview the principal as the head of the school and then the deputy principal to acquire rich information. The head of department will also be interviewed. Teachers and learners, as well as the parents, will then also be interviewed. One member of the school governing body will also be considered as an informant person who could provide rich information that will help the researcher in his investigation.

Purposeful sampling comprises different types of sampling such as site selection, comprehensive sampling, maximum variation sampling, network sampling and sampling by case type. Many probability samples are what is known as simple random sampling, but often it is not possible to simply select a sample from a sampling frame (de Vaus 1991:64).

In this thesis, sampling will be purposive. Since *grade 1 teachers* are both the *curriculum* designers and implementers, it is imperative to view those characteristics of the teaching staff that might influence the development of the *curriculum*. *Grade 1 teachers* may acknowledge a dislike in a productive learning area. A knowledge of the distribution of such weaknesses and strengths across the whole staff may be helpful in *curriculum* planning. A *grade 1 teacher's* preferred style of teaching may influence the selection of learning experiences in *curriculum* design.

3.6.1.1 Types of purposeful sampling

Spindler (1992:65) argues that there is no hard and fast rule regarding what constitutes sufficient time on the site. Significant discoveries can be made in 2 weeks or less of ethnographic observation, but the validity of ethnographic observation on observation in site that lasts long enough to permit the ethnographic to see things happen not once but repeatedly. The relevance of this discussion will be elaborated on in the forthcoming sections.

(a) Site selection

Kuzel (1992:41) stresses that site is selected to locate and sample the people involved in a particular event. Here, research was conducted in *Northern Province* with *grade 1 teachers* and their *involvement* in *SBCD* was investigated. The actual activities of *curriculum development* can be executed by *grade teachers. Grade 1 teachers* must actively participate in *SBCD* activities and provide information and feedback. This helps to improve *curriculum* as well as new teaching resources.

(b) Comprehensive sampling

In comprehensive sampling every participant group, setting, event and other relevant information are examined, for example, if the researcher wants to examine the late arrival of teachers in a particular school, other schools should be looked at to observe the same problem. If the sampling of research participant perception is to be truly holistic, care must be taken to ensure that status and differentials among research participants and researchers are not reinforced through the process of data collection and analysis (Dobbert and Schai 1992:125).

The major purpose of comprehensive sampling is to support the total developmental needs of *grade 1 teachers* in *Northern Province*, as well as taking care of the needs generated by educational change. Comprehensive sampling is mooted as the main route to the qualitative improvement of *SBCD* and must, therefore, give a lead in setting educational standards and in bringing about sound innovations.

(c) Maximum variation sampling

In the maximum variation sampling sub-units of the major units of analysis are represented. The researcher may divide the population of elementary school teachers by number of years (experience in the profession of teaching) into various categories, and select key informants in each category to investigate career development. A selection of

those to be surveyed is made according to a known characteristic such as being a politician, trade union leader etc (May 1997:88).

Here, too, maximum variation sampling is suitable because *involvement* with a certain experience in the field of teaching will become interviewees. Various aspects with regard to *grade 1 teacher involvement* will be addressed below. The solution advocated is that primary schools be staffed permanently with experienced *curriculum development grade 1 teachers* to facilitate *SBCD*, in liason with school heads and *curriculum* experts at provincial and national levels.

(d) Network sampling

Burgess (1990:55) maintains that this approach involves using a small group of informants who are asked to put the researcher in touch with their friends who are subsequently interviewed, then asking them about their friends also, and interviewing them as well, until a chain of informants has been selected. *Grade 1 teachers* from various schools in the *Northern Province* will be interviewed to determine the task they execute in *SBCD.*

Another name for network sampling is snowball sampling which is a strategy in which each successive participant or group is named by a preceding group or individual. Network sampling is mostly used for in depth interview studies. It is used in ethnographic interviews by anthropologists, in oral history by historians and many others. Historians interview famous people to obtain details from participants about historical events.

Curriculum decision-making and development in the school necessarily has to be related to external levels. It has already been stressed that decision made at provincial and national levels influence decisions taken in schools. Mediating societal needs by means of the school *curriculum* requires that elements of society and representatives of schools, e.g. *grade 1 teachers,* co-operate in making explicit such needs and the school's ability to implement remedies at the same time.

(e) Sampling by case study

Silverman (1992:22) maintains that the main question, at least in case study research, is the quality of the analysis rather than the recruitment of the sample. The role played by *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD* and the extent to which they provide opportunities for the learner to participate actively in the process of learning will be examined. In this case the researcher is in need of an in-depth analysis of a phenomenon. Participants or groups who participated in the study are reported in such a manner as to protect confidentiality of data.

3.6.2 Random versus Fixed Sampling

May (1997:87) indicates that random sampling is also called probability sampling. It is so called because it is possible to express the mathematical probability of sample characteristics being reproduced in the population. Random in this case refers to a haphazard selection of schools in terms of language, area and circuit. (Compare chapter 1 item 1.4.2).

Moreover, it is worth pointing out that the function of inference in statistics is the generation of reasonable statements about *parameters,* based upon careful examination and analysis of *statistics*. Requisites for the valid use of inferential statistics are both an adequate definition of the target population and access to a sample that is representative of this population. Furthermore, random selection of subjects for inclusion in samples constitutes not only the ideal method to achieve representation, but is also fundamental to the proper operation of the machinery of statistical inference.

It should be acknowledged that it is not always possible in practice to use random selection procedures to the extent that might be desired. When samples cannot be drawn at random, two options are available. The practitioner may elect to define the desired population from which inference will be made (the target population) and then proceed intelligently to use all relevant available information, in an attempt to structure a sample

that appears to be representative of the target population. A second option, and the only option available when the sample has been predetermined, is to study the sample at hand and then attempt to define a population from which the factory substitute for random sampling - yet research is an enterprise broader than the exact application of statistical methodology (Kuzel 1992:33).

Sometimes the researchers' concern is that the group they are interested in is not fully represented in the sample. In this case, a stratified random sample may be used whereby a stratification according to characteristics such as age group, gender, type of housing etc is first made and then a random sample is drawn from each of the stratified lists. This allows researchers to weight the sample – in other words over-represent a particular characteristic. In both these modifications of probability sampling some care is required to ensure accurate representation (May 1997:87).

Returning to the theoretical level, if it is the researcher's intent to determine whether an association is present between two variables, complete use of randomisation in sampling is called for. On the other hand, if the intent is to search for group differences, restricted use of randomisation will suffice. With respect to the former (i.e., the symmetrical case), ideally one defines a population of interest and then proceeds to draw a simple random sample from the population. For our working example, assume that both the target and accessible populations consist solely of undergraduate learners enrolled in a large university. If the purpose is to see whether gender and attitudes towards abortion are related, obtaining a random sample by straightforward way means to constitute the most appropriate plan. Not only will simple random sampling satisfy an important underlying condition associated with the statistical analysis of resultant data, but, as will be discussed, it will also yield marginal proportions for both Variables A and B, which are maximum-likelihood estimators of respective proportions in the population (Erickson 1992:206).

The researcher in this thesis will determine the change of variation and the relative typicality or atypicality of instances in the data corpus through data collection that

involves deliberate sampling. In contrast, if the intent is to determine whether differences exist between or among groupings of an explanatory variable (i.e. the asymmetrical case), stratified random sampling is generally preferable. Specifically, if we want to find out whether males and females hold different views on the abortion-amendment issues, then the respective number of males and females in the sample need not reflect the ratio of males to females in the background population (Morse 1994: 65).

3.7 DOING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

According to Wolcott (1992:760) there are five basic stages for doing qualitative research. These are as follows:

* Choosing research sites and sample populations.
* Obtaining and encoding qualitative data (taking field notes).
* Preparing for and undertaking focused interviews.
* Developing and maintaining field relations.
* Organising and analysing the qualitative data gathered.

The first two of these stages are more concerned with the mechanical and technical aspects of applied research; the second two emphasise human interaction skills; the last stage requires both well-developed analytical and communications skills. Each of these stages will be examined in turn. By the end of the discussion, the researcher should have a general idea of how to approach a qualitative research project. It should be borne in mind, however, that what follows are only suggestions, not ironical rules. There is no single "correct" way to do qualitative research (Pitman and Maxwell 1996:760).

How the researcher should proceed with a qualitative research project depends on many things. What is appropriate in one situation will not be appropriate in another. For example, the researcher could openly take notes at a public meeting of a legislative body; one would find it difficult to follow the same procedure during a riot. Although a tape recorder will be utilised in this study, interviews work well only with individuals who are used to such devices, such as politicians or public figures; many people are put off by recording instruments and will give only the briefest of answers if they know that the

conversation is being recorded. In some situations, one may opt to disguise research; in other instances, such an approach might be neither possible nor ethical.

The researcher's own personality is also an important factor in conducting qualitative research. The research techniques that the researcher employs must be compatible with one's own personality. What works for one person will not work so well for another. For example, one may not be a good actor to do disguised research. Or, the researcher may have a low key interviewing style that immediately puts people at ease, so that they open up and provide a wealth of information with little prompting. As the researcher develops his or her qualitative research skills, he or she will soon recognise the natural strengths and weaknesses, because there is only so much the researcher can do to overcome his or her weaknesses and develop research procedures (Lumadi 1995:33).

3.7.1 Choosing research sites and sample populations

Melville and Goddard(1996:29) indicate that a population is any group that is the subject of research interest. Often the population is predetermined because policy makers want to find out about a specific group or organisation, such as youth gangs in a certain city or a particular office within an agency. Thus, both the research site and the sample population are established before any research is designed (Patton 1992:43).

In such instances, the questions of how typical the population is and how generalizable the results are do not matter quite as much. These questions are important, however, whenever there is a choice of research sites and populations. For example, one might be asked to conduct qualitative research to investigate the significance of teaching an *OBE* approach in *Northern Province* schools. The schools that one chooses must be typical of other schools in other provinces. Obviously, no single school will be completely typical of all schools in other provinces, but each one selected should share certain important characteristics, such as urban or rural location, the socio-economic status of the residents and their families, and so on. Only through careful choice of the research site and the sample population will one's results be generalisable (Spindler 1992:64).

Once one has chosen a research site, one must decide which elements of the population at that site will be studied in-depth. If the group or organisation that one is investigating is small, one may be able to study each of the members. More often, however, this is not feasible. In this study, a researcher will thus focus on the *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers*

in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*. The pool of respondents will be drawn from the various primary schools in the inspection areas of Northern Region.

3.7.2 Cultivating informants

Gilchrist (1992:70) stresses that the informant is viewed by some social science researchers as both pejorative and inadequate to capture the relationship between the researcher and the individual providing information. After one has decided that one's sample population is representative of the social process one wishes to investigate, one must cultivate informants, or individuals who will agree to be interviewed to describe their views. One's informants must represent a good cross section of the sample population. If one is studying *grade 1 teachers involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*, the informants should include not only the *grade 1 teachers*, but also typical followers. In addition, the researcher should include deviant cases, or atypical individuals. For example, the researcher might include some former *grade 1 teachers* who decided to leave the group for various reasons or individuals who have resisted joining such a group. These deviant cases can provide information that will expand the researcher's understanding of the group structure. The aspect of cultivating informants will not be totally appropriate, because only *grade 1 teachers* will be interviewed in this research.

Schensul and Schensul (1992:185) show that rather than obtaining large amounts of demographic information, collaborative networks should concentrate on the collection of specific information pertinent to the selected direction. Sometimes the researcher may have to follow a network strategy to locate informants, especially if the group he or she is researching is loosely or informally structured. This procedure is also known as the snowball technique. An interviewee will tell the interviewer the name of another person who can give the researcher more information about certain questions. That person can suggest yet other individuals whom one can tap as informants. Besides helping the researcher to locate informants, the snowball technique will aid in determining the different factions that might exist within the group.

3.7.3 Obtaining and encoding qualitative data

The data the researcher obtains from focused interviews constitutes only one part of the field data the researcher collects when doing qualitative research. Even before the

researcher goes into the field, he or she should have collected a great deal of background information: reports by other researchers, topical books on the subject of the research, newspapers and magazines articles, and so forth. To keep track of what is going on around a researcher and to organise a researcher's observations into some meaningful form, a researcher must take notes. Depending upon the circumstances, the researcher may be able to take notes as he or she observes. The researcher will not rely on memory until writing down the observations later. Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his or her theory as it emerges (Kuzel 1992:39).

3.7.4 Categorising observations

Anything and everything that the researcher observes may be relevant to the research problem one is investigating, so the researcher's notes should be as comprehensive as possible. In order to give meaning to the observations, the researcher must be able to categorise the events he or she observes so that can be taken. Miller and Crabtree (1992:19) address the following categories:

- *Acts*. Action is a situation that is brief, consuming only a few seconds, minutes, or hours.
- *Activities*. Action is a setting of more major duration - days, weeks, months constituting significant elements of persons' *involvement*.
- *Meanings*. The verbal productions of participants that define and direct action.
- *Participation*. Person's holistic *involvement*, or adaptation to a situation or setting under study.
- *Relationships*. Interrelationships among several persons considered simultaneously.
- *Settings*. The entire setting under study conceived as the unit of analysis.

The above categories proposed by Miller and Crabtree (1992:19) are suitable in this thesis. *Grade 1 teachers'* competency is of paramount importance to *curriculum* effectiveness in two crucial ways. On the one hand, it directly influences the interpretation of the *curriculum* in actual teaching-learning situation. On the other hand, it determines the extent to which teachers can confidently and realistically participate in *curriculum decision-making* and development activities.

3.7.5 Taking field notes

Eisner (1993:35) shows that qualitative studies tend to be field focused. In education, those conducting research go out to schools, visit classrooms and observe teachers. Fieldwork is the central activity of qualitative evaluation methods. Going into the field means having direct and personal contact with people in the programme in their own environments. Qualitative approaches emphasise the importance of getting close to the people and situations being studied in order to understand personally the realities of and initiate daily program life. The evaluator gets close to the people under study through physical proximity for a period of time, as well as through development of closeness in the social sense of shared experience and confidentiality.

Bogdewic (1992:58) indicates that field notes represent an attempt to provide a literal account of what happened in the field setting – the social processes and their contexts. Here are some suggestions that were followed by the researcher in this study for taking field notes. Regardless of the personal philosophy the researcher develops toward doing qualitative research, these suggestions will allow the researcher to gather data more efficiently.

- *Put notes down as quickly as possible.* If the researcher cannot record conversation or events verbatim, an outline of what happens should be jotted down. As soon as the opportunity presents itself, jotting should be transcribed into full and coherent versions of the researcher's observations. There is often a temptation to wait until later before transcribing the notes. After a late meeting of the group the researcher is observing, for example, he may want to go straight to bed and transcribe notes in the morning (Miller and Crabtree 1992:65).

- *Segregate observation from opinions.* What the researcher observed and the interpretation of the observations may be two different things. What the researcher observed in one place should be put down. The interpretations of the event should be recorded separately. In fact, observations and interpretations should not be lumped together (May 1997:144).

- *Train your memory*. In many settings, it is inappropriate or impossible to take notes. It is off-putting to whip out a researcher's notebook and begin to take notes over dinner. Usually the researcher will have to wait for a more convenient time to put on paper what one has been told. A researcher's memory should be trained so that it can be done accurately. There are all sorts of ways to train the researcher's memory. For example, in a conversation, the researcher should not start thinking about how one will respond to a comment. A researcher should learn to listen to what is being said instead. When the researcher enters a new setting, he should not let himself or herself be overwhelmed by visual stimuli; look at each part of the setting and verbalise what is seen (Silverman 1992:36).

- *Forget your concern about saving trees when recording field notes*. When taking notes, the researcher should not skimp on the paper. The researcher should leave sufficient margins so that materials can be added and particular topics from the annotations located. Only one side of each sheet of paper should be used. Eventually, the researcher will photocopy notes and then cut them up so that topics of interest should be grouped. There is always the possibility that the researcher will lose notes, especially if he is in a dynamic research situation or travelling from place to place in the course of his research. The researcher protects his work by making photocopies as soon as he can (Bogdewic 1992:65).

- *Use mechanical aids to facilitate note taking and transcription when you can*. Pocket tape recorders are marvellous inventions. Often, they permit verbatim recordings of conversation, meetings, and other social interactions. But such devices must be used with caution. Some individuals are not comfortable if they realise that their comments are being recorded. In addition to tape recorders, other mechanical devices can often be of use in qualitative research. Sometimes, for example, it is possible to use a camera to make visual records of a situation or an event. How many people attended the meeting? What was the neighbourhood like the day after the riot? What was the appearance of the informant's home? Photographs can help answer questions like these (Lumadi 1995:33).

3.7.6 The value and logic of qualitative research

The following are alternative constructs that more accurately reflect the assumptions of the qualitative paradigm. The first is *credibility*, in which the goal is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described. The inquiry then must be "credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities" (Marshall and Rossman 1990:143).

The second construct is *transferability*, in which the burden of demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests more with the investigator who would make that transfer than with the original investigator. Zyzanski (1992:23) maintains that qualitative research designs are often very labour intensive, intrusive and require a substantial time commitment from those involved. A qualitative research proposal should respond to concerns that the natural subjectivity of the researcher will shape the research. Again, the researcher should assert the strengths of the qualitative study. Some understanding should be gained, even empathy, for the research participants, in order to gain entry into their world. The researcher's insights increase the likelihood of describing the complex social system being studied. The researcher, however, should build in strategies for balancing bias in interpretation. Such controls would include the following:

- A research partner or a person who plays "devil's advocate" and critically questions the researcher's analyses
- A constant search for negative instances
- Checking and rechecking the data and purposeful examination of possible rival hypotheses
- Practising value-free note-taking, then taking sets of notes, one with more objective observation and another that allows the researcher to impose some conceptual scheme or metaphors, and to be creative with the data in ways that might prove useful for more formal analysis.
- Devising tests to check analyses and applying the tests to the data, asking questions of the data (Marshall and Rossman 1990:126).

Dollase (1992:11) states that qualitative research puts flesh and blood on the skeleton and helps us to get the realities of human life. The qualitative researcher should be familiar with the issues in data quality control and analysis, and should display an ability to

develop strategies that are appropriate to the research. Clearly, criteria of soundness for qualitative research differ from the criteria developed for experimental and positivist research. Still, it is helpful to articulate the parallels and differences. Qualitative research does not pretend to be replicable. The researcher's goal of discovering this complexity by altering research strategies within a flexible research design, moreover, cannot be replicated by future researchers, nor should it be attempted. Attention to these standards helps ensure a sound and reasonable research proposal. Marshall and Rossman (1990:125) elaborate on a number of standards for judging qualitative study reports, arguing that proposal writers should design, conduct, and report their studies with various criteria in mind.

The qualitative study is explicated in detail so that the reader can judge whether it is adequate. An articulate rationale of the use of qualitative methods is given so that sceptics will accept the approach. The methods for attaining entry and managing one's role, data collection, recording, analysis, ethics, and exit are discussed. There is an audibility trail - a running record of procedures (often done in an appendix) - and there is a description of how the site and sample were selected. Data collection and analysis procedures are public, not magical. Assumptions are stated. Biases are expressed, and the researcher does a kind of self-analysis for personal biases and a framework analysis for theoretical biases. The researcher also guards against value judgements in data collection and in analysis (Lumadi 1995:34).

There is abundant evidence from raw data to demonstrate the connection between the presented findings and the real world, and the data are presented in readable, accessible form, perhaps aided by graphics, models, charts, and figures. The research questions are stated, and the study answers those questions and generates further questions. The relationship between this study and others is explicit. Definitions of phenomena are provided, with explicit reference to previously identified phenomena, but it is clear that the research goes beyond previously established frameworks. The study is reported in a manner that is accessible to other researchers, practitioners, and policy makers. It makes adequate translation of findings so that other researcher will be able to use the findings in a timely way (Norr 1994:121).

The report acknowledges the limitations of generalisability while assisting the readers to see the transferability of findings. Observations are made (or sampled) of a full range of activities, over a full cycle of activities. The researcher is careful about the sensitivity of

those being researched - ethical standards are maintained. People in the research setting benefit in some way (ranging from getting a free meal, or an hour of sympathetic listening, to being empowered to throw off their chains). The study is tied into "the big picture". The researcher looks holistically at the setting to understand linkages among systems. The researcher traces the historical context to understand how institutions and roles have evolved (Marshall and Rossman 1990:195).

Grade 1 teachers have always been the real *curriculum* designers, irrespective of whether they have realised it or not. They have always engaged in modifying the *curriculum* prepared at the centre to make an operational *curriculum* appropriate to their particular classroom. The knowledge of the researcher in this study, also entails an understanding and description of qualities.

3.8 PHASES OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

The data collection steps involve setting the boundaries of the data collection through observations, interviews, documents and visual materials, and establish the protocol for recording information. The researcher must identify the parameters for the data collection. Beyond this general parameter researchers should consider four parameters, as follows the setting; the actors; the events and the process (Creswell 1994:149).

According to Miller and Crabtree (1992:13) qualitative research has approximately five important phases of data collection and analysis. These phases are not called procedures, but data collection and analysis strategies because they are ways that can be followed in order to collect data. A brief discussion on each of them follows.

3.8.1 Phase 1: Planning

Jennett (1994:100) stresses that researchers analyse the problem statement and the anticipated research question that focuses on the data collection. Good research becomes effective when the researcher analyses the situation, formulates outcomes, improves the programme, maintains and evaluates the *curriculum* in order to develop. Questions should be based upon needs and experience. Researchers also describe the kind of setting

or sites, the type of interviews, the documents that would seem logically to yield information about the problem. Researchers also gain permission to use the site and a network of persons.

3.8.2 Phase 2: Beginning data collection

Zyzanski *et al.* (1992: 235) show that the researcher is the main instrument for both data collection and analysis. In this phase the researcher establishes rapport, trust and reciprocal relations with individuals and groups to be observed. The researcher obtains data primarily to become oriented to the filed and to gain a sense of the totality of the setting, for purposeful sampling. Few people are interviewed in this phase in a network and begins the snowball sampling technique. The researcher polishes the interviewing and recording procedures.

3.8.3 Phase 3: Basic data collection

Here the researcher begins to hear, see, and to read what is going on, rather than just listening, or scanning documents. The researcher continues to make choices of data collection strategies and informants. Initial working conceptualisations and descriptions are transformed and summarised. As initial patterns emerge, the researcher identifies ideas and facts that need corroboration in the closing phase (Norr 1994:116).

3.8.4 Phase 4: Choosing data collection

Data collection draws too close as the researcher leaves the field and when he conducts the last interview (May 1997:144).

3.8.5 Phase 5: Completion

The construction of meaningful ways to present the data can be termed as completion. Data analysis begins with a construction of the facts as found in the researcher-recorded data. The researcher reconstructs initial diagrams and network diagrams, and processes figures, to synthesise a holistic sense of the totality, which is the relationship to the parts of the whole (Herbert 1992:131).

3.8.6 The primacy of data

Holloway (1997:7) observes that the researcher enters the field with an open mind. The researchers usually approach people with the aim of finding out about them; the researchers go to the participants to collect the rich and in-depth data that may become the basis for theorising. The research design cannot be strictly predefined before the start of the research. In qualitative research the data have priority. A research project is not predetermined but based on the incoming data. The approach to social science is, initially at least, inductive. Researchers move from the specific to the general; from the data to the theory. They must be open-minded, though they cannot help having some thoughts about what they may find.

School-Based Curriculum Development may be required for a number of rationales. Special needs of learners may require individualised *curriculum* materials which are not be found commercially.

3.8.7 The "emic" perspective

Qualitative researchers explore the ideas and perceptions of the participants, the insiders' views, and search for commonalities. Such researchers attempt to examine the experiences, feelings and perceptions of the people they study, rather than imposing a framework of their own that might distort the ideas of the participants. Qualitative research is based on the premise that individuals are best placed to describe situations and

feelings in their own words. The qualitative approach requires empathetic understanding; that is, the investigators must try to examine the situations, events and actions from the participants - the social actors' point of view, and not impose their own perspective. This does not mean that the researchers never theorise or infer from observed behaviour or participants' words, for they often do (Cresswell 1994:45).

Qualitative researchers are interested in meaning - how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world. Qualitative research can be viewed as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires or machines. Moreover, qualitative research is descriptive in that the researcher is interested in process, meaning and understanding gained through words or pictures. The process of qualitative research is inductive in that the researcher builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from details (Silverman 1992:24).

Grade 1 teachers' autonomy in making judgements about learners and the teaching learning situation is perceived by most *curriculumists* as an attributing factor in favour of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum development*. The plight of having *grade 1 teachers* deeply involved in analysing their *curriculum* issues does not condone the abandoning of external *curriculum development* initiatives, support and expertise. Neither does it underestimate the significance of theory and pedagogy in *curriculum development*.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Several components might comprise the plan for analysing the data. The process of data analysis is eclectic; there is no right way. Metaphors and analogies are as appropriate as open-ended questions. Data analysis requires that the researcher be comfortable with developing categories and making companions and contrasts. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.3 paragraphs 4.3.1-4.3.10). It also requires that the researcher be open to possibilities and to seeing contrary or alternative explanations for the findings (Creswell 1994:153).

According to Jennett (1994:103) the data analysis approaches must always be chosen to match the questions being posed, and must be appropriate to the assumptions in place. Several points can guide the development of the analysis of quantitative data. It should be suggested in the plan that the data analysis will be conducted as an activity simultaneously with data collection, data interpretation and narrative reporting writing. In qualitative analysis several simultaneous activities engage the attention of the researcher. Information should be collected into categories, and also be formatted into a story or picture.

Creswell (1994:154) goes on to support the concept of displays of information: a spatial format that presents information systematically to the reader. These displays are tables of tabular information. They show the relationship among categories of information, displaying categories by informants, site, demographic variables, chronology of the information, role ordering and many other possibilities. "A qualitative study allows conclusions to be drawn on the basis of personal observation as well as consideration and evaluation of data without an interpretation of purely empirical data" (De Klerk *et al.* 1998:30), while Hakim (1992:27) defines qualitative research as concerned with individuals' own accounts of their attitudes, motivations and behaviours.

In order to achieve an in-depth understanding, the qualitative researchers utilize a variety of methods and data collection strategies (multi-methods). The most important common strategy used is participant observation, which could be supplemented by collection of relevant documents and informal interviewing.

In the preceding explanation, the researcher has pointed out that what matters most is the categories and concepts, not their incidence and frequency. This argument is qualified by Brannen (1992:4) who notes that the researchers must use themselves as the tool, attending to their own cultural assumptions as well as to the data. Essential to responsive *SBCD* in this case are responsive, sensitive *grade 1 teachers*. These are the participants who daily face groups of learners and who are responsible for the instructional process.

3.9.1 Content Analysis

Marshall and Rossman (1990:98) show that content analysis involves the systematic examination of the contents of research (qualitative) data to record the relative incidence (frequencies) of themes and the ways in which these themes are portrayed. It is used to examine information or content, or symbolic material such as pictures, words, meanings, ideas, themes, movies, song lyrics, or any message that can be communicated.

Content analysis clearly defines the phenomenon to be analysed, and the research question should inform this process. It also defines the universe of appropriate analysis units and also focuses on the "typical" and/ or the "representative" rather than on research biases. A description of how the units of analysis are coded is presented and often requires the coding of latent meaning or intention reflected in the units of analysis. The body of material to be analysed is identified and a system for recording specific aspects of it is created, e.g. counting how often certain words or themes occur, and often a graphic or tabular representation is made.

Furthermore, content analysis trains the coders of qualitative data properly to ascertain inter-rate reliability where the use of qualitative analytical software is absent and it is used for exploratory and explanatory research (most often used in descriptive research). Content analysis procedures, as reflected in figure 3.3, of qualitative strategies in educational research are employed by all kinds of researchers and have a wide application. Paradoxically, content analysis requires qualitative researchers to devise and follow systematic procedures (Wolcott 1992:36). The phenomenon to be analysed is clearly illustrated in the discussion. This is qualified by the merits and demerits of content analysis discussed below.

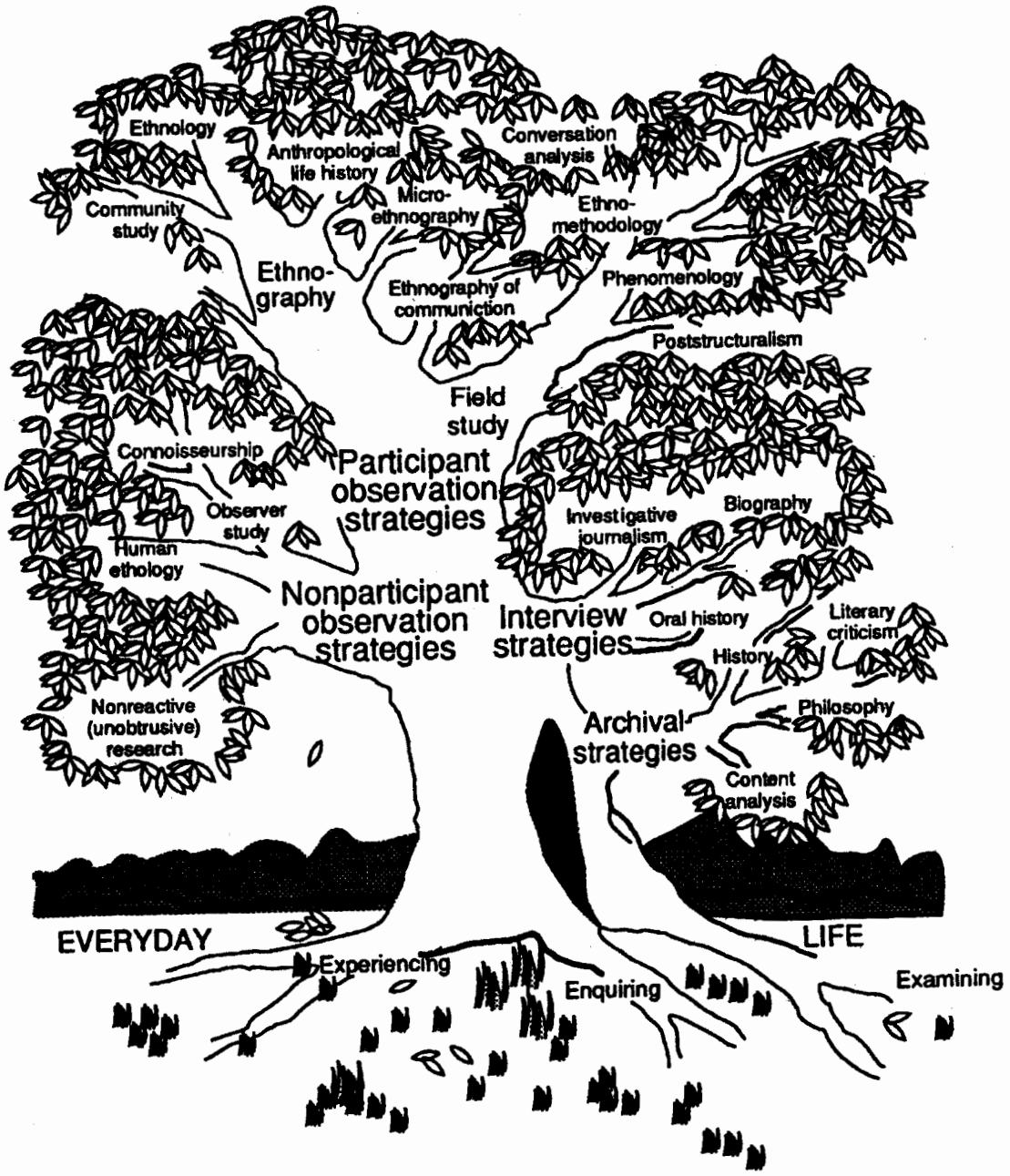


Figure 3.3 Qualitative strategies in Educational Research

Adapted from LeCompte *et al.* (1992:23)

3.9.1.1 Merits and demerits of content analysis

The strength of content analysis on the one hand involves random sampling, precise measurement, and operational definitions of abstract constructs. Research can compare content across many texts and analyse it with quantitative techniques (e.g. charts and tables). Research can (therefore) reveal aspects of the text that are difficult to see (e.g. the

absence of people of colour in local TV adverts). The research uses non-reactive measures and therefore suits the study of sensitive issues.

The weaknesses of qualitative content analysis on the other hand do not command much respect amongst social scientists (particularly those with positivistic orientations): the analysis is often quite tedious and redundant because it requires expertise which inexperienced researchers may not possess. Thus, if the theoretical frame can be determined, a more systematic basis for the content analysis can be established, one that classifies and controls the ideological premises guiding the device of questions and interpretation of results (LeCompte and Preissle 1992:819).

3.9.1.2 The illustrative method and variations

The illustrative method uses empirical evidence to anchor or illustrate an existing theory. Researchers apply a specific theory to a concrete historical situation or social setting. Data is organised on the basis of an existing theory (Pitman and Maxwell 1992:953). Variations show that the theoretical model illuminates or clarifies a specific case or single situation. Parallel demonstration of a model in which a researcher juxtaposes multiple cases shows that theory can be applied in multiple cases. Researchers also use material from multiple cases to illustrate a specific theory (Strauss and Corbin 1990: 255).

Here, too, the researcher's evidence will support an existing theory by developing ideas from induction. *Grade 1 teachers'* adaptation of the *curriculum* and their attempts to introduce changes in existing texts raise the problem of adherence to curricular guidelines.

3.9.1.3 Analytic comparison

Researchers develop ideas about regularities or patterned relations from pre-existing theories or induction. The focus is then shifted to a few regularities, on the basis of which the researcher then makes contrasts with alternative explanations. Regularities that are

not limited to a specific context (time, place, group, etc.) are then sought (Jansen and Peshkin 1992:707). *Curriculum* analysis may help *grade 1 teachers* to recognise the special characteristics of *curriculum* materials. Such insight may aid *involvement* in their efforts to interpret materials and to plan their lessons on the basis of this interpretation.

3.9.2 Methods of agreement versus difference

The method of agreement focuses on what is common across the research cases and is much stronger than the latter. Besides it first locates research cases that are significantly similar but also differ in other crucial ways. A common outcome is always established by a researcher on the method of agreement, then an attempt is made at locating a common cause.

Furthermore, the method of difference pinpoints features that are related regarding outcome and causal factors and also pinpoints another set of cases that vary in outcomes and causal factors. The method of agreement proceeds by a process of elimination whereas the method of difference reinforces information from both positive and negative cases. It therefore presents a holistic look at the cause and outcome relationship between research variables (Webb and Glesne 1992:772).

3.9.3 Steps for qualitative data analysis

Marshall and Rossman (1990:112) stress that data analysis is the process of bringing order structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. They are of the opinion that six steps for qualitative data analysis may be formalised:

Step 1: reads data notes with serious concentration to details.
Step 2: mentally repackages details into organising ideas.
Step 3: constructs new ideas from notes on subjective meanings or from the researcher's organising ideas.
Step 4: looks for relationships among ideas and put them into sets on the basis of logical

similarity.

Step 5: organises them into larger groups by comparing and contrasting the sets of ideas.

Step 6: reorganises and links the groups together with broader integrating themes (Marshall and Rossman (1990:113).

Data analysis for qualitative research is not a linear but an iterative process. The researcher's analysis in this study starts immediately after the first data are collected and proceeds simultaneously with data collection.

3.9.3.1 Pure standards

It is of paramount importance that there should always be pure standards against which the data or "reality" can be compared and also a device used for comparison, because no reality ever fits an ideal type. This will be appropriate in verifying collected data.

3.9.3.2 The context contrast approach

The context contrast approach is appropriate in this study because it often utilises cases with dramatic contrasts to accentuate the specific and unique aspects of research phenomena. It seeks to show how specific circumstances, cultural meanings, and the perspectives of specific individuals are central for understanding a social setting or process (Carspecken and Apple 1992:507). The data collected from *grade 1 teachers* will vary from school to school.

3.10 RELIABILITY

In collecting data, the reliability of the data improves if the researcher has no preconceived ideas. In this study the researcher will be non-directive regarding the interviewee's responses and will not persuade them to take a certain stance. According to Silverman (1992:145) "reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances

are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions."

3.10.1 Types of reliability

Researchers improve reliability in their design by attending to aspects such as researcher role, informant selection, social context, data collection strategies, data analysis strategies and lastly analytical premises. The following three kinds of reliability are identified by (Silverman 1992:143):

3.10.1.1 Quixotic reliability

This reliability refers to the circumstances in which a single method of observation continually yields an unvarying measurement. This kind of reliability can be trivial and misleading. The fact that the question in an interview elicits a predictable response does not imply that the response relates to what interviewees say and do in various situations.

Jones (1994:66) stresses that qualitative research lends itself to story telling. Research can discover the same phenomenon, on which there is agreement about the description of the phenomenon. Qualitative researchers address reliability issues in designing their studies and in their data collection strategies. Reliability in qualitative research refers to the consistency of the researcher's data recording, data analysis and interpretation skills.

3.10.1.2 Diachronic reliability

Diachronic reliability has to do with the stability of an observation through time and the fact that ways of defining advice sequence work well with data from different durations. Lumadi (1995:34) avers that the reliability of the data improves if the interviewer has no misleading questions at his or her disposal. The researcher must simply be non-directive with regard to the respondent's reactions and may in no way lead the respondents to adopt certain viewpoints.

Most qualitative researchers devise roles that elicit co-operation, trust, openness and acceptance. It should be borne in mind that qualitative research, compared to quantitative research, has fewer threats to internal validity and different strategies to minimise those threats. It is also important for field researchers to be aware of ethical responsibilities and legal constraints in collecting and reporting data.

3.10.1.3 Sychronic reliability

This addresses the similarity of observation within the same period. Triangulation is a standard way through which it is assessed. The triangulation of research methods and data entry points is helpful in qualitative research to confirm the reliability and validity interpretations (Zyzanski *et al.* 1992:190).

Qualitative research allows everybody to have something to say in the decisions taken by educators in the school setup. By so doing other people will be given a chance to raise their views, opinions, motivations and their perceptions in the decision to be taken. Reliability deals with accuracy and it asks one question above all others: With what accuracy does the technique measure what it is supposed to measure? (Leedy 1993: 42).

To avoid any form of bias on the part of the researcher which will have a negative impact on the result, qualitative data should be reliable. The reliability of data depends primarily on the unprejudiced approach of the researcher towards the themes that are under investigation, e.g. *grade 1 teacher involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*. The aspect of validity will be addressed in the following discussion.

3.11 VALIDITY

For qualitative data to be more valid, it is quite imperative for a researcher to investigate in depth the problem he or she intends investigating. The problem to be investigated should be addressed in advance. A serious threat to the validity of one's findings by means of qualitative research is a weakly defined data analysis protocol. According to

Gay (1996:138): "Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure and consequently permits appropriate interpretation of scores". There are two types of validity in qualitative design, internal and external validity. The validity and reliability of qualitative data depend to a great extent on the methodological skill, sensitivity, and training of the researcher. Systematic and rigorous observation involves more than just being present and looking around. Skilful interviewing involves much more than just asking questions.

3.11.1 Types of validity in qualitative design

May (1997:68) says that research is valid when the conclusions are true. It is reliable when the findings are repeatable. Both reliability and validity are requirements for the design and the measurement of research. At the level of research design, the researcher examines the conclusions and asks whether they are true and repeatable. The internal validity of qualitative design means that there is a degree to which the interpretations and concepts have mutual meanings for the participants and the researchers. There are various strategies that increase internal validity, namely:

(a) Duration of data collection

This provides opportunities for continual data analysis and comparison, so as to refine ideas. In the context of this study, it will be incumbent upon the researcher to see to it that there is a sufficient period for collecting and analysing data.

(b) Participants' language

Informant interviews are matched closely to the participants' language. The informant is viewed by some social science researchers as both pejorative and inadequate to capture the relationship between the researcher and the individual providing information (Gilchrist 1992:70).

(c) Field research

Silverman (1992: 28) shows that field research's flexibility allows theory development to be pursued. Participant observation and in-depth interviews are conducted more accurately. Historically, it occurs in natural situations.

(d) Discipline and subjectivity

Research self-monitoring, called discipline and subjectivity, submits all phases of the research process to continuous and rigorous questioning and re-evaluation. Qualitative research is criticised frequently as lacking rigour, as being subjective rather than objective, as producing soft results, and as lacking generalisability beyond the individuals and circumstances of study (Zyzanski *et al.* 1992:244).

(e) Threat to internal validity

Threats to internal validity are selection attrition, observer and alternative explanations.

(f) External validity of qualitative designs

Schumacher and MacMillan (1993:394) define external validity as the degree to which the research design is adequately described, so that researchers may use the study to extend the findings to other studies.

(g) Threat to external validity of qualitative designs

According to May (1997:173) qualitative content analysis starts with the idea of process, or social content, and views the author as a self conscious author addressing an audience under particular circumstances. There are limitations to external validity of qualitative designs such as selection of effects, setting effects, historical effects and theoretical effects. Qualitative research thus presents facts in a narration with words. It is based

more on what is called a naturalistic phenomenological philosophy, which assumes that multiple realities are socially constructed through individual and collective definitions of the situation.

If the researcher looks at the research purpose, it may be found that qualitative research is more concerned with understanding the social phenomenon from the participants perspectives. In this study the researcher should identify constraints in *curriculum development*. The researcher should also state needs, specify outcomes, identify and analyse alternative strategies, and establish selection criterion as reflected in figure 3.4. In this thesis the researcher can give examples of *grade 1 teachers* who are implementing this new approach of *OBE*. To find out which methods of teaching and learning they are using when facilitating the learning process in the classroom situation, this can be done by means of asking questions through interviews and questionnaires (Bogdewic 1992:56).

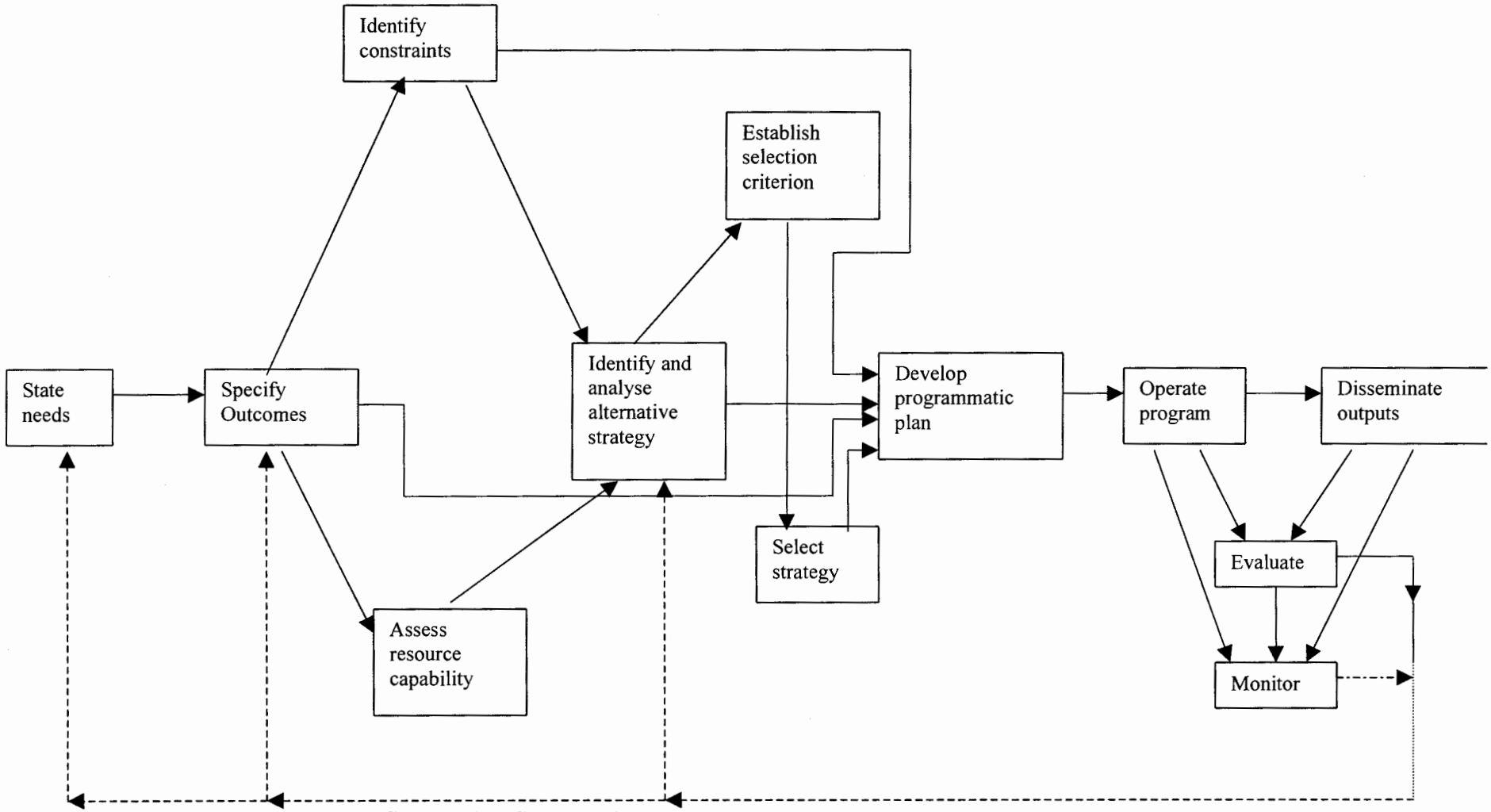


Figure 3.4. *Curriculum development* Steps using Systems Approach

Adapted from Saylor (1993:109)

Willms, Johnson, White, Miller and Crabtree (1992:190) show that qualitative studies enable investigators to examine problems and events from the perspective of the actor. A qualitative researcher uses an emergent design and makes decisions about the data collection strategies during the cause of the study. To add to the above understanding of the social phenomenon, the researcher also, needs to participate in the life of those actors in a research role. In other words the design of that particular research will be determined by the information collected and interpretation thereof, that is, it is established after the implementation of data collection strategies.

Qualitative scholars emphasise the importance of data collected by a skilled, prepared person which is marked by disciplined subjectivity, self-examination, criticism of the quality of the data obtained, and contains an indication of the problems encountered. To elaborate on the above, qualitative research needs skills, commitment and self-control so that objectivity and, constructive criticism of the collected information should be maintained. When it comes to the importance of the context in the study, the qualitative researcher believes that human actions are strongly influenced by the setting in which they occur, i.e. the conditions and circumstances of the phenomenon need to be considered (Gilchrist 1992:74).

In terms of Miller and Crabtree (1992:10), qualitative research is a "naturalistic enquiry". It is thus the use of non-entering data collection strategies to discover the natural flow of events and processes, and how participants interpret them. The "naturalistic" concept here refers to phenomenology. That is, the situation should not be disturbed. It should be studied as it is in a non-disturbed environment, and the researcher, too, should interrupt and report the results as they are without modifications. In qualitative research, the active observation and participation of the researcher is emphasised. However, to be objective in interpreting the events and results, the researcher needs to abandon his or her state of mind, beliefs and predetermined conceptions.

To study and analyse the object of study in a "particular context" means that the research should be specific. Therefore generalisation is usually not the immediate purpose of the

qualitative researcher. Objectivity and neutrality are encouraged, rather than traditional beliefs. For example, to observe "one woman driving recklessly" and then quickly conclude that "all women are bad drivers" can taint the research through men's traditional views. Although the field of study is specific and limited, to reach a point of generalisation needs disciplined subjectivity. The issue here should be a developed context-bound generalisation by probing deeper into the context, until a large, representative population from a small field is covered (Gay 1996: 219).

Willms, Johnson, White, Miller and Crabtree (1992:189) stress that qualitative approaches often are viewed as a vehicle to generate hypotheses and to identify problems for later positivistic research. The primary sources constitute firsthand information and knowledge such as eyewitness reports and original documents. The eyewitnesses might be local people residing in the particular setting where research is conducted.

In the preceding discussion, it was evident that qualitative research is a naturalistic inquiry which states that multiple realities are socially constructed through individual and collective definitions of the situation. Because qualitative study involves active *involvement* of researchers, *grade 1 teachers* are the best people to collect intensive data on many variables. In this cases the variables refer to the school, *grade 1 teachers,* learners and the *curriculum* over an extended period. The researcher will elaborate on qualitative research as a remedy for *SBCD* problems in the subsequent discussion.

3.12 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH AS A PANACEA IN *SBCD* PROBLEMS

SBCD implies teacher participation. This statement can be problematic, because it might indicate that other stakeholders such as parents, the principal and the community are not important participants. This problem can however, be solved by applying qualitative research methods, because the relationship between the researcher and the researched subject would be close and based on a position of their equality as human beings. Therefore qualitative research designs will create an atmosphere of equality (compare chapter 1, item1.6.5, chapter 2, paragraph 2.1.2.6, chapter 4, item 4.3.3 and chapter 5

item 5.1). between *grade 1 teachers*, principals, learners and the community at large because they are characterised as unique and also flexible (Zyzanski *et al.* 1992:232).

Kuzel (1992:31) in support of Zyzanski *et al.* (1992:232) avers that qualitative research generally begins with theory that is to be modified in the context of the study. Qualitative research methods have been commonly used in research documenting the experience of *SBCD*, and in the research into the functioning of organisations, though it has been of being used less frequently in the assessment of outcomes of treatment. This is because the testing of causal hypotheses takes place in a context that subscribes to the traditional, positivist view of science, which requires adherence to the scientific method and uses experimental research designs and standardised methods. While qualitative methods are not designed to test causal hypotheses, it is appropriate for the investigator to exercise curiosity and to devise qualified hypotheses about cause and effect relationships in relation to the phenomenon observed. The qualitative investigator has the advantage of getting close to the research material, and can obtain a great deal of in-depth information that can be tested in subsequent quantitative studies if necessary and appropriate.

Print (1993:21) maintains that *SBCD* does not of necessity need to be a whole-school exercise. The exercise in *SBCD* could apply to a few classes. This might pose problems because others will necessarily be spectators and this could create ineffective teaching in the school. Qualitative research can solve this problem because the qualitative research emphasis on process has been particularly beneficial in educational research, in clarifying the self-fulfilling prophecy. This is the idea that learners' cognitive performance in school is affected by teachers' expectations. Qualitative strategies have suggested just how the expectations are translated into daily activities, procedures and interactions (Biklen 1992:29).

SBCD has its own problems that can easily be solved if qualitative research is incorporated during the solving process. Concerning the definition of *SBCD,* different authors come up with closely related definitions which differ in their connotations. Skilbeck (1990:2) defines *curriculum* in *SBCD* as internal and organic to the institution,

thus not an intrinsic imposition. Print (1993:30) regards *SBCD* as the development of a *curriculum* or an aspect of it, by one or more teachers in a school population, that is, an on-site resolution, in *curriculum* terms, of problems experienced with the existing curricula.

Skilbeck (1992:3) says that the development is done internally, and is thus also organic to the school. It means that *grade 1 teachers* and the principal are responsible for the development of the *curriculum* of their school or institution without input from the community and the administrators who are knowledgeable regarding *curriculum* issues. It is the duty of the qualitative researcher to visit the situation and make a thorough analysis, taking into consideration the different (stakeholders) the researcher will obtain information from. This researcher will use purposeful sampling where the *grade 1 teachers* are going to be interviewed concerning the development of the *curriculum* in their institution.

The principal and the *grade 1* staff may, for instance, decide to incorporate Technical Education, to be taught right from *Grade 1* onwards as we are living in a technological world which is in dire need of technical skills. The researcher must then see to it that the proposed development is in line with the needs of the learners in the particular school. The society must also benefit from the development done and it must have a purpose. *Grade 1 teachers* are also expected to be good researchers in order to evaluate the *curriculum* at their institutions. The development of *curriculum* must be done, but the community at large must be involved before implementation takes place. Parents must have a say in the education of their learners, so that they should be involved in the decision-making and development of the *curriculum* (Schein 1992:83).

3.12.1 Process evaluation in *SBCD*

Process evaluations are aimed at elucidating and understanding the internal dynamics of programme operations. They focus on the following kinds of questions: What are the factors that come together to make this programme what it is? What are the strengths and

weaknesses of the program? How are clients brought into the programme and how do they move through the programme once they are participants? What is the nature of staff-client interactions? In this case, such questions refer to the role played by *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*.

Process evaluations most typically require a detailed description of programme operations. Such descriptions may be based on observations and or interviews with staff, clients, and program administrators. It should however be noted that tension exists between subjectivity and objectivity in the interviewing process (May 1997:114).

Bookbinder (1992:192) stresses that the process *focus* in an evaluation implies an emphasis on looking at how a product or outcome is produced, rather than looking at the product itself, that is, it is an analysis of the processes whereby a program produces the results it does. This is illustrated in figure 3.6. The process evaluations are developmental, descriptive, continuous, flexible and inductive. The researcher first needs to find a process, to improve that which is based on the needs of the *grade 1 teacher*. Once boundaries are established the researcher needs to be organised in order to become more knowledgeable. The knowledge the researcher accumulates in a qualitative form will enable him to improve the process by formulating guidelines. It is also incumbent upon researchers to obtain information about the person's operation. It is through this knowledge that the researcher will clarify what is known about the process. The researcher can realize this by gaining an understanding of how the process differs over time and of the causes of process variation. The process of improvement can be based on sources of variations in process (Dunn *et al.* 1994:93).

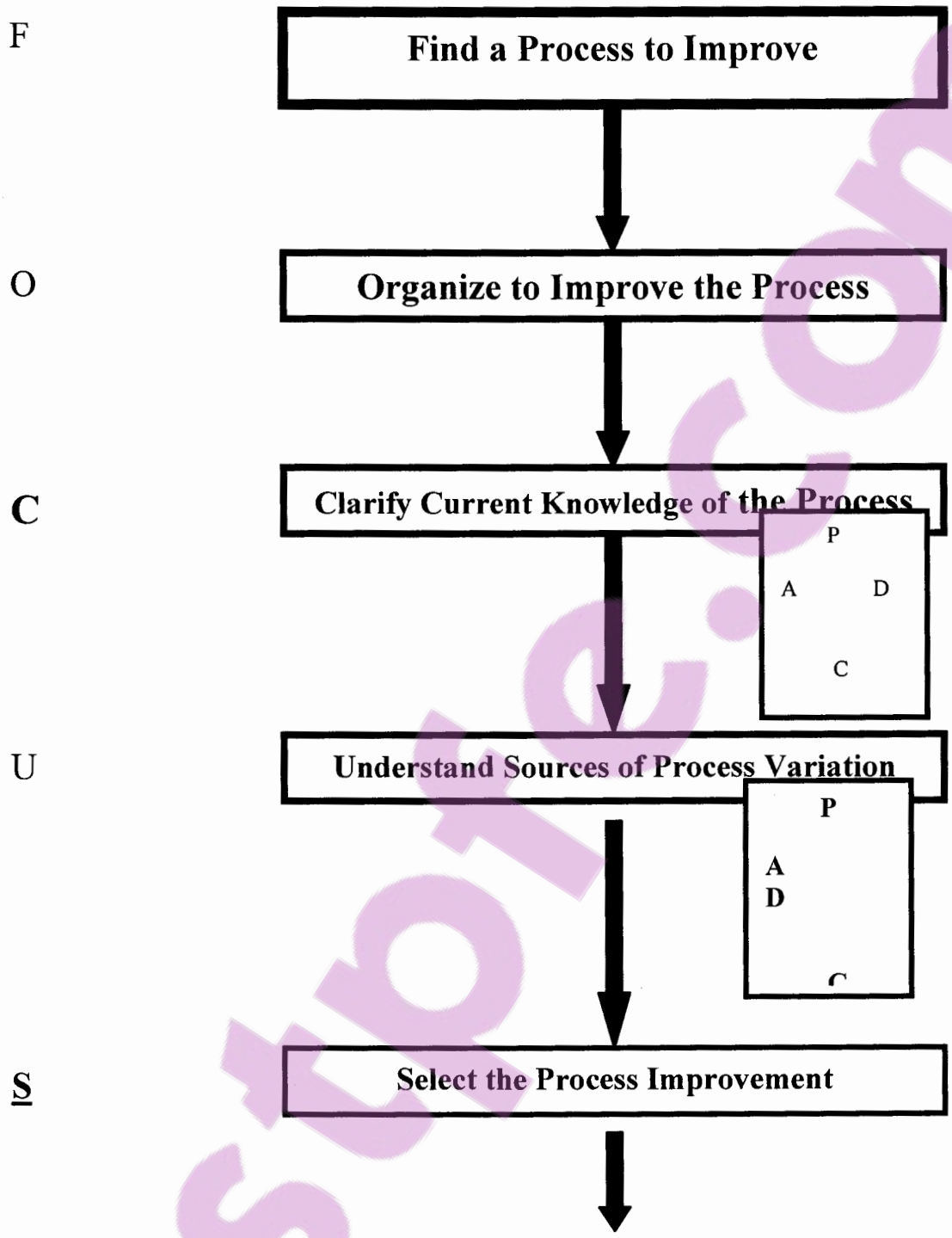


Figure 3.5 The Focus Strategy

Adapted from Bookbinder (1994:193)

Furthermore, the process evaluations require sensitivity to both qualitative and quantitative change in programmes throughout their development, which means becoming intimately acquainted with the details of the programme. They consider not only formal activities and anticipated outcomes, but they also investigate informal patterns and unanticipated consequences in the full context of programme implementation and development. Finally, they usually include the perceptions of people close to the programme about how things are going. A variety of perspectives may be sought from stakeholders with dissimilar relationships to the programme – inside and outside sources may provide information on how to improve their present situations. The future is the anchor: all planning starts from insights into learners' future life-roles. Future behaviours become the outcomes towards which all teaching and learning are geared (Naicker 1999:87).

Process evaluations are particularly useful for revealing areas in which programmes can be improved as well as highlighting those strengths of the programme which should be preserved. They are also useful in permitting people not intimately involved in the programme – for example, external funders, public officials and external agencies – to understand how a programme operates.

3.12.2 External Evaluation in *SBCD*

The opinion of self-critical community in *SBCD* entails a genuine acceptance of *School-Based Curriculum development* as an autonomous task team. This in turn, yields a crisis of responsibility, which is a bone of contention in *SBCD.*

Pitman and Maxwell (1996:762) point out that participant observation in evaluation research may be more observational. With regard to school-based *curriculum,* developing team as autonomous implies that responsibility is a two-way process. Those who control the distribution of resources are responsible for performance. Evaluation in *SBCD* must include both these elements. It must inquire into the quality of the work done, and into the conditions and available opportunities which contain what can be done.

The process involved in *SBCD* and the evaluative aspects of *SBCD* should be seen as negotiations between the various parties involved in the school. The word negotiations is stressed because the community of participants in *SBCD* must see itself as having been engaged collectively at all stages of the process. For instance, the researcher cannot argue that the subjective judgements of *grade 1 teachers* have validity and then argue that the similar processes employed by parents have none. The crux of the matter is that the range of skills seen as currently available in schools can be effectively widened (Shiundu and Omulando 1992:18).

Print (1993:18) says that evaluative approaches which require the services of an external agency are prevalent. If it appears necessary that there be an external validation of *SBCD*, then external evaluation may be required. If a particular *SBCD* is controversial, then an independent evaluation by a disinternal group may be of necessity. Furthermore, it should be noted that external evaluations of *SBCD* should be meta-evaluations of the school's own internal evaluation processes. Otherwise, outside evaluation may be varied as a challenge to the integrity of the school in general; the purposes of *SBCD* are best served by supporting and enhancing the capacity for self-criticism in the school, not by calling the group to account for the quality of the outcome itself.

3.12.3 Participation in *SBCD*

Brady (1990:14) avers that the role of one or more teachers in the development of *curriculum* is vital. It means that one or more *grade 1 teachers* may have authority in the development of the *curriculum*. It appears that not all teachers of an institution are to take part in the development process. It is thus wise to involve all *grade 1 teachers*, as well as the immediate society and a representative of the school governing body, stakeholders, and business people in the development of the *curriculum*. The needs of the community and learners should be taken into account during the process of *curriculum development*. Qualitative research indeed plays an important role in education today, because nowadays *grade 1 teachers* are to be engaged in research process and can compare the education they offer with that of other countries by means of thorough research. Problems

experienced with the existing curricula must be solved by means of making the *curriculum* innovative and able to meet the needs of the learners, as well as those of the community at large. *Curriculum development* is activated by qualitative research because the researchers are involved in addressing educational needs, taking proper cognisance of the learners' needs and the community (Sergiovanni 1992:66).

In this section the researcher will focus on the problems identified by Print (1993: 21) and try to come up with a mechanism of solving them. To start with, assumptions about the world in connection with qualitative research should be noted. Qualitative research is based more on what is called a naturalistic phenomenological philosophy, which means that it is to observe the phenomenon as a reality. In *SBCD* people are involved and encounter problems. Since problems are obstacles that hinder progress they need strategies are needed to solve them. In the process of *SBCD* one of the problems is that of assuming that teachers will be involved in the whole process, without asking them how and what they think about the proposed project.

Deyhle *et al.* (1992:636) stress that qualitative data are always held up to the charge that they only constitute the single opinion of a subjective observer. In order to avoid waste of resources and time, a person who might be interested in this kind of project should take the initiative to first discuss *SBCD* with all the stakeholders, particularly the *grade 1 teachers*. The researcher should find out whether there is enough time to carry out the whole process, i.e. planning, and after planning then reflect and assess to see whether the curricula are being developed.

The question to be addressed is how could one start such a project? A meeting with agenda-driven outcomes can be held so that the people who are going to participate can have a chance to state their position. Another method that can be utilised would be interviewing the prospective stakeholders to find out whether they have expertise as far as *SBCD* is concerned. If not, a workshop could be organised for training all the stakeholders, based on the results and recommendations of qualitative research (Slater and Tedlie 1992:47).

Bogdewic (1992:46) maintains that the fundamental reason to select participant observation, over other research techniques, relates to the significance of the cultural context in answering the research question. It is through qualitative research that the teachers and management of a particular institution will voice their opinion concerning the whole issue. The purpose of qualitative research is to understand the social phenomenon from the participants' perspectives, i.e. the reasons for a problem, e.g. a threatening school climate in which numerous resisters are refusing to co-operate or even to engage in the *SBCD*. The manager of that institution may be failing to see the importance of *SBCD*. The researcher should thus also participate in the life of those who are experiencing the problems, and also be personally involved in the whole situation. The researcher will then have to discuss this with the manager as well as the *grade 1 teachers*.

Norr (1994:116) shows that qualitative research is labour intensive. Through qualitative research, a researcher will be able to understand the reluctance of *grade 1 teachers* when it comes to planning or policy-making. Implementation can also be looked at if there are not enough funds for professional development and relief for *grade 1 teachers'* assistance. Here fundraising strategies could be embarked on before the project commences. The participants will then be able to state their needs beforehand and all the problems pertaining to funds can be resolved timeously.

Qualitative research will enable the researcher to talk to each and every individual *grade 1 teacher* and in the process he or she will discover those who are interested and those who are not. After these discussions the researcher will be in a position to address all the problems, to motivate those who need to be motivated and to give them the assurance that he or she will be helping them. Powerful lobbies, can be easily identified through qualitative research, especially through interviews or questionnaires. Qualitative researchers write up analyses, which should be at some level of interpretation and abstraction beyond the interview texts (Morse 1994:60).

After finding the problems, e.g. *grade 1 teachers* moving from one school to the other or other disturbances, a researcher may recommend that somebody should be exempted from particular duties. From the above discussion it is clear that qualitative research has many advantages because it can explain every situation for others to understand. In fact, qualitative research, including qualitative evaluation, is and must be guided by a continual process of researcher decisions and choices (Pitman and Maxwell 1996:753). These are just a few examples to indicate how qualitative research can be useful in *SBCD.* It will be required to describe problems, strategies, content, methods and many other aspects adequately. This will enable the participants and all interested parties to understand precisely what *SBCD* entails.

Herbert (1992:129) argues that participants have a right to raw data, but the conclusion drawn are the opinions, and therefore the responsibility, of the researcher alone. Qualitative research can operate in conjunction with *SBCD* because the participants in *SBCD* will need a supervisor. In this case the supervisor will be a researcher who will be expected to explain some of the findings to the participants. In concluding this section, it is important to note that basic research recommendations followed by qualitative action research findings could form a strong foundation on which *SBCD* can be built. All the identified problems should be clear and tentative answers could also be given for the development of a new *curriculum.* The *SBCD* should be preceded by qualitative research because it is readable and reliable, since it takes the real situation into account.

3.12.3.1 The design implementation gap

Burton (1992:17) pointed out that *SBCD* is a new name for an old idea. The idea is that the best place for designing the *curriculum* is where the learner and the teacher meet. Qualitative research is based on the fundamental beliefs that events must be studied in natural settings, that is, be field-based, and that events cannot be understood unless one understands how they are perceived and interpreted by the people who participated in them. In other words the *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers*, learners and parents in school *curriculum development* helps to narrow the design-implementation gap because all

stake-holders are involved. By using such qualitative research methods, the process of *curriculum* dissemination and innovation becomes viable due to the fact that people are participating in the designing and implementation of the *curriculum*.

A *curriculum* is usually designed from the centre (government) and then disseminated to the people on the periphery. The *curriculum* content, and the learning resource, thus are all designed from the top, and the teacher and learner are expected to implement and use them. Critics of this style of *curriculum development* regard it as undemocratic, and an infringement of the professional rights of *grade 1 teachers*. Unless *grade 1 teachers* and learners have a sense of ownership of the *curriculum*, there is always likely to be a problem focused on the design-implementation gap. Shifts in the physical arrangement of participants in space often accompany shifts in the social arrangement of participation (Erickson 1992:218).

It should also be noted that there are a lot of problems concerning *SBCD*. For instance, the *grade 1 teacher* in a school is seen as an agent of change. He or she understands the process, of *curriculum development*, but the biggest problem is his level of expertise, motivation and inadequate resources. This means that if all people are involved in *SBCD* they will share ideas which will make it easier for them to accept the proposed *curriculum* because *SBCD* does not centre all *curriculum* decisions on the school, it also uses other resourceful agencies (Lee and Zeldin 1996:28).

Brady (1990:21) shows that teachers should approach an understanding of the situation and the possibility of changing that situation in a piecemeal way. *SBCD* in fact requires various support structures and a developed teacher capacity to use the structures that are available to teachers. It cannot be introduced in isolation and it cannot be introduced as an effective reform, unless other structural changes take place, such as the provision of *grade 1 teachers'* resources centres. An objection against *SBCD* is that it confers excessive powers on the teacher and takes insufficient note of the participatory principle which requires a much greater diffusion of power, to learners, parents, the community

groups and so forth. The researcher believes that the absence of *SBCD* brings disunity in policy, lack of uniform provision, varying standards and opportunities.

SBCD problems can be addressed by using qualitative research because it allows the parents, *grade 1 teachers*, learners and even the authorities to consult as widely as possible. Experts in *curriculum* studies could be drawn in, so that they could help the *curriculum* developers. It is a well known fact that *grade 1 teachers* are by virtue of their training not *curriculum* experts, and as such they should be involved in *curriculum development* only after they have been workshopped, in other words those involved need to be taught skills on how to design and develop a *curriculum*. *Grade 1 teachers*, if suitably trained, can act effectively as *curriculum* developers, but part of the necessary support system for *SBCD* is an extensive in-service education programme. At times, *grade 1 teachers* have to accept learners' values as well as integrate the natural characteristics of learners during the act of teaching (Shiundu and Omulando 1992:217).

Qualitative research could be used to address problems that are found in *SBCD* because so many people are involved with the result that they come up with innovative ideas, which are then deliberated until people reach consensus. Qualitative research is able to lead people to work in teams, and they co-operate with the ultimate aim of formulating a *curriculum* which is free from personal prejudice or bias. In other words, the use of qualitative research in *SBCD* eliminates personal influence as ideas, decisions, skills and experiences are shared by all the stakeholders concerned. In educational research, it has been commonly found that many researchers are themselves teachers in their profession. Therefore it is not surprising that much educational research is carried out in the school where the teaching and learning occur. The data collected at school can be used to generate interpretations (Stewart in Miller and Crabtree 1992:551).

According to Gay (1996:210) the unit of ethnographic study in educational research is typically the school, and specifically the classroom, which is the primary field site where *grade 1 teachers* and learners engage. Because ethnographic study involves the active participation of researchers, *grade 1 teachers* are the most suitable people to collect

intensive data on many variables. In this case the variables refer to the school, *grade 1 teachers*, learners and *curriculum* over an extended period of time.

3.12.3.2 Shortcomings of *SBCD*

It is imperative to note that it is not solely the positive aspects of readiness for *SBCD* that require consideration. It has been found that in some schools *grade 1 teachers* and other administrators oppose the institution-based *curriculum* when it is introduced to their individual schools. Thus it is possible that free interchange of opinions is hindered by actual misunderstanding and resentments, especially in the minds of the old and the young. The negative aspects which are problematic for the *SBCD* are stated below. The first category of problems highlighted by Print (1993:22), include:

- a lack of support structures for teachers and school principals
- lack of teachers experienced in *SBCD*
- The conformity syndrome of administrators and teachers reduces creativity

The question at stake is how qualitative research can be strategically used to address *SBCD* problems. As it is known that qualitative research is characterised by active observation and situation analysis at an overt level, this implies that to understand the problem of study, the educational researcher must be in the real situation. This is where the problem is, so that the research problem of interest, that is *SBCD,* can be refined. Changes in the school *curriculum* are not necessarily the expression of the school's *curriculum development* policy, but more the usual growth of *curriculum* by accretion can be refined (Brady 1990:12).

In reference to the three typical problems above, the solutions can be derived from team-work participation of *grade 1 teachers.* No single or few individuals must be given the first privilege to go to the field site (school) and only after a certain period begin to formulate a framework for the site analysis. These individuals should work together with

the *grade 1 teachers* in the practical situation, by staffing them with support structures until *grade 1 teachers* become experienced in their own *SBCD*. *Grade 1 teachers* should be motivated to increase their self-esteem, e.g. in analysing learning outcomes, learners' outcomes, in constructing tests and working in planning groups. The educational authorities should constantly provide advisory and specialist consultancy services.

On the other hand, referring to the problems of *SBCD*, Skilbeck, in Lee and Zeldin (1996:34), examines a second category of problems. The following are typical examples:

- a rapid staff turnover;
- a complexity of issues and managerial problems;
- a tendency of schools to revert to earlier forms of traditional control and organisations if the pressure for change is not continuous.

The problems above suggest that field research is necessary for solving *SBCD* problems. Through qualitative research, the idea of a few external individuals from central government going into schools should change from problem preformulations to specifications of precise activities that are to be observed. This is perceived as the analytical framework within which the study is to be conducted (Gay 1996:11).

In order to avoid the individual school abandoning the *SBCD*, there continuous optimising studies should be carried out. The individual *grade 1 teachers* in their respective schools should constantly keep on researching diverse ways of successful teaching and learning programmes with a range of possible strategies of change in mind. *Grade 1 teachers* should remain adequately versed in all theoretical models to avoid the tendency of rejecting what they cannot easily apply in classroom situations.

3.13 WAYS OF PRESENTING QUALITATIVE WORK

3.13.1 Synopsis of the resulting theory

There are two major ways of presenting qualitative work. The first is to present a synopsis of the resulting theory - to serve as a guide for the reader – and then follow this with the supporting data. The second style is to present the result as the theory was developed, so that the reader shares the insights and the conclusions, bit by bit, step by step. In both cases, by the time the readers have reached the end of the section on results, they will share the researcher's insights and conclusions. In other words, qualitative research should be an inductive approach to data analysis (Leedy 1993:140).

The conclusions should be clear, with alternative explanations and hypotheses systematically excluded, and with in-depth descriptions that vividly portray each point. Examples should be added judiciously as informants' quotes, exemplars, and case histories provide richness. Sub-headings should be used to keep the reader on track and to highlight each point. In this thesis, a heading on chapter delineation or division in chapter 1 is appropriate because it presents a synopsis of the resulting theory which serves as a guide for the reader. By the time a reader arrives at the resolution everything with regard to *grade 1 teachers* and their experience in *SBCD* should be clear.

3.13.2 The use of participants' quotes

May (1997:140) avers that the effective use of participants' quotes is important, but that they should only be used if a participant has made a point in a manner more explicitly than could be expressed by the researcher. Except in the case of presenting unwelcome results, each point should be clearly described before the quote is used, so that the quote simply serves as an illustration. The full range of diversity, or the characteristics and the synthesis of all the material pertaining to that section, should be included in the text. The quote thus supplements the text and provides human insight and dimension to the analysis. As discussed, quotes may be edited and extraneous material removed.

Kuzel (1992:33) shows that qualitative inquiry generally begins with the theory or understanding that is to be modified and confirmed in the context of the study. One of the most common mistakes made by new researchers is that they consider almost all their data to be significant and all their quotes vital. A suggestion that any of the quotes are redundant or insufficiently important and should be removed is met with a storm of protest because it could create unnecessary problems.

3.13.3 Guidelines for qualitative research

In view of the preceding discussion the researcher proposes the following "rules" of qualitative research:

3.13.3.1 Do not mistake a critique for a reasoned alternative

One of the negative things which happens to some students who take courses in social theory is that they end up being convinced that a whole series of theorists are little more than congenital idiots. The researcher in this study will see to it that what he gets from *grade 1 teachers* in one school cannot be accepted as it is. There should be a comparison with other schools in the province. *Grade 1 teachers* have always been involved in some form of *curriculum* and evaluation. Individually and collectively their approaches are constantly influenced through such evaluative experiences as classroom observations, trial and error, and discussion with various co-workers, parents and students (Brannen 1992:39).

3.13.3.2 Avoid treating the actor's point of view as an explanation

What the researcher ought to do is not merely to go out into the field to report people's exciting, gruesome or intimate experiences. Yet, judging by the prevalence of what the researcher will call "native" interview studies in qualitative research, this indeed seems to be the case. Native interviewers believe that the supposed limits of structural sociology are overcome by an open-ended interview schedule and a desire to catch "uthentic"

experience. They fail to recognise what they have in common with media interviewers (Bogdewic 1992:65).

3.13.3.3 Recognise that the phenomenon always escapes

If for example, the school is present wherever it is invoked, then the worry of some qualitative researchers about observing "real" school life seems to be misplaced. Their assumption that the school has an essential reality looks more like a common-sense way of approaching the phenomenon with little analytic basis. Finding the school is no problem at all for lay people. In our everyday life, we can always locate and understand the "real" school by using the documentary method of interpretation to research beneath appearances, to locate the true reality. *Grade 1 teachers* are usually in the forefront in *curriculum* implementation and they can effectively implement only what they know, understand and are capable of doing. Logically, it is necessary to be aware of the teaching values, attitudes, skills, knowledge, experience, special strength and weaknesses.

The schools are the consumers of the *curriculum* and implementation is supposed to occur in them. The schools must therefore be ready and willing to receive the new *curriculum*. This readiness can only come about if the school system's infrastructure, as well as resources at its disposal, are known (Shiundu and Omulando 1992:163).

3.13.3.4 Never appeal to a single element as an explanation

A further parallel between qualitative and quantitative work is that multi-factorial explanation is likely to be more satisfactory than explanations which appeal to what one has called a "single element." Just because one is doing a case-study, limited to a particular set of interactions, does not mean that one cannot examine how particular kinds of saying and doing are embedded in particular patterns of social organisation (Wolcott 1992: 43). Most models portray *SBCD* as a continuous process, with no single fixed starting point.

But for the purpose of this study, there has to be a point of departure and a particular pattern of social organisation. *Grade 1 teachers* from various schools in *Northern Province* will thus share their own experiences with the researcher.

3.14 SYNTHESIS

In view of the preceding discussion, it became evident that qualitative research is descriptive and inductive. In this study, the researcher chose qualitative research because it starts with data collection and empirical observation and builds theoretical categories from relationships discovered among data. The researcher is interested in how *grade 1 teachers* interpret their day to day experiences in *curriculum development*. Seeing that qualitative research involves fieldwork, the researcher will physically go to the *grade 1 teachers* at their respective schools to observe or record behaviour in its natural setting. This refers to their *involvement* in *SBCD*. This study thus lends itself to truly doing qualitative research because it concerns itself with the experience of *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*.

Chapter 3 on the one hand outlined qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in SBCD while chapter 4 on the other hand will focus on research instruments and data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS, FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Aim of chapter 4: Chapter 3 focused in part on qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in SBCD. The researcher chose qualitative research because of its being inductive, as it commences with data collection, empirical observation and builds theoretical categories from relationships discovered among data. Chapter 4 aims at addressing the implementation of research instruments, data analysis and the findings of the research process. It is on the basis of the research instruments that the researcher will be able to arrive at the findings of the study.

4.1 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Spindler and Spindler (1992:69) affirm that research instruments are rarely used in the first stages of work. There are many research instruments and techniques for studying problems that have educational value. These research instruments and techniques can be used to collect and analyse data. A few of the more common ones, as highlighted in items 4.1.1- 4.1.7 are the interview, questionnaire, observation schedule, cassette recorder, diaries, trialling and independent decoder. (Compare chapter 1 paragraph 1.2.2.1 item (c) and paragraph 1.3.2.1 item (c) and chapter 3 item 3.1). A brief examination of each of these techniques should give any research neophyte a clearer understanding of the research field as an entity. Although the researcher has already elaborated on some of the instruments and techniques in passing in chapter three, attention will be paid to each one of them in the following discussions.

This study is developed and validated by making use of the following research instruments namely: *grade 1 teachers'* interview (refer to Appendix A), school profile questionnaire (refer to Appendix B), *grade 1 teacher*s' profile questionnaire (refer to Appendix C) and classroom observation schedule (refer to Appendix D). The

development of the instruments involved extensive research work. All the draft instruments were examined carefully to establish reliability and content validity.

Since the research instruments, i.e. interviews and questionnaires, were rather comprehensive tools that were implemented, some of the questions did not have immediate relevance to the investigated research problem in the study, as they served only to contextualise the investigation. As a result, only relevant aspects to the problem under study will be included for purposes of verification.

(A) *GRADE 1 TEACHERS'* INTERVIEW

This questionnaire induced factual information in order to determine whether *grade 1 teachers* understood what they needed to, as reflected in appendix A.

- ***Learning Area taught :*** Numeracy, Literacy or Life skills?
- ***Teaching methods:*** How were they used? Were they effective?
- ***Didactic flexibility:*** Was the teacher flexible or stereotyped?
- ***Material used in the lesson:*** How were materials used? Were they relevant?
- ***Usage of other materials:*** Which other learning materials did the teacher utilise? Was there any improvement?
- ***Outcome of the lesson:*** Did the *grade 1 teacher* achieve it? How?
- ***Learning outcome :*** Did the *grade 1* learners achieve it? How did they demonstrate it?

(B) A CHECKLIST AND QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCHOOL PROFILE RESOURCES

This questionnaire sought factual information regarding the position of the resources available for the implementation of *OBE* in *grade 1* classes. The questionnaire comprised various items, as reflected in appendix B.

- ***Identification of school:*** e.g. name and address of school; title of respondent; gender; location of respondent authority and highest grade.
- ***Characteristics of school:*** e.g. region, type of school, location, total enrolment, total number of teaching staff, learner-teacher ratio, number of classes, number of *grade 1 teachers* and number of *grade 1* learners.
- ***Facilities of school:*** laboratories, libraries, ablution blocks, sports and recreation centres etc.
- ***Educational facilities:*** media equipment such as computers, overhead projectors, chalkboard and many others.
- ***Administrative facilities:*** bulletin boards etc.
- ***Teaching method in grade 1 classes:*** story-telling, group-work, discussion and many others.
- ***Resources available for effective teaching:*** checklist of *OBE* materials for *grade 1* classes and their availability and existing conditions.
- ***Expenditure of school on OBE materials:*** e.g. annual budget, money spent on *OBE* materials per grade.

(C) *GRADE 1 TEACHERS'* PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was comprised of various items for *grade 1 teachers*. The items mainly sought information on classroom practice regarding the availability of learning materials and frequency of use, teaching methods, assessment procedures and, above all, *SBCD*. In addition, the questionnaire documented teaching qualifications of the *grade 1 teachers* as well as their teaching experience, as reflected in appendix C.

- ***Biographical data:*** e.g. gender, age etc.
- ***Identification of school:*** e.g. name of school and address, date of completion, title of respondent, Learning Areas taught in *grade 1.*
- ***Teaching experience:*** years of teaching *grade 1.*
- ***Qualifications:*** e.g. year obtained and institution.

- ***Educational facilities:*** media equipment such as computers, overhead projectors and many others.
- ***Teaching methods:*** discussion, problem-solving, narration, group-work and many others.
- ***OBE training:-*** e.g. seminars and workshops attended, title of the topic, who conducted the training, where and when and for how long?
- ***OBE training:*** how effective was the training?
- ***Assessment procedure:*** was it continuous or summative?
- ***OBE materials and resources:*** e.g. materials supplied by the department and materials developed by the *grade 1 teacher.*

(D) CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

This questionnaire sought factual information about the classroom environment, interaction between *grade 1 teachers* and learners, teaching from an *OBE* approach, the activities offered by *grade 1 teachers* to the learners as reflected in D.

- ***Classroom atmosphere:*** conducive to learning, unconducive to learning and relaxed atmosphere.
- ***Learning environment:*** cupboard, usable chalkboard, table for the teacher, seating space, activities and lighting.
- ***Classroom organisation:*** teaching strategy.
- ***Lesson preparation:*** lesson planned, development of the lesson, homework planned and continuity considered.
- ***Teaching methods:*** understanding and explanation of learning content, general teaching style, methods used, circulation of teacher among learners, questioning to reinforce work covered, and use of teaching aids.
- ***Communication:*** *grade 1 teacher* responsive, teacher uses learners' name, teacher facilitates effective interactive environment, teacher asks range of questions, teacher's response to incorrect and correct answers, use of language appropriate to the level of the class and non-verbal actions.

- ***Learner focus:*** learners on task and learners' participation.
- ***Reinforcement of learning:*** type of written work set, examples, checking of written work, difficulties revealed, teaching aids and motivation.

Schensul and Schensul (1992:190) indicate that through research instruments, researchers convey expert knowledge of the field through their own experience and the ease with which they can collect additional qualitative data. Acknowledging this continuity of usage helped the researcher to understand something of the immense versatility and variety which the research instruments form. What was important was to grasp something of the breadth of their application, so that they could be adopted appropriately and sensitively in different contexts. The structure of any research instruments was determined not only by the manner in which the questions were pre-specified, but by the identity of the researcher e.g. interviewer and interviewee, the relationship between them, and the nature of the situation in which the researcher was being conducted.

In preparation for using research instruments (as opposed to simply deciding on the content, sequence and wording of the questions), it was therefore useful to consider carefully the particular research group i.e. the *grade 1 teachers* involved and their relationship with the researcher. This is not to say that the element of power could be eradicated from the relationship between the researcher and his studies. The research was framed within an institutional context which, was highly ordered and often finely stratified.

4.1.1 The interview

An interview in this investigation involved the gathering of data by face-to-face contact between the researcher and one or more respondents. (Compare chapter 3 item 3.2.1.3). Some advantages of this technique were that it allowed the investigator to obtain more confidential and intimate information, it did not require all questions to be rigidly structured beforehand, it enabled the researcher to form value judgements of the respondents, and it allowed the interviewees the chance to interact with the investigator.

A disadvantage was that the sample size had to be reduced because of the time required to set up appointments and interviews with each individual or group of respondents. *Interviewing thus yielded complementary rather than comparable data* (Wolcott 1992:20). Miller and Crabtree (1992:17) show that conversations are best recorded and obtained through interviews. Four forms of interviews served to illustrate the point of the present discussion: analytic, depth, individual and group interviews.

1. *Analytic* interview refers to a fact-finding conference between two persons, or a person and a group, for the purpose of determining certain information. This type of interview was not primarily concerned with time or depth but rather with certain specifics which were in question.
2. *Depth* interviews differ from analytic interviews in that they seek to get to the underlying thoughts of the individual. These thoughts involved deep-rooted psychological problems that the individual was thought to possess. A depth interview was associated with a long time span since it required systematic planning and structuring in advance and was not completed until after several meetings of the participants.
3. *Individual* interview refers to consultation between an investigator and one person.
4. *Group* interview refers to consultation in which the investigator meets and interacts with several persons simultaneously, all of whom are allowed to participate.

Some questions arose, and rightly so, over the use of these four terms. This was because an analytic interview was also taken in depth and because some researchers defined "interview" as concerning only one interviewer and one respondent.

In this study, the researcher utilised all forms of interviews, although the group interview received the most attention. It enabled the interviewees to thematise the phenomenon under investigation and made thinking explicit. During the interview, the interviewer avoided directing and leading questions which could have prompted the interviewees to

try to see their experiences through the eyes of the interviewer rather than through their own (Francis 1996:38).

4.1.1.1 Interviewing skills in the study

Sandberg (1996:137) points out that in order to be as faithful as possible to the individuals' conceptions of a particular phenomenon, the researcher must demonstrate how he or she has controlled and checked his interpretations throughout the research process Basically, an interview is a conversation between two people, a conversation that is serious and purposeful. The following interviewing skills utilised by the researcher in this study are particularly practical and relevant in this investigation. They can also be modified, extended or ignored to suit individual styles.

(a) *Starting:* A specific formula was not used. Seeing that the interview was interviewer initiated, it was a good idea to explain the purpose of the interview and the interviewer's role. Long monologues were avoided, the interviewer had to talk, and open and honest communication was used for a fruitful dialogue.

(b) *Attentive behaviour:* An appropriate amount of eye contact was given, an appropriate body posture was adopted, and following the natural flow of conversation the interviewer indicated interest in the other individual and in what was being said.

(c) *Reflection of feeling:* As the interviewer focused on the content of what the interviewees said, paying attention to the affective part of the message was usually overlooked. By listening to and responding to feelings it was often possible to help the interviewees clarify, become more aware, and say what they really meant.

(d) *Paraphrasing:* the interviewer repeated in his own words what the interviewees said, to show that he was trying to understand the other's comments. This made

what had been said more concise and served as a check on the interviewer's perception. It was useful to try paraphrasing feelings as well as thoughts.

(e) *Seeking clarification:* As a way of indicating that the interviewer was listening and trying to understand, he asked clarification by mirroring those words or ideas that were not clear in meaning.

(f) *Summarisation of feeling and content:* After a reasonably long period of time the interviewer recapitulated and condensed the interviewees' deliberations. These overviews integrated the range of feelings and ideas. They also acted as a stimulus of the interviewer's perceptions.

(g) *Silence:* Silence had meaning and was used by the interviewer as a deliberate response. It was neutral and empathic. The interviewer decided to do nothing because he did not know how else to respond. It was often necessary just to give the interviewees a chance to finish. Unless the interviewer was sure of his ground it was probably better to avoid lengthy or frequent silences.

(h) *Questioning:* The interviewer generally used questioning to obtain specifically needed information and to direct the other person's talk from irrelevant to relevant channels. Open-ended questions were good stimulants for involving *grade 1 teachers.*

(i) *Interpretation:* Most of the skills referred to already focused on the interviewee. When interpreting, the interviewer attempted to deduce meaning from what had been said by adopting the other's point of view. More than likely, however, interpretation of the interviewer's concept of reality occurred and a new frame of reference was generated. This increased the interviewee's understanding and helped in the conversation.

Of all the research instruments and techniques, the personal interview was certainly one of the most important. By this instrument the researcher in his studies established a confidential relationship and was able, as by no other method, to obtain information from *grade 1 teachers*. The interview enabled the researcher to improve his knowledge of the *grade 1 teachers*. Certain kinds of data were obtained only through the personal interview, for example, the personal appearance of the *grade 1 teacher*, or certain significant reactions on the part of the learner, such as a smile of assent.

In summary, in order to maintain interpretative awareness, the researcher withheld all previous experience of the phenomenon under investigation. This is how the researcher established the trustworthiness of outcomes within a phenomenographic reduction framework. Accordingly, this thesis mirrored such a stance in the pursuit of trustworthiness. It adopted a pervasive process where the emphasis of the approach was moved from inspection at the end of knowledge production (Kvale 1995:7).

The researcher posed the following direct questions to the *grade 1 teachers*:

APPENDIX A: *GRADE 1 TEACHER'S* INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What kind of teaching and learning problems do you experience in terms of *School- Based Curriculum development*? _____

2. Which strategies should be used to address these problems in your *School-Based Curriculum Development*? _____

3. How should you be involved in *School-Based Curriculum Development* in the *Northern Province*? _____

4.1.2 The questionnaire

Thompson (1996:736) says that questionnaires are viewed as a formulated series of questions. In a questionnaire, the completion of the form is done without any outside influence. Questionnaires were used by the researcher to convert information directly given by respondents into data. By providing access to what was inside somebody's mind, this approach made it possible to measure what the respondents knew, liked and disliked and what they thought their problems were in the context of *SBCD*.

4.1.2.1 Types of questionnaires

There are two types of both interviews and questionnaires: the closed or structured questionnaire or interview and the open or unstructured questionnaire or interview. (See chapter 4 item 3.2).

(a) Open questionnaires

Reaves (1992:109) indicates that unstructured interviews and open questionnaires typically specify only a general area of interest and allow the respondent to explore that area in any effective way. Open questionnaires in this study did not suggest answers. They called for the respondents' free response in their own words. No clues were provided and provision was made for a greater depth of response. The respondents revealed their frame of reference and the reasons for their responses. This kind of questionnaire was difficult to interpret, tabulate and summarize. In responding to open questionnaires, subjects omitted certain points or emphasized things that were of no interest to the researcher and of no importance to the research. For this reason, the researcher found it easier to use the closed questionnaire. However, themes which repeatedly came up in the open questionnaires, were identified and documented.

(b) Closed questionnaires

Closed questionnaires call for short, checked responses. They provide for a "yes" or "no," a short response or for checking an item from a list of suggested responses. In this type of questionnaire, provision was made for responses which could not be anticipated. Providing an "other" category permitted the respondent to indicate what his most important reason was, one that the compiler of the questionnaire or interview did not anticipate. The closed-form questionnaire or interview was easy to complete, it kept the respondent on the subject, was relatively objective and was easy to tabulate and analyse. It also minimized the risk of misinterpretation. Considerable knowledge on the part of the researcher was, however, required to direct the course of the questionnaire into useful and informative channels (Dooley 1990:288).

A factor affecting the validity of a questionnaire was whether or not a signature was required. Validity is the degree to which a set of data represents what it purports to represent. Greater truthfulness was obtained when respondents remained anonymous. However, anonymity depended on the nature of the questions included, that is, whether or not sensitive information was sought. If identification of the subject is not important in the analysis of the results, it is thus advisable to allow respondents to remain anonymous (Suen and Ary 1990:157).

In summary, questionnaires were widely used to obtain information about current conditions and practices and to make inquiries concerning attitudes and opinions. It was on this score that the researcher decided to use a questionnaire.

Checking to see that instructions were sufficient and clearly worded, deciding what to do about non-respondents, and saying where they stood in relation to anonymity and confidentiality were a few other issues which needed clarification. For the questionnaires that were mailed to individuals it was useful to include a postage-paid return envelope; this was no guarantee of a return, but it helped. A telephone call to clarify the outcomes of the evaluation and answer any queries, as well as to remind individuals about

completing the questionnaires, was also useful. For the questionnaires that were given to groups of individuals, standard instructions helped minimise administrator bias. An interview schedule comprised a set of questions which were asked and recorded by an interviewer in a face-to-face situation with the person being interviewed. Both of these instruments used items that were either structured or unstructured. (See table 4.1 for the relative merits of interviews versus questionnaires).

Table 4.1 The relative merits of the interview technique versus the questionnaire technique in educational research.

CONSIDERATION	INTERVIEW	QUESTIONNAIRE
1. Personnel needed to collect data	Requires interviewers	Requires a clerk
2. Major expenses	Payment to interviewers	Postage and printing
3. Opportunities for response (personalisation)	Extensive	Limited
4. Opportunities for asking	Extensive	Limited
5. Opportunities for probing	Possible	Difficult
6. Relative magnitude of data reduction	Great (because of coding)	Mainly limited to rostering
7. Typically, the number of respondents who can be reached	Limited	Extensive
8. Rate of return	Good	Poor
9. Sources of error	Interviewer, instrument, coding, sample	Limited to instrument and sample
10. Overall reliability	Quite limited	Fair
11. Emphasis on writing skill	Limited	Extensive

Howe (1992:66)

The structured items allowed only a few alternative ways of answering the questions, whereas the unstructured or "open-ended" items permitted a wide variety of responses. In the hands of a skilled interviewer, unstructured questions probed more deeply into a topic, and detected ambiguity better than structured items. Of the two instruments, an

interview schedule produced more truthful responses than a questionnaire because the interviewer had the advantage of personal observation, whereas the respondent who answered the questionnaire felt less compelled to tell the truth. In other words, a face-to-face relationship probed more deeply than an impersonal questionnaire. For more information regarding questionnaires, refer to appendices B and C.

APPENDIX B

SCHOOL PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is to be completed by the *grade 1 teacher* for each selected school and is treated with strict confidentiality. Please tick ☐ appropriate responses where applicable.

SECTION A: IDENTIFICATION OF A SCHOOL

1. Name of school----------
2. Address ----------

   ----
3. Title of respondent ----------
4. Age (a) 19-25 ☐ (b) 26-40 ☐
   (c) 31-35 ☐ (d) 40 years and over ☐
5. Gender (a) Male ☐ (b) Female ☐

6. Marital status (a) married ☐ (b) unmarried ☐
   (c) widow ☐ (d) divorced ☐
   (e) separated ☐
7. Location of respondent
   (a) Circuit ----------

(c) District ----------

8. Qualification

(a) highest professional grade ----------

(b) highest academic level ----------

SECTION B: SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

9. Province in which your school is situated ----------

10. Region in which your school is situated ----------

11. Area in which your school is situated ----------

12. Type of school (tick one box)

(a) Public ☐

(b) Private ☐

13. In which area is your school situated? (tick one box)

(a) Rural/ farm ☐

(b) Urban ☐

(c) Peri-urban ☐

(d) Township ☐

(e) Central Business District ☐

14. Total school enrolment this year? ----------

(a) Number of boys ----------

(b) Number of girls ----------

15. Total number of teaching staff ----------

(a) Male ----------

(b) Female ----------

16. Learner - teacher ratio for the school ----------

17. Please complete the following :

(a) Total number of *grade 1* classrooms ----------

(b) Total number of *grade 1 teachers* ----------

(c) Total number of *grade 1* learners

(please tick)

(a) 30 or less ☐

(b) 31-60 ☐

(c) 61-100 ☐

(d) 100-150 ☐

(e) 150 and above ☐

18. At what grade level are *OBE* materials first provided to learners?

(a) Grade 0 ☐

(b) *Grade 1* ☐

(c) Grade 2 ☐

(d) Grade 3 ☐

(e) Grade 4 ☐

(f) Grade 5 ☐

(g) Grade 6 ☐

(h) Grade 7 ☐

SECTION C: SCHOOL FACILITIES

19. For the following items please indicate which resources are typically available and their current conditions for use in the classroom? Please rate them as follows:

(Tick where appropriate)

☐ Poor = Facility is totally inadequate and unable to be utilised.

☐ Fair = Resource fairly in use and meets minimum requirements.

☐ Good = Resource adequately serves its purpose and frequently in use.

CLASSROOM FACILITIES		*AVAILABILITY*				*CONDITION OF FACILITY*	
		Yes	**No**		**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**
•	Classroom						
•	Chairs per classroom						
•	Room to sit and move around						
•	Writing board						
•	Teacher's table						
•	Teacher's chair						
•	Cupboards						
•	Storage space						
•	Textbooks						
•	Resource materials						
•	Adequate lighting						
•	Adequate ventilation						
•	Air conditioner						

SECTION D: ADMINISTRATIVE FACILITIES

ADMINISTRATIVE FACILITIES		*AVAILABILITY*			*CONDITION OF FACILITIES*	
•	Handbook of different learning areas	**Yes**	**No**	**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**
•	Television					
•	Computer					
•	Photocopy machine					
•	Telephone					
•	Fax machine					
•	Overhead projector					
•	Newspaper					
•	Magazines					
•	Toys					
•	Video tapes					
•	Reference books					

SECTION E: RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

RECREATIONAL FACILITIES		*AVAILABILITY*			*CONDITION OF FACILITY*	
		Yes	**No**	**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**
•	Sports field (s)					
•	Hall					
•	Sports equipment					
•	Infrastructure					
•	Toilets					
•	Access by road					
•	Electricity					
•	Water availability					

20. Do you think your school is supplied with sufficient materials for teaching and learning? If [Yes], support your argument ----------
---

---

21. If No, support your argument ----------

SECTION F: TEACHING METHODS AND CONSTRAINTS IN GRADE 1 CLASS

22. Think of what *grade 1 teachers* in your school typically do in their teaching. Estimate the amount of time typically spent on each of the following activities (tick one box for each activity).

		No time	*A little time*	*A fair amount of time*	*A great deal of time*
•	Integration of 3 different learning programmes				
•	Use of learner-centredness method				
•	Simulating critical and creative thinking of learners				
•	Teachers' flexibility				
•	Application of Outcomes-Based assessment				
•	Learners doing things on their own				
•	Assessing learners through projects, portfolios and practical work				
•	Improvisation of learning materials				
•	Learners collecting learning materials such as newspaper and magazines				
•	Using audio-visual equipment for teaching				

23. How often does each of the following activities typically occur?
Tick one box per activity.

	(a) Never	(b) Rarely	(c) Often
	☐	☐	☐
(a) Invitation of guest speakers (e.g. from institution of higher learning or department)	☐	☐	☐
(b) Talk about the implementation of *OBE* in Foundation Phase	☐	☐	☐

(c) Did you attend *OBE* meetings with cluster schools? Yes☐ No ☐

24. How seriously do the following constraints affect the teaching of *OBE* in general?
(Tick one box per constraint)

	(a) Not serious	(b) Seriously	(c) Very seriously
	☐	☐	☐
(a) Lack of qualified teacher	☐	☐	☐
(b) Large class	☐	☐	☐
(c) Lack of teachers to attend workshop about *OBE*	☐	☐	☐
(d) Lack of teaching and learning materials	☐	☐	☐
(e) Lack of commitment to teachers	☐	☐	☐
(f) Lack of commitment to learners	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GRADE 1 TEACHER'S PROFILE

The questionnaire is to be completed by *grade 1 teachers* for each selected classroom and is treated with strict confidentiality. Please tick appropriate responses where applicable.

SECTION D: SCHOOL – BASED ACTIVITIES

1. How are you involved in S*chool – Based activities*?----------
   ---

2. What is your attitude towards S*chool – Based Curriculum development* (*SBCD*)?
   Positive ☐
   Negative ☐
   Other ☐

2.1 Give a reason to the answer you chose above----------

   ---

3. What is your learners' attitude towards *SBCD?*
   Positive ☐
   Negative ☐
   Others ☐

3.1 Give a reason to the answer you chose above----------

   ---

4. What is the management's attitude towards *SBCD?*

Positive ☐

Negative ☐

Other ☐

4.1 Give a reason to the answer you chose above----------

---

5. What is the department's role in *SBCD*?

Organizing seminars ☐

Organizing workshops ☐

Organizing conferences ☐

Other ☐

5.1 Explain why----------

---

6. Did you attend any *OBE* training workshops as a *grade 1 teacher*?

(Tick one box) Yes ☐ No ☐

6.1 If yes, please complete the following table.

When last did you attend?	Title of the topic	Who conducted the training?

6.2 If no, please complete the following:

How do you cope when teaching	Where did you get knowledge

7. What was the duration of your training in *OBE*?

1 to 3 months ☐

4 to 6 months ☐

7 months and above ☐

8. Did the training suffice?

Yes ☐

No ☐

9. How useful did you find the training you received for *OBE*?

(a) Useless ☐

(b) Useful ☐

(c) Uncertain ☐

(d) Most time useful ☐

10. Do you agree that more time for training on *OBE* is required?

(a) Agree ☐ (b) Disagree ☐

(c) Strongly agree ☐ (d) Strongly disagree ☐

11. If you agree or strongly agree, do you think that *OBE* requires more training?

---

12. If you disagree or strongly disagree, what are your comments?

---

13. Which teaching methods do you most frequently use in *grade 1?*

(a) Learner-centred method ☐

(b) Group work method ☐

(c) Independent study ☐

(d) Small group discussion ☐

14. Why do you think the above method is more appropriate in a *grade 1* classroom?

---

15. How often do you give written exercises to your learners?

Daily ☐

Weekly ☐

Monthly ☐

Other ☐

15.1 Elaborate on the answer you chose above----------

---

16. How do you allow learners to complete tasks in class?

(a) As individuals ☐ (b) In groups ☐

(c) Alone and in groups ☐

17. Which method of assessment do you prefer when teaching?

(a) ☐ Performance Assessment

(b) ☐ Continuous Assessment

(c) ☐ Observation-based Assessment

(d) ☐ Portfolio Assessment

(e) ☐ Summative Assessment

18. How often do you provide activity - based learning to learners?

(a) Not at all ☐ (b) Sometimes ☐

(c) Most of the time ☐ (d) All of the time ☐

(e) Once or twice a week ☐

19. In your teaching, how often do you integrate themes from different learning areas?

(a) Not at all ☐ (b) Sometimes ☐

(c) Most of the time ☐ (d) All the time ☐

20. Which methods do you make use of when teaching *grade 1* learners?

Question and answer ☐

Group-work ☐

Discussion ☐

Other ☐

20.1 Elaborate on the answer you chose above----------

---

21. Which problems do you encounter in the classroom situation?

Academic ☐

Managerial ☐

22. How often do you use team teaching at your school?

Sometimes ☐

Once a month ☐

Once a quarter ☐

Never ☐

23. How do you motivate your learners to participate in the classroom situation?

Intrinsic motivation ☐

Extrinsic motivation ☐

Other ☐

23.1 Substantiate on the answer you chose above----------

---

24. How do you control written work (e.g. spelling) in overcrowded classrooms?

Effectively ☐

Haphazardly ☐

Other ☐

24.1 Substantiate on the answer you chose above----------

---

25. How do you maintain discipline in overcrowded classrooms?

Difficult ☐

Very Difficult ☐

Easy ☐

Very Easy ☐

25.1 Substantiate on the answer you chose above----------

---

26. How often do you apply a principle of individualisation in such classes?

Sometimes ☐

Regularly ☐

Never ☐

26.1 Support the answer you chose above----------

SECTION E: OBE MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

27. How did you acquire study and teaching materials?

(a)	Improvisation and self development	Yes	☐	No	☐
(b)	From group work	Yes	☐	No	☐
(c)	From workshops and seminars	Yes	☐	No	☐
(d)	From teacher's unions	Yes	☐	No	☐
(e)	From the department	Yes	☐	No	☐

28. For the following items please indicate which resources are typically available and in what conditions they are for use in classroom? Rate them as follows: (Tick where appropriate)

☐ Poor = Facility is totally inadequate and unable to be utilised.

☐ Fair = Resources fairly in use and meet minimum requirements.

☐ Good = Resource adequately serves its purpose and frequently in use.

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES		*Availability*			*Condition of facility*		
		Yes	**No**		**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**
•	Foundation phase policy document						
•	Literacy Programmes						
•	Numeracy Programmes						
•	Life Skills Programmes						
•	Teacher's guide for the literacy programme						
•	Teacher's guide for the numeracy programmes						
•	Stationery packages for all the learners						
•	Newspapers and magazines						
•	Map						
•	Toys						
•	Dictionaries/ Atlases						
•	Language series						

29. What are your main constraints with regard to *OBE* implementation in *grade 1* classrooms?----------

---

---

30. What would you require to be able to implement *OBE* effectively in your classroom?----------

---

---

31. With your classroom experience, which suggestions would you give to the Department of Education regarding a lack of resources? ----------

---

4.1.3 Classroom observation

A didactic situation, also termed a teaching - learning situation, occurs in the classroom where there are three major components namely the teacher, the learner and the learning content. (Refer to chapter 3 item 3.2.1.1). The observer should personally go into the classroom and observe all the activities taking place. Diagrammatically it might be represented as follows:

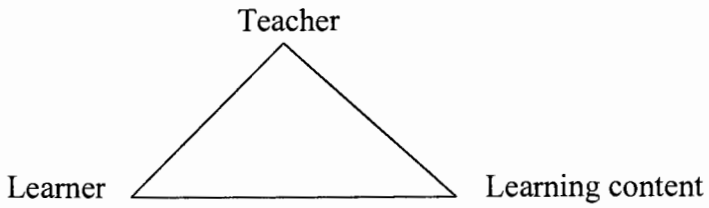


Figure 4.1 Three major components in a classroom situation

Silverman (1992:9) shows that observation is held to be appropriate at a preliminary or exploratory stage of research. When new "inquiry-based" science courses were introduced in the United States, several research studies compared the achievement of students in "inquiry" and "traditional" courses. Some of the results seemed to be inconsistent and hard to interpret until it occurred to the researchers to check on how inquiry was implemented in classrooms using "inquiry" and "traditional" courses. Sure enough, some teachers were using an inquiry approach with a traditional course. If what happens in classrooms has an effect on the students' learning, it seems to make sense to find out what is happening in the classroom. (Compare chapter 3 item 3.2.1 paragraph 3.2.1.1).

There are three main viewpoints from which the researcher observed in the classroom, namely, that of the *grade 1 teacher,* that of an external observer and that of the learners.

(a) *The grade 1 teacher:* The researcher asked the teachers what activities and techniques they used and how often. The reply was more likely to be accurate when the questions were specific, for example when *grade 1 teachers* were asked what they do when teaching a particular unit.

(b) *The external observer:* Spindler and Spindler (1992:72) show that observations are contextualised in the immediate situation in which behaviour is observed. An observer might be physically present in the classroom, or he might work from records such as video tape or audiotape. So much happens in a classroom, that observations are selective. In this study the observer selected some fairly simple aspects of the classroom to observe (e.g. how many learners does the *grade 1 teacher* interact with during a lesson? What proportion of the *grade 1 teacher's* questions require simple recall?)

(d) *The learner:* Every classroom contained a large number of acute observers, who are the learners. Although learners were not interviewed in this study, they could have been asked the same sorts of question as *grade 1 teachers* were asked by asking them to keep records of what they do during specific lessons. For detailed information regarding the observation schedule used in thus study, refer to appendix D.

APPENDIX D

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

A. LESSON REPORT OF A GRADE 1 TEACHER

1. Name of school: ----------

2. Address: ----------

   ----

3. Grade: ----------

4. Topic of lesson: ----------

5. Learning Programme: ----------

6. Time of lesson: ----------

7. Date: ----------

8. Number of learners in class: ----------

9. Would you agree that the teacher started the lesson with a suitable introduction?

   (a) Agree ☐ (b) Disagree ☐

   (c) Strongly agree ☐ (d) Strongly disagree ☐

10. Would you agree that content was on the level (grade) of the class?

    (a) Agree ☐ (b) Disagree ☐

    (c) Strongly agree ☐ (d) Strongly disagree ☐

11. Did the teacher use a suitable method? Yes ☐ No ☐

12. Was the application suitable for the lesson? Yes ☐ No ☐

13. Did the teacher use teaching and learning media? Yes ☐

    No ☐

14.1 If your answer is yes to the above question, name them:

14.2 If your answer is no, elaborate.----------

---

15. Remarks:----------

---------- ----------

Researcher's signature Date

B. THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The schedule is to be completed by the researcher during and after observing the lesson. Please tick relevant blocks in each row and comment where necessary.

1.	In the classroom				
(a)	Cupboard or storage space	Yes	☐	No	☐
(b)	Usable chalkboards	Yes	☐	No	☐
(c)	A table for the *grade 1 teacher*	Yes	☐	No	☐
(d)	Enough furniture e.g. desks	Yes	☐	No	☐
(e)	*Grade 1 teacher* organises different activities	Yes	☐	No	☐
(f)	Adequate lighting	Yes	☐	No	☐

C. GRADE 1 TEACHER'S LESSON EVALUATION

School: ----------

Subject: ----------

Topic: ----------

Language medium: ----------

Date: ----------

Number of learners: ----------

Grade: ----------

CRITERIA

EVALUATION

1.	***Lesson preparation***	***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***
1.1	Lesson design (notes, lay-out and quality)					
1.2	Teaching outcomes (full choice and suitability of subject matter)					
			TOTAL			/20

2.	***Presentation of lesson***	***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***
2.1	Introduction					
(a)	Atmosphere (creating relationship)					
(b)	Interest and attention					
(c)	Actualisation of pre-knowledge					
			TOTAL			/15

Remarks: ----------

2.2	***Exposition (mastery of learning)***	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
(a)	Teaching/ learning media (quality usage)					
(b)	Voice/ language usage/ questions (clear, well aimed, timing)					
(c)	Methods/ techniques					
(d)	Chalkboard work					
			TOTAL			/25

Remarks: ----------

2.3	***Conclusion and application (actualizing of learning content)***	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
(a)	Functionalisation					
(b)	Attainment outcomes					
(c)	Time allocation					
(d)	Client control (disregard discipline)					
(e)	Didactical flexibility					
				TOTAL		/25

Remarks: ----------

2.4	***Personality and appearance***	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
(a)	Appearance					
(b)	Behaviour, manner					
(c)	Teaching approach/ style/ attitude					
		TOTAL				/15

Observer: ---------- Date: ----------

D. CLASSROOM ORGANISATION

2. In the course of the lesson, does the teacher make use of
(tick one box in each row)

(a) Whole class teaching? Yes ☐ No ☐

(b) Learners working in groups? Yes ☐ No ☐

(c) Learners working in pairs? Yes ☐ No ☐

(d) Learners working as individuals? Yes ☐ No ☐

(e) Other? Specify ----------

---

3. Lesson planned (written, evidence of resources and activities) ----------
---

---

4. Lesson planned with clear achievable outcomes ----------

---

5. Evidence of previous work in planning ----------
---

6. Systematic, logical development of lesson ----------

---

7. Class work or homework planned for ----------

---

8. Continuity considered or indication of subsequent lessons ----------

---

E. OBSERVED LESSON

1. GENERAL INFORMATION

School: ---------- Date: ----------

Language: ---------- Subject: ----------

Grade: ---------- Topic: ----------

Time allocation: ----------

2.	*OUTCOMES*
2.1	
2.2	
2.3	

3. *PRESENTATION*

Outcomes	Teacher Activities	Learner Activities	Media	Methods
1.1 Introduction				
1.2 Exposition				
3. Conclusion and Application				

2. Lessen Observed by: ----------

3. General Remarks: ----------

Example of worksheets (if applicable)

F. REINFORCEMENT OF LEARNING

9. Type of written work set ----------

---

10. Examples given----------

---

11. Written work checked (regularly, constructively) ----------

12. Difficulties revealed in written work addressed ----------

13. Teaching media ----------

14. Indication that the teacher uses merit system for motivation (e.g. stars, prizes) ----

G. TEACHING METHODS

15. Explanation of learning content ----------

16. General teaching style (teaching interesting, confident, motivating etc) ----------

17. Example of questions asked in the class ----------

---

18. Teacher's response to incorrect answers ----------

---

19. Teacher's response to correct answers ----------

---

20. Use of language appropriate to the level of the class ----------

---

H. LEARNER FOCUS

21. Learners on task ----------

---

22. Learners' *involvement* in lesson ----------

---

23. Learners' interest and behaviour ----------

---

24. Learners ask questions ----------

I. COMMUNICATION

25. Teacher's positive reinforcement ----------

---

26. The teacher uses learners' names----------

---

27. The teacher facilitates effective interaction between learners (in pair groups) ------

---

---

28. Describe how interaction takes place? ----------

---

29. Teacher creates interactive environment (encouraging learner participation, relaxed and activity based) ----------

---

---

30. Method appropriate to activities and outcomes ----------

31. Clear, effective use of chalkboard ----------

32. Teacher circulates among learners ----------

33. Method of checking understanding ----------

34. Questioning to reinforce work covered ----------

35. Individual attention given where necessary ----------

36. Use of resources ----------

4.1.3.1 Report on classroom observation

(a) Use of materials during the lesson

In half of the lessons observed in this study both learners and *grade 1 teachers* used their books each day during the lessons. Worksheets, on the other hand, were used in less than a quarter of the lessons. The *grade 1 teachers* wrote the activities and the work they prepared on the board, with no support material or resources and apparatus used. Learners would copy the teachers' notes on the chalkboard as they wrote, which would at times take up to ten minutes per lesson. The manner in which *grade 1 teachers* also used the chalkboard seemed to lack coherence. They typically wrote anywhere on the chalkboard where there was space.

(b) Structure of the lesson

The duration of lessons differed on a daily basis, with the average time per period being about 30 minutes per day. Generally, the periods started with the *grade 1 teachers* checking homework previously given, either by just looking at the books whilst moving from desk to desk. While the teachers were marking these learners' work, other learners checked their own work in terms of the correctness or incorrectness of those whose work was being assessed by the *grade 1 teacher*. The *grade 1 teachers* chose some of the examples with common errors made by learners and demonstrated the correct methods to the whole class on the board. This process would take about 10 minutes. On some occasions the entire periods were only 15 to 20 minutes long, in which case the *grade 1 teachers* would only mark homework and give some new homework for the next day.

(c) Organisation of the tasks during the lesson

The *grade 1 teachers* organised tasks and activities so that learners would work individually with assistance from them. These tasks and activities consisted mainly of problems related to the work that was discussed. Learners also worked together as a class

with the teacher assisting them. In some schools there was never an attempt at groupwork or learners discussing work with their peers. The *grade 1 teachers* would explain the relevant work and then give learners some exercise which they completed in the classroom. Classwork exercises were given every day and learners were expected to work on these individually, without assistance from the *grade 1 teachers*. During lessons learners just watched and listened passively and attentively to the *grade 1 teachers*' explanations and demonstrations. A few of them asked questions, as per the *grade 1 teachers*' encouragement, upon which the *grade 1 teachers* would provide explanations to the whole class. The majority of the learners hardly ever spoke in class and were consequently neglected by the *grade 1 teachers*.

(d) Medium of instruction in the classroom situation

In the Afrikaans medium schools the *grade 1 teachers* presented their lessons in Afrikaans, with the interactions between the learners and them and amongst their peers also in Afrikaans. All the written activities were done in both Afrikaans and by using mathematical concepts. Learners also completed their written activities in Afrikaans. In the English medium schools communication was exclusively in English and mathematics terminology was used. The same also applied here and there for the Tshivenda, Sesotho sa Lebowa and Xitsonga languages.

The English medium schools also tended to have learners from other language groups. Such learners, predominantly from the township schools, seemed not to be at ease with English. They also tended not to participate in the lessons and no deliberate efforts were made by the *grade 1 teachers* to accommodate them. *Grade 1 teachers* would pose questions to the entire class, and only those learners who knew the answers responded by shouting out the answers or by putting up their hands. Some of the *grade 1 teachers* tended to supplement mathematics communication with metaphors intent on giving "real life" meaning to the concepts dealt with.

(e) ***Grade 1* learners' *involvement***

In most instances less than a quarter of the learners participated actively during the lessons. The dominant pattern in most of the lessons observed would entail learners listening to the *grade 1 teachers* for the most part. There were no demonstrations, with a few learners copying down some of the notes written on the chalkboard. Learners responded to the *grade 1 teachers*' questions for a large proportion of the time during the lessons, and only asked questions about the work presented when something was unclear to them.

No learner-learner interaction took place in most of the lessons. In some instances learners did not even whisper to each other, whilst in cases where they interacted it was usually not linked to the lessons. Equally, the few learners who interacted with the *grade 1 teachers* were those asking questions. When learners asked questions, *grade 1 teachers* tended to respond by talking to the whole class. Individual learner responses to teacher questions were also interpreted by *grade 1 teachers* as indicative of the entire class' understanding.

(f) Form of assessment

The main form of assessment followed by the *grade 1 teachers* entailed asking questions during the course of the lessons. *Grade 1 teachers* relied on learners' oral responses to determine whether they understood the work or not, and provided them with both individual and class feedback. Learners were always given exercises, which were always checked the same day.

Although the *grade 1 teacher* encouraged learners to ask questions, they did not allow them enough time to reflect on what they might want to ask. The *grade 1 teachers* asked learners frequently during the lessons whether they understood the concepts and processes demonstrated or explained. They also checked previously learnt concepts and processes that they considered important for learners to know. Learners' inputs were

however not taken into account in the whole process. They had to listen, and seemed to accept everything the teachers told them. Learners got feedback about their errors or misconceptions. This was done in a whole class setting and the incorrect solutions and strategies were used to demonstrate correct ones. Common errors and misconceptions were explained and demonstrated and the *grade 1 teachers* did further consolidation exercises. They constantly reminded learners of what they needed to know in colouring pictures.

(g) *Grade 1 teachers'* instructional practices

The *grade 1 teachers* who were observed made the concepts to be learnt clear and explicit. They would, for example, thoroughly explain to the learners how to count from 1 to 10. Most of the learners were able to apply the rules supplied to them by the *grade 1 teachers* in a successful way. Learners were expected to study rules and processes so that they knew them by heart, and many of them were able to apply these concepts to other concepts in the lessons. Before the *grade 1 teachers* started with the next lessons they revised previous concepts and processes that they thought learners should know in order to proceed to new understanding. They would constantly remind learners that they were working from a synthetic approach and that they should remember all the previously learnt concepts and processes.

(h) Learning opportunities

Grade 1 teachers thus provided learners with opportunities to express their current understanding by asking questions and splitting learners into groupwork, prescribing classwork and homework. However, this was a process confined to interaction between the *grade 1 teachers* and learners. Learner to learner discussions were non-existent. Furthermore, understanding in the lessons observed mainly took the form of displaying knowledge. Thus *grade 1 teachers* provided learners with opportunities to demonstrate whether they knew how to carry out the procedures, rather than to express their conceptual understandings. Learners were provided with opportunities to practice using

concepts and processes only through oral answering of *grade 1 teachers*' questions during the lessons. The *grade 1 teachers* presented the lessons at levels that they regarded as being fit for all *grade 1*'s, without taking into account learner differentiation. Though the content levels tended to be generally appropriate, little attention was given to learners who might have problems with the levels. All learners were engaged in examples varying from easy to more complex. Those who were competent and mastered the concepts were not allowed to demonstrate such competence in opportunities with additional and more challenging situations.

In cases where learners were introduced to new, appropriate and correct terminology, this was usually in an unplanned manner. In such cases, *grade 1 teachers* also failed to check learners' understanding and misconceptions. Slower learners were mostly lost and had to struggle on their own to grasp the *grade 1 teachers*' methods. Individual learners were not given opportunities for meta-cognition, learning about thinking, learning about learning and learning about the process involved. The *grade 1 teachers* did most of the communication and imposed formal language onto the learners without giving them a chance to relate their informal language to the formal mathematical terminology.

(i) Demonstrations

The *grade 1 teachers* tended to demonstrate how the mathematical concepts and processes work, though these were directed towards procedural rather than conceptual understanding. They generally relied on a few examples from the textbooks. On a few occasions the *grade 1 teachers* used abstractions and representations to demonstrate how new concepts and process function. They consistently attempted to build relationships among the concepts and representations. Such relationships were, however, not generalised and applied to problem solving and real life experiences.

(j) Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation

Lumadi (1997:77) shows that the most important fact about motivation is that it results from the learners' own interests and from the activities of play. Two types of motivation, namely: extrinsic and intrinsic have been identified. Extrinsic motivation results from such external factors as favourable circumstances, competition, prizes, certificates and many others. Intrinsic motivation on the other hand is closely related to the learning situation and is determined by such factors as the meaningfulness of education, the inner striving of the learner towards self - realisation, values, norms and standards.

In this study, the researcher found that learners were not involved in discussions, nor encouraged to discuss concepts and processes or to compare their interpretations of these with their peers. They were not encouraged to assist one another with tasks so that they could learn from each other, to explain, negotiate, and justify, or to assess each other's understandings. In one case the *grade 1 teacher* motivated her learners when she said:

> *"The learner who is the best in counting 1 up to 15 will get a prize of money."*
> *(Which displays a serious lack of intrinsic motivation.)*

4.1.4 Trialling

Thompson (1996:975) shows that trialling has to do with trying out or testing a thing. The main purpose of trialling in this investigation was to provide information during the *development* phase of a project that would suggest ways of improving the project. Materials of some kind were usually the focus. However, the trials provided the first opportunity to collect general evidence about the *curriculum* - educational potential, practicability, usage patterns and the like - as part of a wider *curriculum* evaluation. Another purpose of trialling was simply to find out whether the project was perceived to be of value and was, therefore, likely to be used.

The researcher's trial conditions were as close to the typical conditions of implementation as possible. Nevertheless, it was important to select situations where the materials or procedures had a reasonable chance of success. The researcher was aware of situations that guaranteed success at any price. A range of trial situations was included, varying from those where there was positive support to those where there was no reason to expect particularly positive trial conditions. Comparisons were possible across a range of commitments. More than one trial phase was allowed if possible, so that major restructuring could be contemplated after an initial trial. Later trials also allowed monitoring of the effects of modification.

Development testing was used within the *development* process (i.e. mini-trialling of fragments of the materials as they were produced). These helped the researcher to iron out some problems before a major trial phase. *Development* testing provided quick and informal feedback, and helped to prepare the ground for the major trial. The researcher's trials not only identified where modifications were needed, but also why they were needed. The insights of an observer, who witnessed the trials first-hand, provided an interpretative framework for others who wanted to understand the nature and worth of the materials at work.

Reports of trials were explicit about the trialling process: the role of the researcher, the selection of trial situations, reactive effects of the research study, and the like. Such information helped potential users and research study audiences to understand the way in which the trial conditions affected the use and potential of the materials.

4.1.5 Diaries

Thompson (1996:238) explains that a diary is a book for the daily recording of events or thoughts. A great deal of data can be recorded through the use of the simple diary. It is true that data collected in this way will often be subjective or impressionistic. A diary in this study provided an excellent way of starting in the business of systematic data-gathering. Entries in the diary were as detailed as time and recollection allowed. The

diary also gave the researcher in this study an opportunity to explore ideas about a problem and relevant evidence. As entries accumulated, it became possible to review them and discover what patterns emerged. Some patterns had to do with the redefinition of problems, and some patterns emerged from the observations themselves.

Biklen (1992:133) affirms that diaries can surface in the course of interviewing or participant observation. Because a diary is usually written under the immediate influence of an experience, it can be particularly effective in capturing people's moods and most intimate thoughts. In keeping a diary, the researcher set aside more or less fifteen minutes at a regular time. The entries were made soon after the researcher arrived home. Experience shows that it is best to write up a diary while the events of the day are still clear in the researcher's mind. To avoid accurate perceptions which could fade quickly, if too much time was left between the events of the day and "writing-up time," the required entries were made at a particular point in time.

The researcher's diary notes were schematic. They were intended to be "mind-stickers" or "memory-joggers" for the researcher, therefore were not intended for posterity. A diary was good for recording rather than for gaining global impressions of striking events. The diarist captured particularly vivid impressions gleaned from "critical incidents," which were more telling about school life in general patterns than they were for recalling the minutiae of specific events.

4.1.6 Cassette recorder

Casley and Kumar (1990:89) suggest that tape recording eases the burden on the researcher, and moreover enables such a researcher to concentrate on conducting discussions. This research instrument was utilised by the researcher as a standard practice in more formal meetings. The instrument furthermore guaranteed greater reliability in this research project.

According to Lumadi (1995:34) the researcher is compelled to make use of a tape recorder when conducting interviews. Failure to make use of this instrument might yield pitfalls of forgetting valuable information from the interviewees. It was always advisable for the researcher to distribute pamphlets of typed transcriptions back to the interviewees. This received attention timeously, after the interviews had been properly conducted. Typed transcriptions that were corroborated by respondents were said to be reliable and valid. Where transcriptions were falsified by respondents, because of no correlation, they would be regarded as invalid and unreliable.

4.1.7 An independent decoder

Lumadi (1995:34) indicates that apart from the decoder, there should be an independent decoder. Transcriptions were given to a second decoder to analyse the collected data according to the protocol. The role to be played by the second researcher was to make his or her own contribution and interpretation. There was some agreement in as far as the conclusions reached by the two researchers were concerned. In a case where there was no correlation at all pertaining to the conclusion reached by the two various decoders, finality was sought.

Strauss and Corbin (1990:52) suggest that questions can be posed by an independent decoder during the analysis process. Should there be a discrepancy between the researcher's data and the findings reported by another researcher, that distinction should compel the former researcher to go back to the field to double check the origin of that discrepancy. This will enable the two researchers to iron out the discrepancies amicably and effectively. It is in this respect that the researcher sought an independent decoder to analyse the collected data. In the following discussion, the researcher will give an illustration of the outcome of the research investigation.

4.2. OUTCOMES OF THE INVESTIGATION

The researcher undertook a survey of the extent to which *grade 1 teachers* are involved as decision-makers in *SBCD in the Northern Province*. It was assumed that an analysis of the responses of *grade 1 teachers*, as well as information about the *grade 1 teacher* themselves, would elucidate the situation regarding the teaching of Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills at the Foundation Phase level.

4.2.1. Piloting the study

It was desirable to run a pilot test on a questionnaire and to revise it according to the results of the test. This was a pilot test in which a group of *grade 1 teachers* were involved (to form part of the intended test population), but it was not part of the sample attempts to determine whether questionnaire items possessed the desired qualities of measurement and discriminability. The pilot study uncovered failings as well as areas of extreme sensitivity, that is, it enabled the researcher to debug his questionnaire.

4.2.2 Correspondence

A covering letter addressed to the respondent accompanied the questionnaire. This letter explained the purpose and value of the study and the reason why the respondents were included in the sample. The cover letter promoted the study to such an extent that the respondents were eager to reply to the questions. Respondents were made to feel that they could make a contribution to the study. The status of the person who signed the letter was of paramount importance as it was a persuasive factor in the return of the questionnaire. It was helpful for a covering letter to be accompanied by permission from the top structure of the government, for example government officials such as a regional director or area managers of schools. Refer to appendices A^1 to A^3 for covering documentation used in this study.

It was possible for the respondents to remain anonymous. At any rate, respondents were assured that their responses would remain confidential. An offer was also made to share the findings of the study with the respondents. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was enclosed. For the respondents to remain anonymous, it was wise to include a postcard to be mailed separately by the investigator, indicating that the questionnaire had also been mailed. In this way, a record of each questionnaire was kept. In the subsequent discussion a report of the research ethics will be outlined.

4.2.3. Research ethics

4.2.3.1 Protecting the subjects

In this study appropriate steps were followed to avoid compelling respondents to take part in the study. The researcher explained that the study would be for educational purposes only. Embarrassing, harmful and sensitive subjects were avoided at all costs.

4.2.3.2 The right to non-participation

No subject was forced to participate in the study without consent.

4.2.3.3 The right to confidentiality

Subjects' confidentiality was not at any time compromised, as their names were not used in the collection data. No private or secret information was to be divulged, as the right to confidentiality of the subjects had to be respected (Huysamen 1994:134).

4.2.3.4 Researcher's responsibility

The researcher was to be responsible at all times, vigilant, mindful and sensitive to human dignity. All these criteria were adhered to in this investigative study. The subjects

were assured that nothing required, in either the questionnaire or the interview questions, would compromise them.

4.2.3.5 Personal integrity

The researcher had to possess personal integrity. The reader of a research report was thus able to believe that what the researcher said, really happened. The research findings of the study and data analysis are be examined in the forthcoming discussion.

4.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS OF THE STUDY AND DATA ANALYSIS

According to Bowden (1994:14) it is important to note that the outcomes of research are not just a list of categories of description obtained from a group of people. A particular category of description is always developed in terms of its relation with other categories of description. After data had been collected, the interviews were transcribed and the transcripts were subjected to rigorous analysis. This involved reading all the transcripts and drafting a set of categories of description drawn from these transcripts. Such categories and outcome spaces serve as tools to capture and communicate the features of conceptions (Bruce 1996:5).

Findings are based on the research instruments and literature review. Based on the analysis of data, the following themes which will be elaborated on in paragraphs 4.3.1-4.3.10 occurred repeatedly:

- The state of buildings in primary schools.
- Lack of resources.
- Unequal access to ownership in *SBCD.*
- Timing for *curriculum* implementation and knowledge explosion.
- *Grade 1 teachers* attitudes towards *SBCD* .
- Culture of teaching and learning.
- Professional growth and experience in *SBCD.*

- ❖ Inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management.
- ❖ Politics and teachers' unions.
- ❖ Multi – cultural education and *SBCD.*

4.3.1 The state of buildings in primary schools

In this study as opposed to general research, it became evident during the survey that the condition of buildings in primary schools in the *Northern Province* is grossly inadequate. (Compare chapter 2 paragraph 2.1.2.1 regarding school mission and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1 paragraph (a) and chapter 5 paragraph 5.1.1.9). The total number of public primary schools in Northern Region is 686. Refer to table 4.2 for public primary schools per area.

Table 4.2. Number of public primary schools per area

AREA	PRIMARY	COMBINE PUBLIC	TOTAL
Malamulele	119		119
Mutale	108		108
Sekgosese	83		83
Soutpansberg	162	7	169
Thohoyandou	106		106
Vuwani	98	3	101
			686

46,35% which is the figure deduced denotes that almost half the primary schools in the Northern region were considered to be unconducive to effective teaching and learning. In numbers this percentage represented an alarming 316 (46,1%) primary schools in the Northern region. A figure of 185 (26,9%) primary schools' buildings needed to be renovated in various inspection areas. Nevertheless, at least 27% of the schools' buildings were in a favourable condition, that is 105 (15,4%) primary schools and 80 (11,6%)

primary school buildings were in an immaculate and an excellent condition. This is represented in figure 4.2:

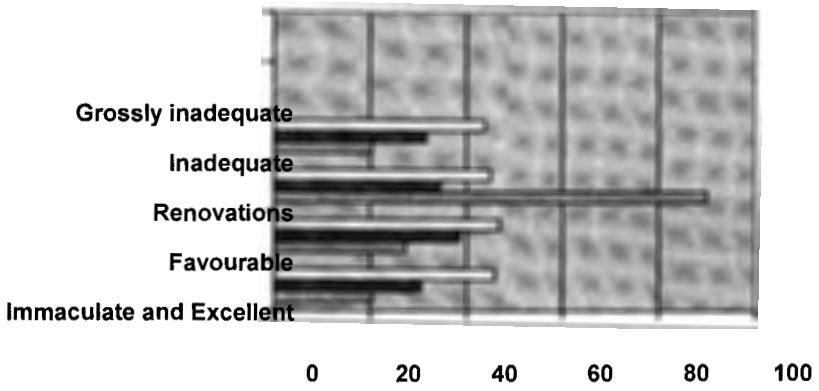


Figure 4.2 State of buildings in schools

Teaching and learning cannot occur in an environment which is lackadaisical, unpredictable and not directed towards optimising quality classroom time. Conditions in the schools in which the research was conducted were far from conducive to learning for substantial periods of time. Classrooms had broken windows, cracked walls, no doors for a long period, buildings were collapsing whilst those that were incomplete yet available were without roofs, which warrants classes being called off during bad weather. For instance it was a disaster during the heavy rainfalls in February and March 2000 when Mozambique and the *Northern Province* were flooded. Classes were often in flood, classrooms needed paint, some classrooms became kraals, sties and kennels for domestic animals. In the morning unnecessary time thus gets wasted in cleaning the premises of the schools.

Brodie (1999:12) too, conducted a case study in a rural secondary school in the *Northern Province*. The school had 11 classrooms for 705 learners and 18 staff members. 7 out of the 11 classrooms were not complete yet and there was a shortage of furniture, e.g. chairs, desks and those that were there were hardly functional. The classrooms had small portable chalkboards which were hardly visible from all points of the classroom.

Most of the classrooms investigated in this study were overcrowded and the teacher-learner ratio was 1:80. (Compare chapter 2 item 2.5.3.1). As a result learners had to share the school day shifts. There were morning and afternoon sessions in order to accommodate all *grade 1* learners. In one inspection area it was pathetic to see *grade 1* learners sharing 1 chair amongst three. In this inspection area most of the *grade 1* learners were taught under baobab trees. Brady (1990:28) views the problem of overcrowded classrooms as being due to an excess of enrolment against available accommodation. Lumadi (1995:56), in support of Brady (1990:28), propounds that effective teaching rarely takes place in classes where large numbers of learners are gathered together without an orderly arrangement.

The *grade 1 teacher*'s concern in one primary school was verbalised as follows:

"I was appointed at this primary school in 1991. Since I got employed, my *grade 1* class has always been under this baobab tree. When it rains, kids are released, when it is windy, we do the same story. When the weather is favourable they attend but the only problem is that learners cannot concentrate wholeheartedly because there are so many disturbances that distract learners' attention".

4.3.2 Lack of resources

As a result of this investigation, it was realised that the lack of resources is a major problem experienced by *grade 1 teachers* in the *Northern Province*. Some of them try to improvise where they can, but it is not clear for how long they will have to continue improvising. *OBE* requires teachers to make use of various resources when teaching. In some primary schools, especially in rural areas, electricity is not available and as a result it becomes a mammoth task for *grade 1 teachers* to teach effectively. Laboratories were only found in three primary schools in the entire Northern region. How can *grade 1 teachers* develop a *curriculum* in the absence of required resources? This has a serious impact on the quality of education the learners receive as indicated in chapter 2 item 2.5.3.5 and chapter 5 items 5.1.1- 5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1(b).

Vinjevold and Taylor (1999:172), as well, examined the amount and nature of learning resources available in *grade 1* in the Western Cape Province. In *grade 1*, the focus was on materials for Language and Literacy and Mathematics. In the *grade 1* classes they found that over half the classrooms sampled lacked ten or more basic learning materials. Urban under resourced schools were significantly short of reading materials and had very little in terms of blocks, plastic cubes, crayons, puzzles and games. Rural classrooms had no learning materials in sufficient quantity.

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that most areas in South Africa are plagued by lack of resources and that the state has a major role to play. The researcher also identified some of the following constraints regarding lack of resources:

4.3.2.1 Libraries

Van Schalkwyk (1990:136) avers that the function of the education media service is to make a effectively housed and well ordered collection of books, magazines and educational aids readily available for the use of teachers for lessons.

Based on research findings, it was discovered that only 19% of the primary schools in the Northern Region have libraries. It is surprising to realise that only 9% of these primary schools have good libraries which contain relevant references to *Curriculum* 2005. Where there is a shortage of libraries *grade 1 teachers* are not exposed to the materials which would be necessary or useful in *OBE*. Greater access to a library enables *grade 1 teachers* to be updated with relevant information.

A *grade 1 teacher* explained: "One locker in grade 7 class is used as a library for the school. 99% of the books in the library are from the defunct Department of Education and Training (DET) and they have got nothing to do with *Curriculum* 2005. The class is only used as a library during a 20 minutes break. After school the principal locks. When he is absent we do not have access into that locker because he is the only one who keeps the keys."

4.3.2.2 Resource materials

In general, the researcher found that textbooks and other resource materials were available at some inspection areas although not always in a sufficient quantity for both *grade 1* learners and teachers. In one circuit with more than 30 primary schools, it was established that only 3 teachers' guides were utilised by the entire circuit. A teacher's guide offers advice to teachers about teaching a specific subject and it also includes resource details (Marsh 1992:51). What happened in practice is that the teacher's guide had to rotate among more than 40 *grade 1 teachers*. By the end of the year the teacher's guide had been damaged. Learners do not have files as expected. *Grade 1 teachers* improvise by using files which were meant for the phased-out Primary Education Upgrading Programme (PEUP). *Grade 1 teachers* do not possess brushes, posters, cards, paints and many other items. In some schools, where *grade 1 teachers*' guides were however supplied, they reached the schools only in May or June instead of the first week of re-opening. A shortage of stationery was also noted in some areas (Fowler and Allen 1990:735).

The following concern is from a *grade 1 teacher* from one inspection area: "I asked the principal in May to photocopy me a teacher's guide. He said the school had budgetery constraints. I should wait until such a time that the Department of Education (DOE) will deliver enough teacher's guides. In the meantime I should stick to the old *curriculum* as there are no required resource materials".

4.3.2.3 Teaching and Learning media

Charles (1990:60) points out that media have become a collective term for the means of mass communication that have developed with technological advances. From the data analysis, it was found that in most primary schools in the *Northern Province* the predominant medium is the chalkboard, whereas overhead projectors, computers and many other media are difficult to find. Although in *OBE* teachers are encouraged to develop their own materials, most learners, when requested to come to school with

magazines, newspaper cuttings, empty boxes of powder soap or cereals, and or a pair of scissors, are co-operative. In one rural area, the *grade 1 teachers* were concerned about the use of the chalkboard. There are only four old chalkboards in the whole school which has 10 classrooms for grades 1 to 7. Grades 1 and 2 share the chalkboard, grades 3 and 4, grades 5 and 6, while grade 7 does not share a chalkboard. "If you want to use it, you have to queue for it. Sometimes you do not get it at all. The last resort for me is to ask learners to write on the floor". How can one teach effectively when there is such a stumbling block to overcome? In view of these problems it becomes difficult for *grade 1 teachers* to develop their school curricula. It is argued that media do not provide substitutes for teaching-learning events, but rather facilitate and supplement teaching. The success of learning, achieved with the aid of media, reflects a relationship with the way the teacher applies media in the lesson (Krüger and Müller 1990:102).

In figure 4.3 it is illustrated that the only resources available at the time of the survey were the library, textbooks, media and facilities for extramural activities such as sports or playground. 44% of schools reported an adequate provision, 52% an inadequate provision, and 3% grossly inadequate. Of the primary schools that reported grossly inadequate provision of these resources, 161 had no textbooks and 279 had no laboratories. The other resources investigated were in extremely poor supply with 91,4% of the primary schools in the *Northern Province* lacking libraries, 88% lacking media and equipment. Of the primary schools that reported possessing these resources, only 4% had adequate media equipment, 3% had adequate libraries and 4% had adequate unspecified equipment.

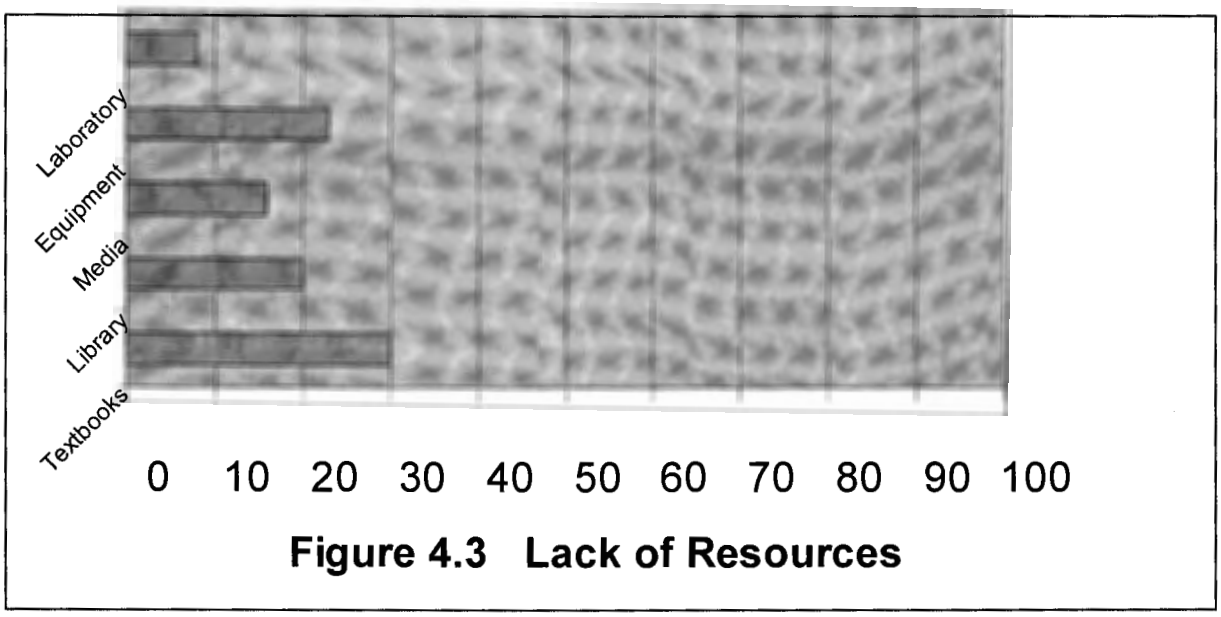


Figure 4.3 Lack of Resources

4.3.3. Unequal access to ownership in *SBCD*

In the final analysis, the researcher found that the bone of contention in the debate over centralisation or decentralisation of the planning of the *curriculum* is, who should define and develop the educational *curriculum*? (Compare chapter 2 paragraph 2.3.4 and chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1(c).) The question of whether the perspective of learning content specialists, school administrators, *grade 1 teachers* or learners should determine educational programme design and use has surfaced repeatedly in educational discussions (Brady 1990:8).

Most of the *grade 1 teachers* contended that the fact that their education system is decentralised is a fallacy. The setting up of machinery to undertake *curriculum* planning and development is solely in the hands of a centralised education system. The GNU's decision is still final and the *grade 1 teachers*' correspondence in *SBCD* is not entered into. It seems odd in retrospect to perceive the GNU designing a *curriculum* which should be implemented by the *grade 1 teachers* without their active prior *involvement*. The fact that *grade 1 teachers* do not enjoy equal access to ownership and control of the school *curriculum* governance is undemocratic. The GNU and *grade 1 teachers* are thus not on an equal footing. The GNU takes the upper hand in all *curriculum* issues.

As has already been noted, the sequence of socio-political events in South Africa in general, and the *Northern Province* in particular, has been neither logical nor ideal. *Grade 1 teachers* in some primary schools said that there are too many outside pressures. Subject-based *curriculum* programmes were thrusted upon them without consultation. For as long as they are not fully involved in *curriculum* design and development the process of *SBCD* will remain a dream.

> *"I cannot say I was involved in curriculum decision-making. All that I remember is that I was given an official curriculum and all that was required from me was to implement the irrelevant stuff to my learners. I know the needs and interests of my learners because I am more knowledgeable and experienced as I have been teaching grade 1 for more than 20 years."*

4.3.4 Timing for *curriculum* implementation and knowledge explosion

The outcomes of this investigation show that as a part of the capacity building exercise and the piloting of standards through a form of training, the Department of Education (DOE), initiated a teacher training model (the cascade model) intended to spread knowledge and skills to approximately 5 206 *grade 1 teachers* in the *Northern Province*. Although the intention was noble and theoretically viable and feasible, the programme was simply not workable in an environment which was so unreceptive. The DOE procured the services of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) to deliver the national level training and to monitor and evaluate the cascading of training in the entire provinces. The DOE has yet to prove that its dream of cascades has worked and whether it functions effectively.

Prior to the implementation of *Curriculum* 2005, only 20 educators were chosen in the *Northern Province* to attend the Train-the-Trainer workshop organised by the National DOE in Pretoria during 1997. The rationale behind the training was that those trained educators would again train the teachers in their entire regions and inspection areas. 30

primary schools were chosen in *Northern Province* in order to pilot *Curriculum* 2005. 5 schools were chosen per region. The *grade 1 teachers* responsible for their grades in those demographically representative primary schools underwent training.

Out of 30 areas, only 19 areas were seconded and 12 areas had no facilitators. One could use simple logic in concluding that some of the facilitators were theoretically taking care of 2 areas. Towards the end of 1997, the *Northern Province* further trained 5000 *grade 1 teachers* in preparation for the implementation of *curriculum* 2005 in January 1998. In fact, these are the current *grade 1 teachers* who are grappling with *OBE* in the Foundation Phase. In early 1998, *Northern Province* officials took a step further by inviting all facilitators from all regions and trained them for a week, for the sake of preparing them for a common understanding in conducting workshops in their areas. The duration of the workshop was a maximum of 2 days. The only snag was that there were no *curriculum* resource centres available and as a result workshops were only held where *grade 1 teachers* had access to transportation.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:245) show that right from the beginning, all teachers must understand that implementing *OBE* requires lots of time, energy and work. The duration of only 2 days for workshops and no follow-up at some inspection areas due to shortage of manpower and transportation, were indicators which suggested that the organisation left much to be desired. (See chapter 2 item 2.5.3.5 and chapter 5 item 5.1.1-5.1.8.d). It is evident that external control, management and implementation of the *curriculum* is reduced by the wider range of choices in *curriculum* materials available to *grade 1 teachers*. It is virtually impossible for a single *curriculum* developer, acting independently, to choose the most suitable *curriculum* package on behalf of *grade 1 teachers*. *Grade 1 teachers* also pointed out that they ought to have been given sufficient time for training in *Curriculum* 2005. The little knowledge which they acquired during training does not equip them properly. Kader Asmal, in support of this, stated that Bhengu's *OBE* implementation was ill-timed (Sunday Times February 2000).

A grade 1 teacher remarked, "Where on earth have you ever seen a person being trained for 2 days and be expected to be competent in a work which needs a thorough training for 2 years? We are not yet clear about curriculum 2005. We are just chasing a black cat in a dark room".

Potenza (2000:19) shows that teachers complain about the duration of training which they received. Teachers spend three to four years at teacher training colleges and universities, yet they are expected to implement *OBE* effectively within four days of training, which is not enough.

4.3.5 *Grade 1 teachers'* attitude towards *SBCD*

A traumatic experience encountered by *grade 1 teachers* and those with contractual appointments, is the fact that it is expected of them to teach learning programmes in which they have no training. For most *grade 1 teachers* it is a tremendous issue to motivate learners effectively and to motivate them in a learning programme for which they have little interest.

The researcher's close examination revealed that most *grade 1 teachers* in the *Northern Province* have already received departmental documents regarding redeployment. Quirck (1991:871) points out that redeployment involves giving new positions or tasks to teachers. Redeployment in the academic sense can also be viewed as the transfer of educators from one institution to another, with the aim of placing those educators in the place where their skills can be maximally utilised.

The Teacher Supply Utilization Development (TSDU) disputed that teachers should be rationalized even if they are unqualified. The *Northern Province* has been instrumental in the process of educator redeployment in line with the broader attempts to right-size education (Campbell and Kgobe 1997:07). DEACS has stated that there are about 6 885 primary and secondary school educators in excess of current requirements, and only 630

have applied for a voluntary severance package, whilst *Northern Province* has only approved 170. In view of the fact that most *grade 1 teachers* received departmental documents regarding redeployment, they did not teach effectively because they knew that they are no longer permanent. (See table 4.3 regarding *Northern Province's* latest redeployment in primary schools).

One of the accepted criteria for redeployment is termed "LIFO". The achronym "LIFO"stands for *last in first out*. The last teacher to be appointed in an institution will be the first victim to be redeployed. Those who were appointed last in schools spent sleepless nights (Lumadi 1999:11).

Table 4.3 Northern Province's redeployment in primary schools

Year	Teachers in excess	Grade	Available posts
2000	733	1	302
2000	685	2	294
2000	742	3	309
2000	267	4	200
2000	228	5	219
2000	442	6	366
2000	571	7	305
	3 668		**1 995**

It is also alarming to note that redeployment does not guarantee automatic placement at another institution. Teachers have to vie for absorption into a particular school through interviews. The competition is said to be stiff because interviewees have to compete for a post. It is also indicated that teachers will be given a scheduled time to obtain a post. Should they fail to get a job in that time, they will be retrenched. The number of available posts does not correlate with the number of excess teachers, which triples the available number of posts. 2 673 teachers should be redeployed and *grade 1 teachers* are thus demotivated because of these circumstances.

"I am demotivated by the letter which I received from the DOE. I know that my job is no longer secured. I will just teach to get my salary even though I lost interest on teaching".

The teachers' unions, such as the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and Professional Educators' Union (PEU), propound that redeployment cannot be carried out because of the following reasons:

- The province does not have a demarcating policy on the appointment, promotion and redeployment of educators. This is due to the current "right-sizing" of school staff.
- The roles of the various levels of management in the appointment, promotion, redeployment and retrenchment of educators are not clearly spelt out.
- The province does not have an educator appraisal and development system in operation at present.

An affected teacher cannot teach effectively, instead he will only teach in a haphazard way. (See chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1.e). Those who did not receive documentation concerning redeployment, were informed that redeployment would take place annually. Those whose close relatives are employed at tertiary institutions are also facing the same problems, as institutions of higher learning are also being rationalized. Prior to 1994, there was a proliferation of Teacher Training Colleges in the *Northern Province*. The *Northern Province* had until 1994, 21 colleges of education which oversaturated the market with teachers who specialised in social sciences. The number of colleges was reduced from 21 to 10 as reflected in table 4.4. It was found at a later stage that the decision to reduce colleges from 21 to 10 was still unviable because the *Northern Province* have teacher education providers beyond the colleges which are run by the Provincial Department of Education (PDE). For instance the University of the North (UNIN) and University of Venda for Science and Technology (UNIVEN) are also producing teachers. Moreover, there are also institutions of higher learning such as the University of South Africa (UNISA), Randse Afrikaanse University

(RAU) and Vista University which are training teachers in the Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE), Bachelor of Arts in Education (BAEd), Master of Education (MEd) as well. Other teachers are produced by the so-called English speaking universities such as the University of Witwatersrand (WITS) and the University of Cape Town (UCT). As such, there is a move to incorporate the colleges of education into the University of the North and University of Venda for Science and Technology. The discussions on the modalities are now finalised. At the moment one can safely say that South African educators do not have guarantee regarding the safety of their jobs. The future is bleak for everyone. Others are forced to take early retirement packages. *Grade 1 teachers*' morale is lowered still further.

TABLE 4.4. NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN TRAINING ACCORDING TO TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES PRIOR TO RATIONALIZATION.

NAME OF COLLEGE	JPTD 1st year	2nd year	3rd year	SPTD 1st year	2nd year	3rd year	STD 1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Mapulaneng College of Education	168	93	57	279	68	219	67	30	30
Bochum College of Education	83	66	42	0	65	114	41	115	234
Kwena Moloto College of Education	120	165	159	120	208	110	120	160	111
Setotolwane College of Education							268	322	201
Sekhukhune College of Education	170	159	153	70	142	115	202	207	242
Thaba Moopo College of Education				74	77	106	139	172	230
Mokopane College of Education	30	60	21	125	176	154	252	242	166
Tivumbeni College of Education							304	319	267
Naphuno College of Education				151	241	225	190	251	53
Hoxani College of Education	231	210	226	105	99	103	20	20	20
Modjadji College of Education				160	132	204	256	351	347
Venda College of Education							258	231	158
Giyani College of Education							176	203	53
Lemana College of Education	185	57	165	233	73	146			
Mamokgalake Chuene College	38	60	57	110	107	193	180	133	
Makhado College of Education				86	75	63	221	155	129
Dr. C.N. Phatudi College				190	154	214	154	139	167
Ramaano Mbulaheni College							85	64	63
Sekgosese College of Education				266	286	299	72	60	
Shingwedzi College of Education				245	245	245			
Tshisimani College of Education	121	121	122	100	104	104			
TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS	**1 146**	**991**	**1 002**	**2314**	**2252**	**2641**	**3005**	**3 174**	**2 471**

After lengthy deliberation, SADTU, plus pro-government politicians, agreed to close some schools that were no longer serving the general interests of the country. Thus parties agreed to transfer all serving educators in excess in terms of operational requirements "spelled out in Resolution 5 of 1998 based on, but not limited to the following:

- *Curriculum* changes within a specific education institution
- Change in learners' enrolment
- Change to the grading of the specific institution
- Financial constraints (SADTU 1999:19).

See table 4.4 for rationalised teacher training colleges in *Northern Province*. Only 3 institutions survived after rationalization.

4.3.6 Culture of Teaching and Learning (COLTS)

According to Brubaker (1994:76) the creative *curriculum* teacher is expected to give attention to both personal and organisational vision. A good vision is always linked with the use of time. (Compare chapter 5 item 5.1 sub headings 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1.f).

4.3.6.1 Aspect of time

The effective utilisation of time is of paramount importance for successful teaching and learning. In this study, the researcher recognised that most primary schools in the *Northern Province* do not have effective and workable mechanisms of stamping out late arrivals. The South African constitution does not allow teachers to punish the learners by sending them back home when they come late to school. In one school the *grade 1 teacher* did not allow the learner to enter the class because of latecoming. That *grade 1 teacher* ended up appearing before the school governing body and disciplinary measures were taken against him. In some school that were visited, where there is a fence, principals lock gates when the school starts. In one school where there are 4 *grade 1*

teachers, it was alleged that one of the *grade 1 teachers* did not honour all his periods of teaching. Apart from that he always comes late and leaves early. When he is supposed to go to class, he wastes time chatting in the staff-room or keeping himself busy writing assignments for his own private studies or reading the newspaper. It is further alleged that *grade 1 teachers* go to class without thorough preparation. The community concerned once complained about this behaviour and *grade 1 teachers* were severely reprimanded. Although the teacher promised to reform, this has not occurred. Most of the *grade 1 teachers* in other schools observed full official working hours as prescribed and their work was always up to date.

A *grade 1 teacher* said:

> *"When the learners come in late, I do not have a say. I just pretend as if I do not see them even though it causes disturbances when I am busy teaching. As long as I get my salary at the end of the month".*
>
> *"Why should I come early and prepare my lessons thoroughly. It is just a waste of time because the DOE does not require my services anymore. I have applied for a job at a private company because I am retrenched."*

4.3.6.2 Quality and control of work

The researcher's findings also showed that one of the valid reasons why learners fail dismally is that the *grade 1 teachers* concerned do not give enough written work to learners, and further there is only sporadic assessment of learners' work. See table 4.5 regarding the failure rate.

Table 4.5 Grade 1 failure rate in Northern Province

	Area	Percentage wrote	Percentage passed	Percentage failed	Year
1.	Sekhusese	100	46,4	53,6	1994
2.	Soutpansberg	100	51,2	48,8	1995
3.	Vuwani	100	59,5	40,5	1996
4.	Thohoyandou	100	89,1	10,9	1997
5.	Malamulele	100	98,8	1,2	1998
6.	Mutale	100	98,9	1,1	1999

Although classwork and projects are supposed to be given as part of continuous assessment, in most schools insufficient work is given to learners. Where there was a teacher's guide and a syllabus to be covered some of the aspects were not covered timeously and there was no assessment. In two schools, *grade 1 teachers* were not clear about their teaching. In cases of giving learners classwork and dividing them for group work, *grade 1 teachers* failed to supervise their learners. Absenteeism is also perceived to be one of the greatest maladies of primary schools on the part of both teachers and learners. Teachers who always abscond obviously cannot monitor absenteeism.

Madida's (1992:49) findings in the Kwazulu Natal Province, show that classes in black communities, unlike in white communities, are always overcrowded because of the shortage of qualified teachers. This researcher's findings differ from Madida's findings, though, because overcrowding has no bearing on the shortage of *grade 1 teachers*. A *grade 1 teacher* remarked:

> *I did not assess my learners on most of the activities because my class is overcrowded. Besides it is not easy for one to notice the number of learners who are absent. Control of work becomes a dicy issue. Learners come in and bunk classes when they please. Supervision is always poor because of overcrowding.*

4.3.6.3 Academic support programmes

It was deduced from two inspection areas that an academic support programme supplements the hours of teaching and learning. One of the reasons why *grade 1* learners fail in primary schools, is that they simply do not study enough to cope with the demands of the *curriculum*. In secondary schools the DOE introduced compulsory morning and afternoon studies. In some primary schools, an academic support programme was more appropriate than studies. Learners with educational problems were always helped by *grade 1 teachers*. (See table 4.6 which reflects on the academic support programme in various inspection areas). Learners with various problems were identified and it was recommended that they be sent to special schools.

In the Sekgosese and Vuwani inspection areas, disabled learners were found in some classes. *Grade 1 teachers* also indicated that they had serious problems in teaching such learners, because they were physically disabled. The DOE policy stipulates explicitly that disabled learners should be accommodated in mainstream education and that no special help is given to them. This issue is also exacerbated by the fact that in *Curriculum* 2005 learners should be allowed to learn at their own pace. This retarded progress of other learners and as a result it became problematic for the *grade 1 teacher* to cope with such learners. Although parents were advised by the school principal to send their children to private schools, this did not receive the parents' proper attention because they indicated that they could not afford to send their children to such schools because of financial constraints. One parent remarked negatively to a *grade 1 teacher*:

> *"I do not have money to send my child to expensive schools. If you think you have a lot of money you can take my child to such schools but you should also bear the financial costs".*

Table 4.6 Academic support programmes for learners

	Year	Area	Days in the week	No of *grade 1* learners	Duration
1	1995	Malamulele	Monday	03	1 hour
2	1996	Sekhusese	Tuesday	06	1 hour
3	1997	Soutpansberg	Wednesday	04	45 minutes
4	1998	Thohoyandou	Thursday	03	40 minutes
5	1999	Vuwani	Friday	02	30 minutes

4.3.7 Professional growth and experience in *SBCD*

Here, too, an application of the research instruments enabled the researcher to note that *grade 1 teachers'* lack of experience poses serious problems for the teaching of the primary school *curriculum*. The transition from initial teacher training or university teacher education to *grade 1* teaching is an important shift in the life of a *grade 1* beginning teacher. (Compare chapter 5 item 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1.g). The primary school must help the *grade 1* beginner teacher learn how to become competent in the chosen profession. However, the acquisition of the varied and complex skills that characterise effective teaching involves much more than practising teaching in the classroom situation. A lot should be done to support the experiences of *grade 1* beginner teachers in the Foundation Phase. Some *grade 1 teachers* indicated:

> *"We are overloaded. Apart from the load of teaching we are also responsible for extra-mural activities. We are also responsible for late-coming, drawing school time-tables and many others. When we asked the principal to reconsider our workload, he did not show interest except to say that he wanted us to be more knowledgeable and experienced. In view of this burden which does not give us a breathing space we teach in a haphazard manner".*

In fact, 85,3% of the *grade 1* beginner teachers surveyed maintained that they felt isolated in their primary schools. In this study, a lot of primary schools run short of structures to assist the *grade 1* beginner teachers in their period of transition from learner teacher to *grade 1* beginner teacher. A newly appointed teacher in a farm school expressed his concern for being thrown into the deep end where one is required to swim.

> *"It is a tough experience which is confusing and frustrating. You are just told to go to primary school Z and when you get there it appears old teachers are not welcoming you. When you encounter problems, nobody is interested on helping you. It is like being thrown into the deeper part of the ocean and told to swim. You have to find your way of swimming or you get drowned immediately".*

A number of *grade 1* beginner teachers had similar experiences. Some were even wondering about the prospects of remaining in the noble profession of teaching for a long time. A *grade 1 teacher* said he wanted to become a teacher because he had a vision of working with primary school learners. Unfortunately he was in for a shock when he got into his school. The learners were not interested in learning. When he asked for help from some experienced senior teachers and the Head of Department (HOD) he got a negative response.

> *"Why did you apply for a job because you lack experience? Were you not given the strategies of handling such learners at your teacher training college? It is better to resign when it is still early instead of waiting for a redeployment letter to come from the DOE".*

This *grade 1 teacher's* story reflects a number of difficulties which *grade 1* beginner teachers experience. The HOD spoke about experience as if it is something which is innate or may be sold in a particular shop. The *grade 1 teacher* was rather disappointed to

realize that his learners were not intrinsically motivated. Furthermore, in the interview session this *grade 1 teacher* highlighted that he attempted to enthuse the learners, but in vain. The context in which he taught also contributed to this state of affairs. He taught in a peri-urban primary school where the learners needed more attention because of their environmental background.

4.3.8 Inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management

Buckley (1993:416) observes that discipline is a system for the maintenance of order. Discipline connotes a systematic training of the physical, moral and mental capacities of the learner through intention and exercise. (Consult chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1.h). This involves every methods for the smooth running of the school. Discipline is a form of control. In education, it is accepted that the learner is controlled by an outside force, a superior of some sort who has been placed in authority (Charles 1990:70).

The researcher reported that in most of the primary schools in the *Northern Province*, *grade 1 teachers* complain about poor discipline. Learners are said to be noisy, fond of bullying each other, cheating and lying, caught up in petty theft of other learners' stationery, bunking classes and late-coming. Some of the *grade 1 teachers* said these problems were cropping up because corporal punishment had been abolished.

An old *grade 1 teacher* stressed that the abolition of corporal punishment tarnished the Culture of Teaching and Learning Service (COLTS) in South African schools, especially those that are predominantly for blacks.

> *"Bring a shambok in the classroom if you want to restore colts. Reprimanding and warning of learners is a waste of time and energy because learners are spoiled from their respective homes".*

Based on the expressions of these *grade 1 teachers*, it is clear that undesirable behaviour in the teaching-learning situation is inevitable. Learners may have learnt some undesirable behaviour as a result of their previous experiences in or out of school. They may not yet have learned the behaviour which is appropriate to their new class situation, and some may test out their *grade 1 teacher* in order to establish what the new limits are. A great deal of unwanted behaviours cannot simply be overlooked while the *grade 1 teacher* waits for learners to show appropriate behaviour. The *grade 1 teacher's* focus should be the provision of consequences which weaken and decrease undesirable behaviour whilst retaining a constructive and conducive atmosphere in class.

In inspection areas where the primary schools are adjacent to secondary schools, the primary school learners behave as if they are already at secondary schools. During break both primary and secondary school learners mix together and share ideas. It is alarming that the principals do not have a say in this matter. When a bell rings to signify the end of break, learners drag their feet to class. Some walk out of their classes in order to go and bask in the sun, especially in winter. By merely observing and understanding this type of situation, it is clear that it is not an easy task for a *grade 1 teacher* to develop a school *curriculum*. This is where Mwamwenda (1995:311) shows that discipline is important, since without it the purpose of schooling fails.

Moreover, the context for dealing with unwanted behaviour must always be one in which learners' acceptable behaviour, and stages towards it, are being frequently noticed and rewarded. It should always be borne in mind that the main objective is to minimize the sick behaviours occurring, to teach learners appropriate behaviours and elicit these instead. Discipline thus implies control, without which there would be anarchy and chaos, and as a result effective learning cannot in any way take place (Lumadi 1999:2).

4.3.9 Politics and teachers' unions

The analysis brought to light that *involvement* in politics and teachers' unions is detrimental to the smooth running of the school *curriculum*. (See chapter 2 paragraph 2.3.4 and chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1.i). *Grade 1 teachers,* like other teachers, organise themselves into professional unions and associations for a number of reasons, namely: to improve the status of the teaching profession, to raise and maintain professional standards and to look after their interests as employees. As employees, teachers are concerned with their personal and economic welfare. The teachers' associations negotiate with the education authorities on matters such as the improvement of salaries, housing subsidies, conditions of appointment and discharge, working conditions and other matters. The associations also constitute an official channel for grievances to be stated to the DOE. The DOE recognises teachers' associations as the official voice of teachers, even though not all teachers belong to the same association, because membership is voluntary and also because of political reasons (Walters: 1992:89).

The different political organisations in South Africa are viewed by some *grade 1 teachers* as problematic for effective implementation of the school *curriculum*. Teachers who belong to the same political organization always club together and support each other on various matters. Should it appear coincidentally that one does not belong to a political organisation which is supported by other members, one will always be criticised. When there is team work, the teacher who does not belong to the party where the majority of teachers are members, does not get assistance at all. When staff meetings are to be held, members belonging to the same organisations always meet and caucus beforehand on matters to be addressed. The ones who belong to a minority party are often outspoken because of their number. When there is distribution of work however, those who are in a minority are always overloaded because there is no one to help them out. Those whose political party is well supported get a reasonable workload at the expense of others. In the research a number of *grade 1 teachers* remarked as follows:

"I do not want team-teaching with people who do not belong to my political organisation or teachers' union.... With extra-mural activities I would prefer to be paired with a comrade from my political organisation for supervision."

The majority of the South African population has for many years been restricted with regard to political expression. The politicisation of the labour environment as a result of similar restrictions contributed to making trade unionism a potent vehicle for expressing political aspirations and opposition to the prevailing order. The politics of discontent and liberation, manifested among the labour movements and other opponents of the government, was met with ruthless suppression. Meanwhile the policy of institutionalised racial segregation and discrimination provided an impetus to popular struggle. The last two decades of South African education have been characterised by rising discontent among school teachers. Linked to the 1976 upheavals and subsequent counter-measures, the spirit of disaffection in time gave rise to a strike sub-culture which in turn generated rifts between African teachers and White administrators. In early 1990, there was widespread strike action by teachers at the African schools in the so-called white designated areas and black self-governing territories.

The South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR) shows that the concerns of teachers went beyond the labour aspects of teaching to include a political solution as sought by the liberation organisations and the labour movements (SAIRR,1989-90). In terms of section 4(1) of the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) each employee has the right to participate in forming a trade union or federation of trade unions, and to join a trade union, subject to its constitution, and to participate in its lawful activities. The same right, including the right to strike, is conferred on the employee by Section 23 of the National Constitution (Act 108 of 1996).

With the establishment of a new political system, far-reaching changes have been initiated regarding the conditions which provided a fertile ground for alienation and the strike ideology to which it gave effect. At the same time the right to strike has been

legalized and safeguarded by the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and the labour relations legislation (Act 66 of 1995). The White Paper on Education and Training acknowledges that educators in their professional capacity have indispensable roles to play in such fields as *curriculum* renewal and school governance, as well as the broader area of policy advice.

In a certain inspection area, a school which was investigated had two staff-rooms. One was for Whites and the other one for African (black) teachers. These teachers did not exchange ideas regarding the school curricula. One of the primary schools, in this inspection area has two *grade 1* classes, taught by a white and an African respectively. When either of these *grade 1 teachers* has a serious academic problem, they do not sit down and assist each other. Instead, they will rather seek outside advice because of the political situation. In view of all these hurdles, it becomes questionable as to whether *grade 1 teachers* will be able to teach effectively in this complex country.

4.3.10 Multi-cultural education and *SBCD*

Based on the researcher's findings, it was evident that multi-cultural classrooms pose enormous challenges to *grade 1 teachers*. Bennett (1998:201) defines multicultural education as an approach to teaching and learning that is based upon democratic values and beliefs, and affirms cultural pluralism within a cultural diverse society and an interdependent world. Multicultural education is comprised of the movement towards equity, *curriculum* reform, the process of becoming multicultural and the commitment to combat prejudice and discrimination, more especially racism. (Compare chapters 5 item 5.1.1-5.1.8 and chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1(j).)

Squelch (1996:31) contends with Bennett (1999:201) by pointing out that multicultural education, as one of the critical issues facing educationists in culturally diverse societies, is an alternative approach to education which can improve the level of equality in education. Israel, for example, represents a multicultural society of Jews of different

ethnic and racial origin, including secular and religious Jews, Arabs, Drueze, Circassians, Armenians (Walzer 1995:184).

Coutts (1992:97) indicates that multi-cultural schools provide for learners from quite different cultural heritages to be educated together in the same classroom. The different cultures are utilized as an enrichment of the learning experiences of all learners. The dominant trends are as follows:

* to work towards social solidarity by fostering intercultural understanding;
* to recognize that each learner needs firm support and respect for his or her cultural background. The cultural heritage of each learner is thus a firm base from which he or she can venture into an association with other learners.

Furthermore, the researcher also found that in multi-cultural classrooms, the range of ideas, values, behaviours and beliefs was far wider than in homogeneous classrooms. The researcher further identified the following culture-based problems to be taken into account when teaching a multi-cultural class:

4.3.10.1 Cultural diversity

Culture refers to the body of ideas, beliefs, values, activities and traditions that are common to a group of people. Culture is dynamic, usually transmitted in modified form from generation to generation. In South Africa, our need for security has led some of us to see other cultures as much more rigid and distinct than others, in terms of this concept (Coutts 1992:97).

Van Loggerenberg (1990:31) is of the opinion that "*waar kultuur aanvanklik 'n aantaal uitenge van die hoëre geestelike lewe van die mens behels het, soos religie, kuns, wetenskap en staatkunde, is die siening vandag dat kultuur 'n uiting is van die totale menslike manier van lewe: nie meer net in 'n suiwer natuurlike milieu nie, maar ingrypend op die natuurlike omgewing.*"

Although the research was conducted with *grade 1 teachers*, it was alarming to find out that *grade 1* learners, irrespective of their age, view their own cultures as superior to those of their classmates. In fact no one succumbs to another's culture because of an inferiority complex. A *grade 1 teacher* was caught by surprise when he praised two learners for responding well to the question that was posed in class. A Muvenda *grade 1* learner who had not been pointed at, to respond to the posed question, remarked in his mother tongue:

> *"Nne matshangana na mabeli na makhuwa ho ngo thanya u mphira. Nahone na mme anga vha a zwi divha zwavhudivhudi hezwo."* When translated this means *"The Tsonga, Northern Sotho speaking people and Whites are not brighter than me. In fact, even my mummy knows that very well".*

Diverse societies with diverse cultures are always bound to have a culture which is more dominant than other cultures, and which is bound to use, convince, influence, suppress or even look down upon other cultures as primitive or less civilized, knowingly or unknowingly. The conflict Marxists argue that dominant cultures will manipulate the education system in such a way that a docile obedient workforce from inferior cultures is obtained. To substantiate this Marxist's view, Bowles and Gints in Haralambos and Holbron (1990:242) contend that the first major way in which education functions is to provide capitalists with a workforce which has the personality, attitudes and values which are most useful to them, a hardworking, docile, obedient and highly motivated workforce, which is too fragmented to challenge the society.

Marton (1996:179) shows that although there may be commonalities in the ways in which people who belong to the same culture account for phenomena, there are also bound to be differences. People cannot be aware of everything at the same time, and in the same way, given that people's ways of experiencing things are determined by specific interests, preferences and previous experience.

An inevitable development in diverse multi-cultural societies is perhaps the issue of racism, an issue which is addressed by radical structuralists when they stress the anti-racist component of multi-cultural education. Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible. Equal educational opportunities cannot be realized in an unequal society without the provision of sufficient and compensatory educational opportunities for disadvantaged groups (Bondezio and Berkhout in Squelch 1996:37).

Some learners' constrained participation in the teacher-learner communication which is essential to effective teaching and learning in the classroom situation can be a thorn in the flesh. One of the problems cited by *grade 1 teachers* is eye contact especially with girls. Some of them bite their nails or scratch themselves as a sign of respect. Direct eye contact with elders is taboo. Some learners are traditionally expected to be demure and submissive and as such they are expected to keep their vision lowered when dealing with a senior. A white *grade 1 teacher* at a school in an urban area was angry with some of his or her learners who always avoided eye contact with him or her. She took the lack of direct eye contact as a sign of disrespect, while it meant the opposite.

4.3.10.2 Multi-lingualism

According to Heugh (1995:344) children who speak an African language or English at home would receive bilingual education, through another South African language alongside the mother tongue. There is a belief that multi-lingualism cognitively advantages children, that purposeful multi-lingual programmes would assist the process of displacing lingualism, and would facilitate the growth of a multi-cultural nation, and that the additive models would provide a better guarantee for the improvement of all South Africans.

Grade 1 teachers reported on the problems of multi-lingualism in the school *curriculum.* The cognitive aspect of multi-lingualism or bilingualism has been advanced and developed by the National Educational Policy Investigation (NEPI) which has put forward several proposals on mediums of instruction. The eleven official languages

spoken in our democratic country are Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Northern Sotho or Sesotho sa Lebowa, Setswana, Sesotho, Isizulu, Isixhosa, Seswati, Isindebele, Afrikaans and English. (See table 4.7). Teaching using the mother tongue (LI) as a medium of instruction through formal schooling has the following advantages:

- Basic concepts and initial literacy are more easily learnt in the home language.
- Additional languages are learnt better if thinking skills have already been developed in the home language.
- Transition from home to school is easier if the home language is the language of instruction.
- There is less danger of a challenge to, or loss of, children's sense of identity (NEPI 1992:7).

The advantages appear to be desirable on the score of equality of educational opportunity and attainment in South Africa's diverse societies. However, the same advantages could have some negative implications in *SBCD*, if the mother tongue as a medium of instruction is not a Language of Wider Communication (LWC). LWC simply denotes that such a language can be utilised beyond the learner's cultural surroundings, e.g. in the world of work and international communication.

Table 4.7 Percentage of languages spoken in each province

Province	Afrikaans	English	A/E	Ndebele	Northern Sotho	Southern Sotho
Eastern Cape	8,93%	3,86%	0,0%	0,0%	0,01%	0,14%
Free State	15,09%	1,52%	0,10%	0,20%	0,92%	59,27%
Gauteng	19,72%	17,19%	0,39%	0,85%	8,43%	11,52%
Kwazulu-Natal	1,93%	16,84%	0,07%	0,00%	0,04%	0,35%
Mpumalanga	8,57%	1,83%	0,08%	6,43%	15,98%	2,79%
North West	9,00%	1,04%	0,08%	0,03%	0,73%	3,23%
Northern Cape	68,42%	2,74%	0,11%	0,00%	0,13%	0,74%
Northern Province	3,64%	0,655	0,02%	1,37%	62,48%	0,91%
Western Cape	61,81%	20,71%	0,71%	0,00%	0,05%	0,27%
Proportion of Total	41,97%	9,52%	0,19%	0, 83%	9,92%	6,83%

Province	Swazi	Tsonga	Tswana	Venda	Xhosa	Zulu	Other
Eastern Cape	0,00%	0,00%	0,10%	0,00%	86,69%	0,06%	0,17%
Free State	0,20%	0,64%	4,81%	0,04%	9,25%	5,99%	1,98%
Gauteng	1,22%	3,89%	7,38%	1,16%	6,08%	19,36%	2,82%
Kwazulu-Natal	0,03%	0,03%	0,01%	0,00%	1,20%	78,67%	0,82%
Mpumalanga	25,15%	11,52%	1,89%	0,11%	1,45%	22,15%	2,04%
North West	0,27%	0,81%	78,91%	0,12%	4,18%	0,56%	1,02%
Northern Cape	0,01%	0,14%	19,56%	0,01%	6,37%	0,27%	1,50%
Northern Province	0,32%	26,47%	1,91%	0,01%	0,22%	0,41%	0,59%
Western Cape	2,25%	0,02%	0,05%	0,00%	15,46%	0,08%	0,82%
Proportion of Total	2,25%	4,69%	9,07%	0,35%	18,13%	22,00%	1,26%

(The South African Survey 1996:7)

It has a wider spectrum, because it goes beyond the South African area right into the global village. NEPI advises that if the mother-tongue is not a LWC, then learners' ability to participate in society might be impeded. The LWC in South Africa is English, which is known to be the language of international commerce and higher education. English as a *lingua franca* is preferred by all multi-cultural schools in South Africa as the language of instruction.

Another proposal from NEPI concerns teaching learners using the Second Language (L2) throughout formal education. However, this could have the further effect of alienating learners from their culture (NEPI 1992:9). In South Africa, because of the socio-political stigma attached to language in education, most parents have opted for this option.

It should be noted that the use of different languages in a multi-cultural classroom can be proven to be detrimental to the education system of multi-cultural societies, like South Africa. McCown, Driscoll and Roop (1996:105) view bilingualism as the ability to speak fluently in two different languages. In some cases bilingual people can read, write, speak and think as well in one language as in the other. In a multi-cultural class, there is always a lack of language comprehension. There is also a danger of incorrect pronunciation: instructions are also comprehended in a very different way to what the teacher intended (Charter 1990:81)

A serious problem encountered by *grade 1 teachers* is that learners fail to understand English commands. When a teacher tries to explain in a mother tongue, it becomes a waste of time because he or she should translate what he or she taught in English into the African languages of all the learners in his multi-cultural classroom. Is it possible for a *grade 1 teacher* to translate English into the other ten African languages? If not, do learners understand English when they fail to understand simple instructions? If a *grade 1 teacher* sticks to English, what would be the outcome? Is there no likelihood of failing? A *grade 1 teacher* remarked in this regard:

> *"When I teach my learners in English, they start yawning, slumbering and they end up falling asleep. One day when I said how are you to one of the grade 1 learners, instead of saying I am fine he said I am five..." Some of the kids would just start crying when they want to go and drink water because they are unable to express themselves in English... A worse case is of a grade 1 learner who failed to ask for permission to go to the toilet... Instead he released himself in class. That day the class was called off because the situation was no longer conducive to learning".*

Experience has proven that both culture and learning styles are intertwined. Learners from traditional, rural societies that are non-western might reveal the following aspects:

- A lack of language comprehension
- Incorrect pronounciation, grammar and vocabulary
- The use of language that is not appropriate to its context
- Passivity, with no work ethic
- The comprehension of instructions in a very different way to what the teacher intended
- A reluctance to risk failure, or show initiative
- Global and holistic learning rather than analytical learning
- A confusion about apparent conflict between and ambiguity of facts
- A dependence on visual reinforcement
- Dependence on instruction, rote learning and the memorisation of facts (Coutts 1992:85).

These aspects represent instructional challenges to the *grade 1 teacher* which should be addressed from a *curriculum* perspective.

4.3.10.3 Gender inequalities

Gender inequalities, especially in our indigenous South African cultures, present a further set of problems. In traditional societies the roles and social status of females are generally subordinate to those of the male. Gaps between the home and school might present problems, especially where females are given less status in their homes than they might be given at school, in which an ethos of learner equality prevails (Coutts 1992:36).

In this investigation, *grade 1 teachers* provided some examples of the problems experienced in the school *curriculum*. Girls refuse to sit with boys while boys prefer to sit with girls. Boys always claim to be better than girls while girls also claim to be far much better than boys. This view is not limited to *grade 1* learners. Some female *grade 1 teachers* shared their demotivating experiences. When there is a staff meeting at a particular school, nobody takes note of their opinions. In that school females are abused, for whatever they say is always ignored. A female *grade 1 teacher* quoted the words of some of her colleagues:

> *"As we were discussing in a meeting, I decided to contribute by giving my opinion. I nearly collapsed when my fellow staff members said that they cannot take my opinion because I am a woman".*

National government policy, as expressed in documents and circulars from the DOE, broadly favours equality of opportunity. This tends to be seen within a framework of general recommendations rather than specific requirements laid upon local education authorities or institutions of higher learning. Despite this rather lukewarm encouragement, a growing number of local authorities have introduced guidelines on gender equality.

Sexual harassment in school is not an easy subject to tackle, for two reasons: the perceptions of men and women about what constitutes sexual harassment vary. The more

grade 1 teachers view physical sexual varieties as vital, the more their attitude is likely to be transferred to learners. In the context of controlling disruptive learners, it is not infrequently assumed that males will do the task better, with the underlying implications that physical force may need to be brought into play. When *grade 1 teachers* contended that males can enforce better discipline because of their lower gruffer voices, the subconscious idea was that males *qua* males have greater authority and commanding personalities. This is to underestimate the power of moral authority on which teachers of both sexes can call (Whyte in Wellington 1992:67).

> *"I sent a learner to go and fetch a duster for me in the staff-room. Unfortunately the child slipt because the floor was slippery and she broke her arm. Because I am a male teacher the principal accused me of child abuse and sexual harassment and a result I got a charge for misconduct."*

A number of feminist *grade 1 teachers* have analysed primary school materials, in particular reading books, for gender bias. These *grade 1 teachers* find that central characters are overwhelmingly masculine, and that both women and girls, when they do appear, are weak, soppy creatures bearing little resemblance to real life females.

One of the serious problems identified by *grade 1 teachers* is that boys prefer to be taught by a male *grade 1 teacher,* while girls on the other hand prefer a female teacher. During the research that was conducted, it was found that boys do not enjoy being taught by a female teacher, while a relaxed atmosphere is created when girls are taught by a female *grade 1 teacher*. Girls participate actively in the classrooms, while boys typically show a scowl on their faces and sometimes become drowsy. The same also applies to girls when taught by a male *grade 1 teacher*. In single sex schools, it may be that girls benefit in confidence and self-esteem from being educated separately from boys. Set against this is the admitted artificiality of single sex environments, and the rather neglected question of what happens to boys and men if they are educated apart from the female sex.

The tendency of most *grade 1 teachers* in multi-cultural classes is to give more time and attention to boys. Boys receive more teacher-initiated contacts, are asked more questions and contribute more to classroom discussion. They also receive more criticism from *grade 1 teachers*. Reversing the whole trend towards co-education seems even more daunting than trying to change multicultural schools so that they reflect to a much greater degree the needs and interests of girls. Pragmatically, this whole debate on gender inequalities has led to opinions advocating single sex groups within mixed schools.

4.3.10.4 Multi-religion

Wellington (1992:108) contends that religion might be defined in terms of, say, six major world faiths namely: Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism - based on tradition, rather than on decree.

Religion can be viewed as *die sentrale lewensdryfkrag van die mens wat setel in sy hart as die beginsel van sy bestaan* (Van Loggerenberg 1983:60).

In this research study, *grade 1 teachers* admitted that teaching in a multi-religious classroom is a daunting task which warrants responsibility and faithfulness. A dilemma is always experienced when they have to start each day with a morning prayer in their classroom. Although the South African constitution accommodates all world religions, it is difficult for a *grade 1 teacher* to please all learners in a multi-religious classroom. It is in this respect that the DOE recommend that South African schools should in future be required to implement a pledge of allegiance, not prayer. In most of the areas that were visited *grade 1 teachers* showed that the majority of learners in their classroom belong to the Christian religion.

Those who belong to other religions always feel marginalised and as a result they step outside when prayers are held. In one inspection area a *grade 1 teacher* ended up in court, having asked a Muslim learner from an Indian community to attend the morning devotion even though his religion was not accommodated. The *grade 1 teacher* was charged with

propagating and violating doctrines which are church dogmas or denominational clauses (Kitshof 1990:4). Sometimes a learner would refuse to take the *grade 1 teacher's* instruction because of his religious background. The *grade 1 teacher* explained what a learner from a different religious background pointed out:

> *"My daddy does not read a bible at home, he reads koran"*
> *(Bible for Muslim)*

> *"One day we had a disaster at our school. The principal invited a preacher from a Buddhism community to come and conduct morning devotion. To our surprise 98% of our primary school learners and teachers left the morning assembly without being released by the principals whilst the preacher was still busy with the sermon".*

A synthesis of the foregoing discussion will be outlined in the next paragraph.

4.4 SYNTHESIS

Evidence derived from research instruments and techniques for data collection and analysis provided vital information, not only about what was happening in schools and classrooms, but also on what various stakeholders such as learners, parents, *grade 1 teachers* and others think is happening in school. Indeed, the research instruments and techniques acknowledged that those thoughts and feelings are themselves part of what is happening. In order to grasp the *curriculum* as a coherent whole it was important to understand what sense, if any, learners were making of their own learning. The problems posed by primary schools in *Northern Province* for the *grade 1 teachers* who work in them, and for the local communities of which they are a part, were also highlighted. Methodologically, therefore, the research instruments and techniques were indispensable bridges between the particular approach to evaluation advocated within this study and the particular notion of *curriculum* coherent that underpinned it.

In this chapter, the researcher elaborated on research instruments that were categorised in terms of the extent to which the form and sequence of the questions asked were pre-specified. How and to what extent the research instruments were pre-planned depended on the purpose of the exercise and the constraints that were operating. Evidence derived from implementation of the research instruments was used to arrive at conclusions regarding the current and recurrent needs of *grade 1 teachers* in terms of *SBCD.*

In the forthcoming chapter, the researcher will focus on guidelines for grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD. These are the strategies of curriculum development that will empower grade 1 teachers to fulfill and carry out roles of SBCD effectively and competently. These guidelines will derive in part from the needs identified in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 5

GUIDELINES FOR *GRADE 1 TEACHER'S INVOLVEMENT* IN *SBCD*

Aim of chapter 5: In chapter 4 the researcher attempted to provide an illustration of research instruments, findings and data analysis, whereas this chapter focuses on guidelines for grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD. It is on the basis of these guidelines, which evolved from needs identified in chapter 4, that the researcher will propose the stages of grade 1 teachers' involvement in curriculum decision-making. (See item 5.1 and sub-headings 5.1.1-5.1.8). To avoid a discussion which is tantamount to duplication, the researcher will only tabulate the themes identified in the previous chapter on each stage of grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD, and the recommendations thereof will be furnished in chapter 6. (Refer to item 6.2.1.1(a-j).)

5.1 STAGES OF *GRADE 1 TEACHERS' INVOLVEMENT* IN *CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING*

The rationale behind the guidelines is to conceptualize and describe practices, at the different stages, which are aimed at *SBCD*. The stages are prescriptive and partly descriptive. In other words they purport to tell what committees for *grade 1 teachers'* representation should do or how they should assess what they do. These stages will provide concepts and categories for prescribing the realities of *SBCD*.

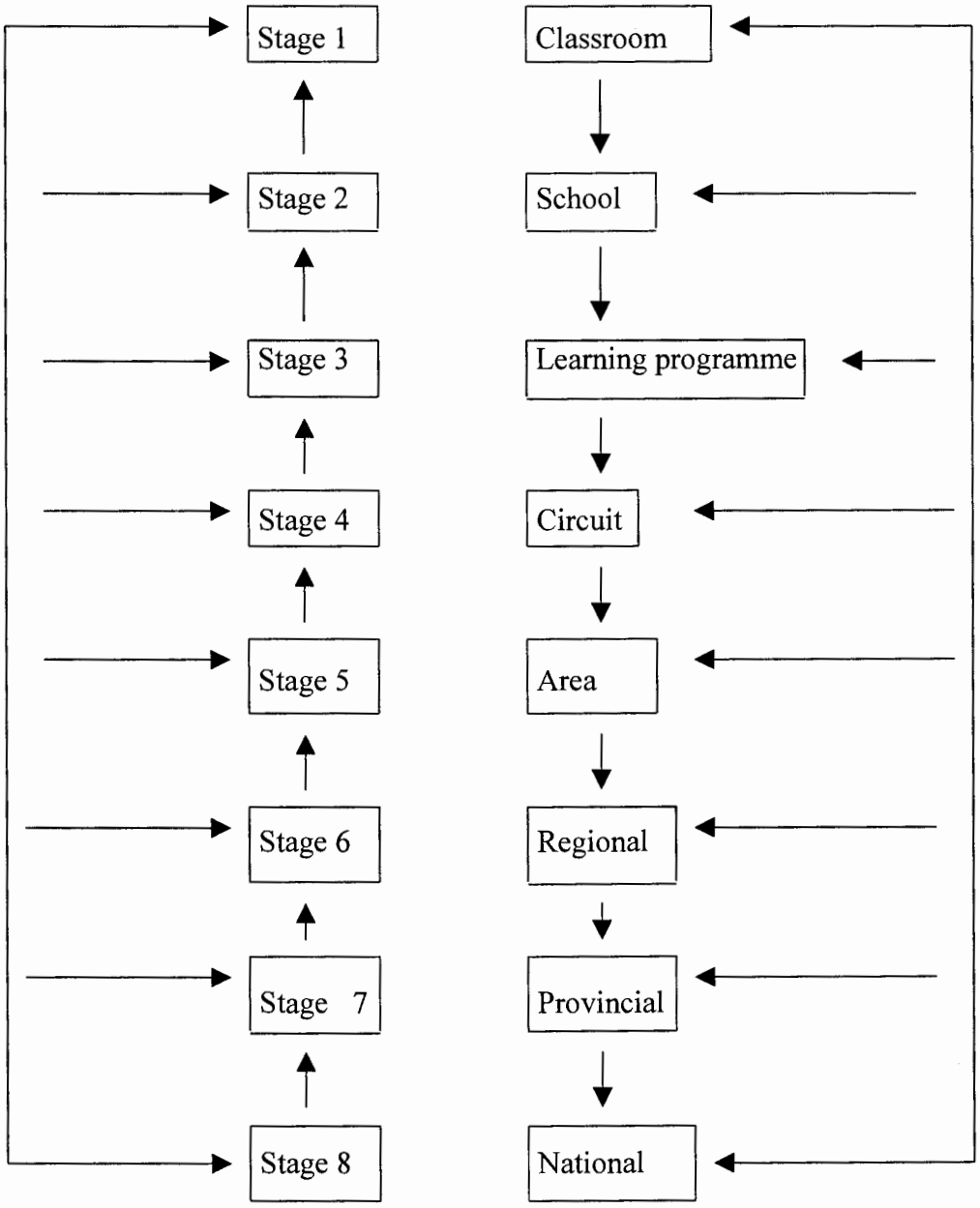
Brubaker (1994:116) shows that it is professional courtesy to involve teachers at the beginning of the process. The committees that operate on behalf of *grade 1 teachers* in all stages of participation in *curriculum decision-making* should allow for the sharing of responsibilities and powers in *SBCD*. (Compare chapter 2 item 2.1.1(a) and chapter 4 item 4.3.3). In the researcher's guidelines, eight intertwined stages are proposed so as to establish a bottom-up approach on *curriculum decision-making* and development, with *grade 1 teachers* democratically represented at each stage. Furthermore, the proposed stages of *grade 1 teachers'* committee participation in *SBCD* change from being an

autocratic top-down approach to a two-way traffic of democracy with more open communication channels. Through these stages *grade 1 teachers* are channelled potentially to influence their *curriculum* from a local set-up to a national set-up.

An introduction of *grade 1 teachers* and other participants at various stages implies a redistribution of autonomy and powers to individuals and facilitating task team committees. It is imperative for such committees to be of high calibre, more especially with respect to the authority with which they are invested, the professional competence of their members and the scope of their representation. Participatory *curriculum* decision-makers at all stages have to address themselves to the proposed nature of the school *curriculum* in relation to the current situation. (See figure 5.1 for the proposed stages of *curriculum* decisions- making which directly influence decisions in schools).

Stage 1 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in the classroom situation stage
Stage 2 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in the school stage
Stage 3 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in the learning programme stage
Stage 4 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at circuit stage
Stage 5 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at area stage
Stage 6 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at regional stage
Stage 7 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at provincial stage
Stage 8 : *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at national stage

Figure 5.1 Stages of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum decision-making* and development



5.1.1 Stage 1: *Grade 1* teachers' *involvement* in the classroom situation

The discussion document (1996:9) states that the aim of teacher utilization policies is to ensure that teachers, as the most expensive resource in education, are efficiently and equitably utilized. It is thus imperative for each *grade 1 teacher* to become a *curriculum* decision-maker together with learners in the classroom situation. *Grade 1 teachers* from schools in a province should form committees which represent them on issues about the classroom situation. These *grade 1 teachers* should be chosen from various regions to become representatives of all *grade 1 teachers*. The committee to be established should be called a Classroom Stage *Curriculum development* Facilitating Committee (CSCDFC).

5.1.1.1 The classroom as a centre of learning

The quality of the learning content to be presented to learners is determined by the availability of resources, as highlighted in chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.2. Resource materials, as well as teaching and learning media, contribute to the motivation of learners by stimulating a willingness to grasp the learning content. The concreteness of the experience stimulates the learners' senses and arouses their interest. Learning willingness can be stifled if the learning content is presented as mere facts, stripped of all wonder and interest (Krüger and Müller 1990:191).

Learning is not confined to a classroom but exists everywhere in the peripheral area of the school. The classroom should be the centre where thinking is tested for possible consequences, but most of the observable uses are distributed in the total surrounding environment. The classroom must have the conditions which develop the competences for obtaining knowledge from the environment.

5.1.1.2 *Curriculum* improvement involved with teaching tasks

Marsh (1993:33) indicates that a classroom teacher spends inordinate amounts of time creating a particular classroom climate. *Curriculum* improvement should be carried on

with almost every act of teaching. In fact, it should happen whenever a *grade 1 teacher* is concerned about a learner's progress. *Curriculum* improvement takes place whenever a *grade 1 teacher* discusses with other teachers, or with the principal, the appropriate uses of certain types of materials. The *curriculum* is improved when there is a consideration of better ways of communicating with parents about the progress of learners in school. *Curriculum* change occurs when *grade 1 teachers* request more shelving for the placing of books and other materials to use with learning experiences. The improvement of lighting conditions in a classroom is an important step in *curriculum development*. Any set of conditions which is provided by *grade 1 teachers*, learners, principal, and citizens to improve learning experiences for learners can be classified as *curriculum development*.

5.1.1.3 Committee arrangements

A mistake often made by administrators and other staff members of a school system is the launching of a system-wide *curriculum* improvement program which is out of context with the level of classroom practice. The sudden impact and overwhelming nature of this procedure has a devastating effect on the perspective which *grade 1 teachers* entertain about instruction. This effect is further accentuated by the oft indulged in practice of setting up committee machinery to facilitate action on *curriculum* improvement. This may tend to create a frantic response which culminates in the decision to "get something ready for them." Under this condition, thinking is not on a high level relationship to real learning, because the emphasis is on getting something done. This may eventuate into a "ground-out" document so as to have something to show as evidence of industrious application by the participants (Mohrman and Wohlsteter 1994:80).

Before *grade 1 teachers* function effectively in any form of organization there must be a body of substance to function about. The substance, further, must be of the type with which the *grade 1 teachers* feel some unity. They need to feel sufficiently familiar with it so that they can take hold of it in a feeling of confidence and with a sense of realization. Before people are ready to be productive in committees, there needs to be a period of "warming up" with respect to ideas about teaching and learning. This has to be done in

the locale of the classroom setting where *grade 1 teachers* and learners are daily planning the learning experiences as they see them in terms of their goals and objectives. The mechanical arrangement frequently represented by the committee system of *curriculum development* tends to effect a separation, between ideas as they appear in classroom practice and the isolated level of committee deliberation (Yukl 1994:19).

A hierarchical committee system promotes unrealistic meetings. Another deleterious effect which may be occasioned by the committee system of *curriculum* improvement is the tendency to arrange ideas in a rather subtle hierarchy relative to decision and action. This condition rests on the assumption that committee deliberation will be productive of better ideas than the deliberation of an individual with his neighbours in practice. This assumption is, of course, debatable. It is highly questionable whether the deliberation of members in the committees will result in greater productiveness, with respect to *curriculum* improvement, than that of the individual who has attained the attitude of asking questions about his or her practices and has made provisions in his or her classroom to test ideas in terms of those questions. Furthermore, it can be logically assumed that members participating at the classroom committee stage will come out with more workable ideas of high quality than individuals examining ideas together informally but intensively at the classroom level and in the classroom context. The hierarchical tendency of a mechanical committee system is further accentuated if there exists a co-ordinating committee with strict definitions of responsibility. Rather than becoming a body which related its efforts to the realization of considered outcomes teaching, the co-ordinating committee may assume a restrictive role in *curriculum* improvement. In other words, if a steering committee takes its label literally, the results may be a promulgation of unrealistic meanings.

5.1.1.4 Making the classroom a centre for handling ideas

Since the classroom is a laboratory for the handling of ideas, the *curriculum* workers, staff, learners, parents and other citizens should function together in this centre. Several classrooms together then become the centres for *curriculum* improvement. Although

there is no intention to advocate departmentalism, it is, nevertheless, reasonable to assume that individual *grade 1 teachers* are often more effective in working with one learning programme than another. It is proposed that every classroom should become some kind of centre or laboratory for ideas. It is extremely important also, that there be unity in ideas between one learning programme and others. It is perfectly logical and conducive to resourcefulness, however, to encourage individual staff members to expand the laboratory of ideas in terms of their special strengths and capabilities.

The schools in which the groups meet should be developed into a "charged" environment of ideas. Bulletin boards should carry high level questions, descriptive facts, a portrayal of frontier thinking, and other items of inquiry. The groups should work on ideas to take learning into the peripheral areas of knowledge envisaged by new discoveries and ventures in life skills, new frontiers of human relations, the dynamics of change, and other fields of inquiry. Many of the clues for charging the conditions for the study and analysis of ideas by the groups should come from the learning relationship between learners and the *grade 1 teacher*. For example, the Life Skills *grade 1 teachers*, meeting in one of the life skills rooms, should build on many of the ideas already developed with learners. Much of the thinking of the learners should be prominently portrayed at the circuit stage in the form of questions, graphs, pictographs, cartoons, pictures, and other forms of representation. It is, of course, always advisable to have representative learners working with the *curriculum* improvement groups.

5.1.1.5 Providing flexible room arrangements in school.

Although some learners in *Northern Province* are still taught under trees, it is strongly suggested that the classroom for *grade 1* learners should be in one unit and large with ample space for group and individual play and work. There should be sufficient space in the centre of the room for rhythmic and group games. Besides this, there should be various nooks within the room which will lend themselves to planning in terms of the ideas which learners develop. They may wish to plan a book centre, a home centre, a life skills centre, and other areas of learning experiences.

The room should be arranged in such a way as to make it possible to work out ideas which go beyond the regular routine. For example, there should be an opportunity for learners to portray, in painting and drawing, what they think about things. This would give the *grade 1 teacher* some degree of insight about the concepts of learners and their efforts in solving problems. This is one way of enabling the *grade 1 teacher* to discover some of the values which learners hold. Many of the feelings and attitudes of learners will be revealed when they are released to think about the issues which appear in their painting, drawing, and clay modeling.

The rooms for *grade 1* learners should also be spacious. There need to be special arrangements in their classrooms because it is important that they become more independent in improving the facilities for learning. For example, instead of the *grade 1 teacher* taking the major initiative in arrangements, the learners must become more responsible in developing their centres of interest in terms of the questions which are raised. In fact one of the principles of the South African *OBE* system is that learners are responsible for their learning progress (Cockburn 1997:6).

The *grade 1 teacher* should, of course, play a major part in structuring the environment for learning so that ideas can arise. The learners, however, acting on the many questions and ideas which have emerged in the classroom, will proceed with the development of arrangements which will make it possible to facilitate an understanding about them. At times these questions will have to be studied individually. In that case, the conditions should be such that learners will not be disturbed by each other. This calls for a more or less formal arrangement of seating. At other times, it is essential that learners study the questions and ideas together by working in groups. For that purpose, it would be helpful if the classroom could be blocked off into compartments where the different groups could work without disturbing each other. To facilitate opportunities for group study, it would be helpful either to have rooms other than the classroom available or to have lightweight sliding doors so that the room could be arranged into several sections.

5.1.1.6 Providing equipment appropriate to expansion of ideas

Although South Africa is experiencing financial constraints, it is assumed that if learning is to develop to its utmost pontential, the classroom should be equipped accordingly. Among other common items needed to promote learning, there should be sufficient large size paper so that learners will have an opportunity to visualize their ideas in picture and graphic form. Each learning centre for Life Skills, Literacy, and Numeracy should have an ample supply of slides, film strips, and pictures which portray the meanings to be derived from the centre. Equipment such as a camera, film, and other materials should be available so that learners might learn to visualize an idea, from its inception to its completion. Maps of all types should be made available so that when learners proceed to senior grades they should identify the places in the nation and world where different types of thinking are developing. It is extremely important to have many maps which are not filled in so that learners might portray in various places on maps the international trouble spots, underdeveloped countries, conflict within countries, means of livelihood in different countries, and other items of international interest.

Classrooms should be equipped with plenty of bulletin board space, several easels, three or four chart holders, and exhibit tables so that the process and results of study and thinking may be visually represented. There are, of course, many other resources which should be included to promote effectiveness in learning. Enough, however, have been indicated to illustrate the importance of ample equipment in the classroom.

5.1.2 Stage 2: *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in the school set up

Various themes which emanated from chapter 4 need thorough investigation at this particular stage. To mention a few: politics and teachers' unions, the state of buildings in schools, COLTS, inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management and multi-cultural education. (See recommendations in chapter 6.2.1.1).

The school conforms to the cultural world within which it functions. It is never neutral but is shaped by the nature and needs of the community. It was observed in chapter 4 (items 4.3.10.1 to 4.3.10.4) that South Africa has a heterogeneous population as regards philosophy of life. Naturally, it is not always possible to provide a separate school in which education can be given to each group on the basis of that groups underlying ground motive and philosophy of life. The ideal situation in this regard is that learners should be taught to be sensitive to cultural diversity and that a sense of commonality should be developed, a realisation that all cultures interact with others and have implicit common elements.

Van der Stoep and Louw (1992:157) maintain that the school must provide for the educational demands and needs of society. *Grade 1 teachers* should be skilled and experienced in *curriculum decision-making* and development, to enhance their problem solving capacity. It is within the school set-up that *grade 1* learners should be moulded and their talents developed (see chapter 2 paragraph 2.1.2.1). A committee at this stage should be termed a School Stage *Curriculum development* Facilitating Committee (SSCDFC) and it should be able to carry out the following tasks:

- To provide a means through which *curriculum* decisions and development activities based in the school are effectively co-ordinated.
- To liase with *curriculum* developers at all stages of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* in order to promote staff development and follow-up developments in *curriculum decision-making* and development.

This committee, representing *grade 1 teachers* in all academic issues, should be drawn from various schools within a region.

According to the researcher, the committee should be composed of the following members:

- *Grade 1 teachers* with more than 5 years teaching experience.
- HODs representing different learning programmes, e.g. numerous literacy and life skills.
- School representatives from various teachers' associations such as SADTU, PEU etc.
- Delegates from schools representing different cultural backgrounds in *Northern Province* e.g. Tshivenda, Sesotho sa lebowa, Xitsonga, Afrikaans and English.
- Delegates from CSCDFC. (Refer to table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Committees for grade 1 teachers' representatives in the stages of SBCD

Stages of SBCD		***Committees representing grade 1 teachers***
Stage 1 ↔ Classroom		• *Grade 1 teachers'* representatives • Heads of Department (HODs) • Circuit and area managers
Stage 2 ↔ School		• *Grade 1 teachers* with more than 5 years experience • HODs representing different learning areas and programmes • School representatives • School delegates from different background • Delegates from CSCDC
Stage 3 ↔ language programme		• Learning programme task team • HODs deputy principals and principals • School delegates for different languages
Stage 4 ↔ Circuit		• Area manager and circuit managers • *Grade 1* teacher with 5 years experience and above • Deputy principal and principal • Delegation from various task teams in primary schools
Stage 5 ↔ Area		• *Grade 1 teachers* who have taught for more than 5 years and more • Area managers and circuit managers • Delegation of principals from different primary schools • Delegation of *grade 1* teacher representatives from classroom school, learning programme and circuit stage • Delegation from different cultural backgrounds
Stage 6 ↔ Regional		• RDs, DGs and DDgs • AM and CM • Delegation from various CDFTT • Delegation of *grade 1 teachers* with more than 5 years experience and university qualifications • Delegation of *grade 1 teachers* from different teachers' associations • Superintendents of education
Stage 7 ↔ Provincial	* MEC's for education * Delegates of *grade 1 teachers* From different teachers' Associations	• Delegation of *grade 1 teachers* from various *curriculum development* task teams • Delegation of principals and AM •
Stage 8 ↔ National	* University deans and VCs * Subject advisers * Education minister	• Delegation of *grade 1 teachers* from CDTTC in all stages • RDs, DDGs and DGs • Superintendents and MECs for education

Since the development of the conditions for learning experiences is the responsibility of every *grade 1 teacher* in the school, it follows that *curriculum* improvement is everyone's responsibility. It is necessary, however, for *grade 1 teachers* to provide the impetus for these initial attempts. *Grade 1 teacher* representatives chosen by the various local school units of the system should, of course, be involved in essential roles relative to the conditions.

With reference to the *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers* and others, attention should be directed to the thinking which conceives of *curriculum* improvement as within the context of the classroom. This means that there exists no hierarchical arrangement in the approach to *curriculum* questions. The direct attempts at *curriculum development* must take place in a local setting, preferably the school unit. Within the school unit it must have its initial beginning in the setting of familiarity for the *grade 1 teacher*. It seems, then, that the principal is the key person to provide the conditions for these beginnings of *curriculum development*.

5.1.2.1 Relationships with *grade 1 teachers*

The *grade 1 teacher* whose attitude is positive, does not experience his or her profession as drudgery, but finds that he or she is called to fulfill a specific function in society every day. This function he or she fulfils, by educating the learners entrusted to him or her, towards a positive adjustment to, and a readiness for, full acceptance of citizenship responsibilities. In his or her relationship with *grade 1* learners, the *grade 1 teacher* should always bear in mind that the learners should develop towards independence and normative adulthood. A professional obligation rests on the *grade 1 teachers'* shoulder to try to develop every learner's potential. Excellent education skills should not be limited to attitude and objectives which advance character building. Teaching book knowledge alone is too limiting from a professional point of view. Learners should be taught to appreciate their own circumstances, their country and its democracy (Krüger and Müller 1990:283).

Marsh (1993:38) states that teachers expect their school principal to be a leader of *curriculum* initiatives. Although it is assumed that the principal, as leader, has certain goals in mind as well as vision and understanding with regard to the nature of *curriculum development* and implementation, he or she must establish a position of mutual operation by relating his or her vision and understanding to that of the *grade 1 teachers*. Leaders should enable teachers to deepen their perceptions, increase their awareness, perfect their skills, and sharpen their sense of purpose (Brubaker 1994:vii).

The principal is undoubtedly not able to carry through with all the suggestions that are offered by *grade 1 teachers*. Having implemented some of the suggestions, however, he or she is then on much safer ground to indicate his or her limitations. He or she can discuss why he or she is unable to bring about action on some suggestions and can indicate a rather frank expression of his or her thinking regarding them. Furthermore, having indicated a favourable disposition with respect to their goals, *grade 1 teachers* will feel safe to express what they consider their limitations with respect to their own questions. They will also be more favorably inclined to the principal's goals.

5.1.2.2 Developing conditions for analysing instructional practices

Apart from the teacher-learner relationship and principal-teacher relationship, the grade 1 teacher should also realise that he performs his task as educator in the parent's place (*in loco parentis).*

The *grade 1 teachers* should make every effort to develop conditions which will stimulate the type of questioning of practices which will move other teachers into action on the points considered. Since the grade 1 teacher must recognize and accept his or her limitations relative to certain tasks, he or she should try to ascertain what questions he or she should be asking about those tasks. This may be an important step in providing the setting for question asking on the part of those concerned about learning practices.

Where overcrowded classes experience reading problems, *grade 1 teachers* should develop a satisfactory procedure in the improvement of reading skills by arranging for ability grouping. Someone else may question whether ability grouping is a sufficient step in promoting the individual potentialities of learners. Although the learners may experience a feeling of success and security by reading at the levels of their understanding, their efforts may become fossilised on those levels. The process of reading may become a routine which, if continued over a long period of time, may deaden any efforts at greater resourcefulness on the part of the learner.

5.1.2.3 Increasing the tempo of core improvement in schools

Marsh (1993:160) shows that school improvement refers to alterations in the programme and in the existing goals and values which could amount to considerable change. The staff should begin planning the reorganization of the more academic phases of the school *curriculum* to better serve the educational implications of the core *curriculum*. If, for example, the school under the core *curriculum*, is realistic about its essential guidance function, it must make adequate provision for every grade 1 teacher to have the time and facilities for personal conferences with learners and with their parents. This has not been a function of the grade 1 teacher in the traditional subject *curriculum*, but it is the very heart of the core *curriculum*. The organization of the core in large blocks of time serves many purposes, not the least important of which is guidance. Providing time for a more informal attack upon problem situations that develop competencies to make adequate personal adjustment is one important aspect of the guidance function of modern education which is made possible by large time blocks within the force organization.

The experience of schools operating on the core plan indicates that more time is needed for general and special faculty group consultations to implement the guidance function. A flexible programme subject to frequent changes necessitates constant group planning and frequent opportunity for consultation.

In primary schools, attention should now be directed to what aspects of the total school *curriculum* should be given over to special-interest areas, and in what way these areas are to be related to the basic learning programme. Although the learning programme is specifically concerned with the aspects of behavioral competencies that all should possess in some degree, it cannot be developed in isolation from some special interest areas. Education must be a total pattern that meets all the needs of learners, and must be fully integrated. There is general agreement in educational circles that the core concept should involve the entire elementary school program.

At the stage of the developing core *curriculum*, if the problem has not previously arisen, schools should come to grips with the problem of how to assess learning as now conceived, and how such learning progress is to be reported to parents and defined for the school records. It can no longer be sidestepped when much of the *curriculum* is being organized on the core basis. To provide time and opportunity for pre-planning based on the learner's stage of development, schools should arrange pre-opening conferences in which clinical sessions are conducted between present and past *grade 1 teachers*.

School-based programs should be developed and implemented cooperatively by *grade 1 teachers* and principals. The role of the supervisor is that of adviser, taking part in staff meetings, helping to conceptualize problems, promoting creative problem-solving by *grade 1 teachers*, and offering practical suggestions on conducting research.

Yet the problem of *curriculum* materials should not be viewed solely as a quantitative problem. The problem also has a qualitative dimension. *Curriculum* change depends on the choice and effective use of appropriate materials. The selection process is often given short shrift by schools. The result is an enormous waste of time and money, and *curriculum* change is at the closet level only. Closets filled with unused materials are the result of schools having taken shortcuts in the process of choosing and using the tools of change. The interests of *curriculum* improvement will not be advanced by the inappropriate selection and use of materials. Attention must be given to helping *grade 1 teachers* to select and evaluate materials wisely and use them well.

5.1.3 Stage 3: *Grade 1 teachers' involvement* in the learning programme

The following themes which cropped up in chapter 4 will be treated at this particular stage: *grade 1 teachers'* attitudes towards *SBCD*, professional growth and experience in *SBCD*, multi-cultural education and *SBCD*. (Refer to recommendations in chapter 6 item 6.2.11).

Gardner (1991:6) says that teachers cannot realistically assess learners if they do not know in advance exactly what they want students to learn. For one to achieve uniformity among *grade 1 teachers, curriculum* decision-making and development strategies should be established at the stage where all learning programmes related to *curriculum* matters, in all the schools within a province, can be optimally co-ordinated. The researcher is of the opinion that the established committee should be comprise the following members:

- Numeracy-Based *Curriculum development* Task Team
- Literacy-Based *Curriculum development* Task Team
- Life skills-Based *Curriculum development* Task Team
- Senior personnel in a school, such as HODs, deputy principal and principal
- Delegates from CSCDFC
- Delegates from schools representing different language backgrounds as mentioned under item 5.1.2.

The Learning Programme Based *Curriculum Development* Committee (LPBCDC) should, along with *grade 1 teachers,* develop interrelated teaching materials for learners in the school. Materials intended for direct instructional use include a workbook, a pair of scissors, crayons, paint, brush, magazines, empty boxes of cereal, and many others. Supporting materials include a teacher's guide and resource book. To help *grade 1 teachers* who are considering the use of these materials, the committee should encourage the development of instructional programs that enable *grade 1 teachers* to study the new course in detail. (See table 5.2: Roles of *grade 1 teachers'* representation in *SBCD*).

For its various activities, the committee should blend teaching experience at several levels with deep insight into the nature and meaning of learning programmes. The materials developed by these teams should be used in classes and subjected to close scrutiny by the *grade 1 teachers,* who use them, and by the committee's staff observers. The course materials should be tried, assessed, and revised for two years before they are released for general use. The committee, in the course of its work, should establish a permanent organization to provide for revision and related development.

Table 5.2 Roles of *grade 1 teachers'* committees in *SBCD*

STAGES	Task of *grade 1 teachers'* representation	
Stage 1 Classroom Teaching and learning situation	• Catering for students needs and interests • Innovatory skills in developing materials	• Deliberations about day to day problems in the class situation
Stage 2 School Primary	• Co-ordination team based commitment to *curriculum* research evaluation • Classification of *curriculum* materials and other resources	• Staff development programmes for *grade 1 teachers*
Stage 3 Learning programme Numeracy, literacy and life skills	• *Curriculum* ownership of components • An interwovenness of learning programmes	• Regular meetings on *curriculum* changes
Stage 4 Circuit	• Maintaining balance and integration on all c*irricula* • Motivating *grade 1 teachers* to upgrade their studies	• Acquiring inservice and pre-service training programmes
Stage 5 Area	• To emphasize uniformity in assessment procedures in schools • Liasing with *curriculum decision-making* committees at other stages of *SBCD*	Establishing linkages for acquiring *curriculum* materials
Stage 6 Regional	• Ensuring prompt and efficient utilization of supporting resources for the region • Follow-up sessions	• Organising seminars and workshops for *grade 1 teachers*
Stage 7 Provincial	• Interpretation of *curriculum* policy and guidelines from national stage • Acquiring *curriculum* materials and other technical equipment	• Establishing teachers' resource support base centres
Stage 8 National	• An analysis of current problem *curriculum development*	*Grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* in a country conducting research

As the *grade 1 teachers* from the various fields come together, valuable ideas about *curriculum* improvement will take shape. Hunches which various teachers have should be tested, plans should be developed, and the quality of thinking about the improvement of *curriculum* experiences should be expanded. The effect of different forms of communication on the behavior of learners should be studied. The whole question of the relationship of behaviour to communication should be analysed in different settings for learning. Samples of communication should be taken from magazines, newspapers, television, advertising and other media and studied and analyzed for probable effectiveness. The use of language as an instrument of threat, persuasion, beauty, and status should be critically examined.

The *grade 1 teachers* should be responsible for writing lessons in each of the units and for conceptualizing the type of support materials that they believe will increase the effectiveness of the lessons. The working procedures should be that each *grade 1 teacher* should write a draft version of the learning activities and have it reviewed by either the team members or by the entire committee. After this initial review, the materials should be revised and reviewed by the *grade 1 teachers* who serve as consultants. Following their recommendations the lesson should be used in the classroom of the *grade 1 teacher*, and subsequently further revisions can be made (Fullan 1992:80).

It is important to note here that the process of group planning and review of *curriculum* materials is complicated and time consuming. Even seemingly minor decisions, such as whether to use slides of works of art or cardboard reproductions for a particular lesson, may elicit a full hour or more of discussion. Though these discussions appear to some to be inefficient and frustrating, they are a necessary part of *curriculum* planning. The teams that write *curricula* should also be responsible for conceptualizing the instructional support materials to accompany their written work. In most cases members of the team should also construct these materials and make copies of each, so that complete sets of materials become available in classrooms.

5.1.4 Stage 4: *grade 1 teacher's involvement* at circuit level

The following themes which are relevant to this specific stage will be dealt with in chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1: COLTS, professional growth and experience in *SBCD*, politics and teachers' unions, multicultural education and *SBCD*.

The role of the committee representing *grade 1 teachers* at circuit level should make *curriculum development* attractive to all participants. The major premise of this strategy is that *curriculum development* can take place if the conditions for change can be made sufficiently appealing for action by the staff of an entire circuit. Thus the commitment to change, using an influence strategy, is usually based on a perceived benefit to the participant, not on the change per se. According to the researcher the Circuit-Based *Curriculum Development* Committee (CBCDC) to act on behalf of *grade 1 teachers* should be composed of the following members:

- Inspectors and circuit inspectors
- *Grade 1 teachers* who have taught for more than five years
- LPBCDC
- Deputy principals and principals
- Delegates from various committees in schools.

5.1.4.1 Conditions for unity and quality in learning experiences

Each circuit should become an idea room for the purpose of promoting quality with respect to the learning experiences of learners. Each circuit, of course, should be used at different times by a group of *grade 1 teachers* and other *curriculum* workers to develop and examine ideas, and raise the quality of experiences for learners. Individuals other than *grade 1 teachers* may also be participants and learners in these settings for *curriculum development*.

It is envisioned that the various bulletin boards, tables, and bookshelves should be constituted as centres for the portrayal of ideas in relation to learning experiences. Since it is assumed that the available rooms at circuit stage are self-contained units, the bulletin boards, tables, and so on, will carry ideas and meanings relative to different learning programmes. For example a circuit may invite experts for Life Skills, for Literacy, for Numeracy, and so on. If the *grade 1 teachers* at circuit stage have considerable background and interest in Literacy, that area may become interesting to them. It may be that this circuit will become the meeting place for the development of ideas to improve instructional practices in Literacy. In another circuit, the *grade 1 teacher*'s interests and special capabilities may point the major emphasis toward Life-Skills. This circuit may be the best meeting place for the handling of ideas to bring about better learning experiences in life skills.

Another room at circuit stage may be the best place for the development of meaning relative to numeracy. The groups of *grade 1 teachers* and other workers in the *curriculum* that meet in the different rooms should not be segregated in terms of learning programmes. The group, meeting for the purpose of handling ideas about Life Skills, should be composed of *grade 1 teachers* and others who will have varied interests and strengths. The people of this group, who have backgrounds and capabilities in connection with study areas other than life skills, should bring unity to the ideas designed to improve life skills experiences with learners. The same would be true with the groups meeting in another circuit. Serious problems in addressing learners should also be discussed at circuit level because most *grade 1 teachers* perceive learners with special needs as not their problem (Davies and Green 1998:97).

The following circuits under Northern Region, which is Region 3 of the *Northern Province,* should have their own committees of *grade 1 teachers* and task team for *curriculum development*:

MALAMULELE

- Malamulele central circuit
- Malamulele East circuit
- Malamulele North East circuit
- Vhumbedzi circuit

MUTALE

- Mudaswali circuit
- Niani circuit
- Sambandou circuit
- Tshilamba circuit

SEKGOSESE

- Sekgosese central circuit
- Sekgosese east circuit
- Sekgosese north circuit
- Sekgosese west circuit

SOUTPANSBERG

- Soutpansberg east circuit
- Soutpansberg north circuit
- Soutpansberg west circuit
- Nzhelele east circuit
- Nzhelele west circuit

THOHOYANDOU

- Luvuvhu circuit
- Mutshundudi circuit
- Mvudi circuit
- Sibasa circuit

- Tshinane circuit

VUWANI

- Dzindi circuit
- Dzondo circuit
- Vhuronga 1 circuit
- Vhuronga 2 circuit

As has been stated before, *grade 1 teachers* must be involved in the conditions for *curriculum* improvement. *Curriculum* improvement is to be equated with the development of high quality learning experiences in the classroom. As *grade 1 teachers* question present instructional practices, they consult each other for an approach to some answers. Each circuit should become a centre or laboratory for the handling of ideas. The handling of ideas implies, of course, that learners, *grade 1 teachers*, and others will be engaged in the tasks of developing relationships between ideas. Each circuit then, will become a centre for the development of unity of knowledge and understanding. In addition to the procedures of *curriculum* improvement in the context of the classroom circuit and learner-teacher relationships, each circuit should be viewed as a centre or laboratory for study, research, and the handling of ideas by the *grade 1 teachers* and others. Thus everyone, learners, *grade 1 teachers*, and other staff members must be engaged in becoming increasingly more conversant with content and the unity of knowledge (Stoll and Fink 1992:98).

As indicated before, *curriculum development* tasks are equated with the learning experiences of young people. The plan proposed suggests no revolutionary changes in the pattern of learner programmes. It does suggest continued study and attention to the treatment of ideas in each circuit, so that high quality learning conditions will be provided. The plan further proposes that a definite place be provided by the *grade 1 teacher* for the handling of ideas with respect to topics which would cut across possible learning programme barriers.

5.1.5 Stage 5: *grade 1 teachers' involvement* at an area level

Different themes, which became apparent in chapter 4, are applicable to thus stage, namely the timing for *curriculum* implementation and the knowledge explosion, *grade 1 teachers'* attitude towards *SBCD*, unequal access to ownership in *SBCD*, politics and teachers unions, multi-cultural education and *SBCD*. (See relevant recommendations in chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1).

For *grade 1 teachers* to be actively involved in *SBCD*, they should also be represented at areas of inspection because they know their learners, classrooms, situation, environment and school in a practical way that external *curriculum* developers cannot know. A critical demand of any school change process is readiness for *curriculum* change-that is, a school staff that perceives a discrepancy between what is and what could be going on in their schools. It is likely that readiness for change comes about in an idiosyncratic manner in each school and is based on that school's cultural peculiarities. The Area-Based *Curriculum Development* Committee (ABCDC) for representing *grade 1 teachers* at an area level should be comprised of the following members to make it representative of all stakeholders.

- Inspectors and area managers
- Delegation of principals from different areas and schools
- *Grade 1 teachers* who have taught for more than five years and also posses a university qualification e.g. Bachelor of Arts (BA)
- Committees of *grade 1* teachers from classroom, school, learning programmes and circuit levels
- Delegates from various areas and schools, representing different cultural backgrounds as reflected in 5.1.2.

The following areas under Northern Region 3 of the *Northern Province* (compare chapter 1 item 1.4.2) should have their own committees of *grade 1 teachers* and task teams for *curriculum development*:

- Malamulele area
- Mutale area
- Sekgosese area
- Soutpansberg area
- Thohoyandou area
- Vuwani area

The committee of an area level has the responsibility of developing those conditions which will make possible increased opportunity for fulfilment, to the utmost, of the potential of *grade 1* learners.

5.1.5.1 Developing leadership for high quality learning

The area managers leader must open up the channels for free inquiry, must value differences, and provide the conditions which will involve everyone in the examination and appraisal of ideas, so as to promote high quality in learning. Goals and methods should also be shared with the public (Knapp, Bankveg, Ferguson and Hill 1998:402).

Good leadership provides the avenues for resourcefulness to be developed by all individuals in the *curriculum* setting. This resourcefulness, starting with pride in some tasks, the raising of questions about instructional practices, and the production of that impact which intensifies the approach to ideas, will generate recognized leadership in all the centres of the area. The impact provided by the conditions for freedom of inquiry, the accentuation and valuing of differences, the questions which have evolved as a result of critical appraisal of instructional practices, should develop a type of absorbing excitement about ideas which will make *curriculum* tasks self-propelled.

5.1.5.2 Conditions for continuous occupation with ideas

In any program of *curriculum development*, it is important that the experiences be of such high quality that a saturation in the stimuli of ideas is never reached. Areas of inspection are necessary and no school could operate effectively without them. It is

important, however, that the emphasis on the area be critically examined. It is imperative that the conditions for learning be developed in such a manner that the arrangements in the classroom will be within suitable conditions. Therefore, in every step of planning the school building and facilities, the conditions which are to be developed for learning, should take precedence.

Grade 1 teachers and other *curriculum* experts who are involved with the development and expansion of ideas should, of course, constantly work to improve learning experience at an area stage. The provision for a wide range of learning experiences should tend to promote the intensive and extensive pursuit of ideas by the committee. This very provision must lead to a discovery of the potential of learners which may demand some additional conditions for intensive inquiry, study, and research in the learning programmes and in the questions which have evolved in the classrooms. It is suggested, therefore, that additional centres of learning be developed where extensive study and examination of ideas, over and above that which takes place in the classrooms, may be carried on. Not only should learners be encouraged to go beyond the learning experiences in the classroom, but provision should be made for them to be able to do so.

The areas of inspection should serve as important centres for various circuits. The circuits should use these centres for study, research, and the pursuit of ideas into higher realms of inquiry. New buildings should be planned to have several classrooms designed for seminar groups, and intensive study and research beyond the usual program of learning. Some of the classrooms should have sections designed to provide these additional opportunities for learners (Yukl 1994:80).

The resource centres of areas of inspection should be well-stocked with all types of books and pamphlets. They should have facilities for transferring books and resource materials for use with topics which evolve in the classrooms. Projectors for films, slides, pictures, and film strips should be available for the asking. There should be plenty of space and facilities for storage of equipment and supplies. The rooms should have many stationary and movable bulletin boards, chart-holders, easels, a book-cart, and other useful features.

With the *involvement* of *grade 1 teachers* in the *curriculum* improvement tasks, the regular programme should be one of high quality learning experiences. The additional centres should be designed to give more time for learners to follow through in an intensive study and analysis of those high level ideas which have already been started, as well as the launching of others. Learners with special educational needs require more time, planning and effort in order to help them to learn. The committee at an area level should visit schools on a regular basis to see if *grade 1 teachers* are not encountering problems on academic matters. Where there are discrepancies, the committee should iron them out (Du Toit 1995:2).

Additional staff members should be procured to work with the *grade 1 teachers* in these extra centres for learning. This could be in the form of In-service Education and Training (INSET) in which *grade 1 teachers* may be offered workshops on how to cope in *SBCD*. These extra staff members will be needed because the regular schedule for many *grade 1 teachers* will be extended at least one period for part or all of the week. Besides the additional staff members, resource people from industry, labour, the professions, and various trades and occupations should be brought in as consultants in the areas of inspection. From time to time the services of consultants from teacher training colleges, universities, and technical institutions should be utilized in promoting high level learning experiences. People from the various learning programmes should be invited to serve both as staff consultants and with *grade 1 teachers*.

The researcher believes that when organized efforts and plans are made to involve *grade 1 teachers* as participants in *curriculum* improvement, their co-operation in the whole exercise would lead to other owning the *curriculum*. This will enable parents to regard with pride a school system which not only places high value on the belief that there lies great potential in all learners and youth, but which also provides a workable plan for the realization of that potential at a high level of learning.

5.1.6 Stage 6: *Grade 1 teachers' involvement* at regional stage

At this stage the most important duties of a regional council are to exercise control over buildings and grounds, multi-cultural education, politics and teachers' unions, timing and *curriculum* implementation. As was indicated in chapter 4 (paragraph 4.3.1) South Africa is caught up in a dilemma of financial constraints whereby funds are pumped into other projects for health, e.g. immunisation of babies or Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome campaigns (AIDS), and too little is done on education.

Grade 1 teacher representation at regional level should play a pivotal role. It must provide linkages to, and direct representation of, the region at the national level. Furthermore, it must allow for decision-makers to co-ordinate curricula, and assume responsibility for working towards and maintaining consensus in *curriculum* decisions taken by various schools within a region. In the researcher's opinion a *grade 1 teachers'* Regional-Based *Curriculum development* Committee (RBCDC) should be fully represented at regional level by the following key members:

- Regional Directors (RD), Director generals (DGs) and Deputy Director general (DDGs) and delegates of principals from schools,
- Managers (so-called inspectors: (M) and Area Managers (AM)
- Delegates from various *Curriculum Development* Facilitating Teams such as schools, circuit and areas of inspection.
- Delegates of *grade 1 teachers* with more than five years teaching experience and at least a university qualification e.g. BA(Ed)
- Delegates of *grade 1 teachers*' representatives from various teachers' associations
- Superintendents of education, drawn in from various provincial departments of education.

The researcher is of the viewpoint that the tasks of a RBCDC should be as follows:

- To support *grade 1 teachers* with training programmes and follow-ups in *curriculum development* issues through INSET workshops, conferences, seminars, and excursions for regions on regular basis
- To formulate regional *curriculum* research and assessment strategies which may enable *grade 1 teachers* to identify problematic issues related to *SBCD* within a region
- To develop guidelines, *curriculum* priorities, syllabi and document which meet relevant regional issues
- To modify regional and environmental resources e.g. traditional, technical and production skills
- To establish a *grade 1 teachers*' resources support system through teachers' centres and *curriculum development* support services.

The following regions in *Northern Province* should formulate their own committees representing *grade 1 teachers* at regional level:

- Region 1 : Western Region
- Region 2 : Central Region
- Region 3 : Northern Region
- Region 4 : North East Region
- Region 5 : Eastern Region
- Region 6 : Southern Region
- Region 7 : Bushbuckridge.

Community resources, problems and related factors tend to emphasize unmet needs for education and thus to stimulate *curriculum* improvement. It should also be noted that seldom are state regulations so limiting that local school districts have no leeway to experiment with a new *curriculum*. This requires *grade 1 teachers* to be more knowledgeable about the use of concepts and about the underlying philosophies of *OBE* (Towers 1992:300; Arjun 1998:23; and Steyn and Hilkin 1998:205).

5.1.7 Stage 7: *Grade 1 teachers' involvement* at provincial stage

The following matters which emanated from chapter 4 are applicable to this particular stage: timing for *curriculum* implementation and the knowledge explosion, COLTS, politics and teachers' unions, *grade 1 teachers'* attitude towards *SBCD*, multi-cultural education and *SBCD*. (See chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1).

Here, too, representation of *grade 1 teachers* is of paramount importance to *curriculum development* because it influences directly the interpretation of the *curriculum* in actual teaching-learning situations. Furthermore, it determines the extent to which *grade 1 teachers* can competently participate in *curriculum* decision-making and development activities. The representatives for *grade 1 teachers* in the Provincial-Based *Curriculum development* Committee (PBCDC) should have a say regarding learning programmes, teaching and learning materials and many other academic issues in the school. This guarantees equality in *curriculum* ownership as members at the provincial stage are to enjoy *curriculum* responsibilities with committees in other stages, as indicated in figure 5.2.

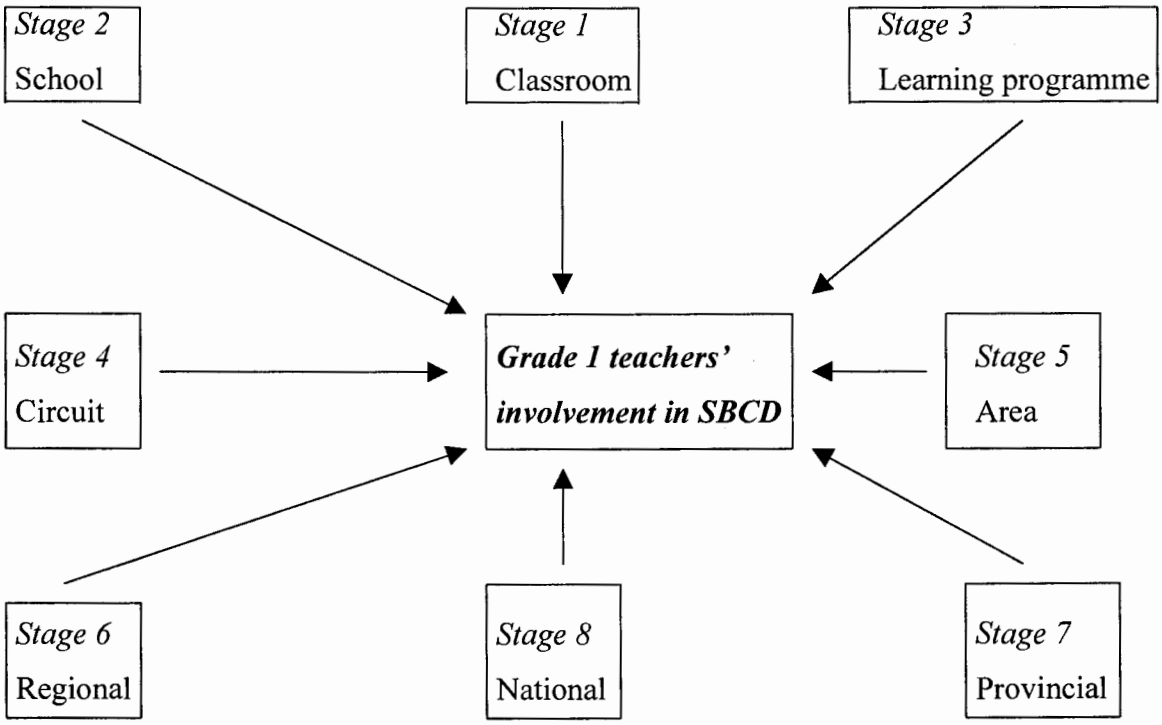


Figure 5.2 Equality in *curriculum* ownership

The representatives should ensure that there is provision for *grade 1 teachers*' autonomy on *curriculum* related matters, within existing decision-making structures. The committee which represents *grade 1 teachers* at provincial level should be constituted of various members because local communities determine the nature of decisions.

- *Grade 1 teachers* from various *Curriculum development* facilitating teams such as regional, area, circuit, and school structures
- Delegates of provincial and Area Managers(AM)
- Members of executive councils in education (MEC)
- DG, DDG and RD
- Delegation of *grade 1 teachers* from different teachers' associations and cultural backgrounds.

The researcher suggests that the role of the provincial *curriculum development* committee representing *grade 1 teachers* should be as follows:

- To establish a detailed picture of to the actual *SBCD* situation pertaining in the entire province.
- To conduct a feasibility study prior to the designing and implementation of actual programmes.
- To ensure that *grade 1 teachers* cease being passive recipients of *curriculum* packages and directives from the centre or national level, by becoming *curriculum* developers in partnership with other legitimate *curriculum* developers.
- To apply democratic *curriculum decision-making* and attendant monitoring for quality control purposes.
- To deliberate upon *curriculum* directives and views received from the structure and also to have the opportunity to generate valuable ideas and recommendations for utilization by the school and other stages of *SBCD*.
- To ensure that there is an interwovenness of both learning areas and learning programmes and to establish the extent to which the learning programme could be translated from theory to practice and the extent to which learners could be motivated intrinsically.

The committee representing *grade 1 teachers* should recommend to the board of education that provision be made for this and other similar additions to the *curriculum,* based upon the combined approval of school staff and advisory committee. In many situations that concern the immediate problems of the school in relation to the community, the advisory committee should be the best and most easily obtained source of community help. Whatever other organizational set-up may serve the needs and interests of the community more extensively, the advisory committee must be the most flexibly adaptable to specific needs of the school. But such a committee, by its very design, must have a limited usefulness in the over-all integration of school-community activities. The purpose of such a council is to acquaint citizens with total community needs and resources, and to co-ordinate those resources in an attack upon community problems. The researcher proposes that the general purposes should be more definitely stated thus:

- To promote co-operation among organizations and citizens interested in community improvement.
- To foster the co-ordination of efforts of the foregoing organizations and individuals in community betterment.
- To sponsor the study of conditions, needs, and resources.
- To develop public understanding and support.
- To secure democratic action in meeting local needs through existing agencies, organizations and institutions.

Some minimum conditions are required to support successful *curriculum development* within a school. At present it seems more useful to discover what these minimum conditions are than to speculate about which agency can or cannot support development optimally.

5.1.7.1 A development team

Jack (1996:4) says that *curriculum* change and relevant development thereof is one way in which transformation can be realized. Successful *curriculum development* requires that *grade 1 teachers* must work together toward a mutual goal. Many factors make a group of people necessary. No single individual possesses all the skills and knowledge needed for high quality *curriculum development*. The team requires *grade 1 teachers* with special knowledge of the subject matter, with knowledge about learners, with evaluation skills, with technical skills in media development, and with instructional experience at the grade level and in the learning content to be treated. When these competencies are not satisfied by members of the team, they can be met in part through consultants. It is better, nevertheless, that team members possess these competencies and use consultants only to supplement their strengths. A typical cause for the failure of *SBCD* has been over-dependence upon one or two individuals who were presumed to know all that was required, or who expected to draw upon consultants for the information and skills they lacked.

5.1.7.2 A need to tap provincial resources

It is important that the *curriculum development* team should be able to draw upon the province as a whole for its support and not be tied too closely to any one school. For example, a development project that is viewed only as an activity of the school may have problems in securing the co-operation of those who are not members of that particular school. One way to avoid this problem is to provide a separate location for the *curriculum development* project, rather than base it within a single school. This puts the project on neutral ground, making it somewhat easier for people from any school. It also removes staff members from their regular offices, thereby tending to divorce them from the normal academic pressures that compete for their time and attention.

5.1.8 Stage 8: *Grade 1 teachers' involvement* at national stage

Various needs which became apparent in chapter 4 are more relevant to this particular stage, namely timing for *curriculum* implementation and the knowledge explosion, COLTS, *SBCD*, multi-cultural education and *SBCD*. (Refer to chapter 6 item 6.2.1.1 for details).

The discussion document (1996:9) shows that the development of a national policy framework for teacher education is part of a larger process of reconstruction and development in South Africa. *Grade 1 teacher* representatives at a national stage should not merely involve large numbers of *grade 1 teachers* being physically present for central deliberations. What matters most at this stage is not the number of representatives but the effective role to be played by these representatives. *Grade 1 teachers* should be fully represented on the National *Curriculum development* Facilitating Task Team Committee (NCDFTTC). Democracy should be exercised between centrally appointed *grade 1 teachers*, and those *grade 1 teachers* delegated by their colleagues through the local *curriculum decision-making* task team committee. Furthermore, *curriculum decision-making* and development at a national stage should cease to be the exclusive preserve of *curriculum* located at the centre. In fact, it should become a joint effort between *grade 1 teachers* and other participants drawn from the *Curriculum development* Task Team Committee, from the classroom stage to the national stage. Based on the researcher's opinions, in order to ensure broader representation, the NCDFTTC for representing *grade 1 teachers* should be composed of the following people:

- Delegates of *grade 1 teachers* and principals drawn from various *Curriculum development* Task Team Committees (CDTTC), AMs from provincial stage
- RDs, DDGs, and DGs
- Circuit Managers (CMs), AMs from provincial stage
- Superintendent of education and MECs for education

- Delegates of university officials with deans of schools and Vice Chancellors (VCs)
- Subject advisors and representatives of *grade 1 teachers* from various Teachers Professional Association (TPAs) at national stage.

It is proposed that the following provinces of South Africa should have their own committees that represent *grade 1 teachers* in all stages of *curriculum decision-making:*

- The *Northern Province*
- The Western Cape Province
- The Eastern Cape Province
- The Northern Cape Province
- The Kwazulu Natal Province
- The North West Province
- The Free State Province
- The Mpumalanga Province
- The Gauteng Province

The researcher proposes that crucial roles for the NCDFTTC should include the following:

- To ensure that *curriculum development* resources with an infrastructure such as laboratories, conference and workshop facilities, transport system, funding, *curriculum* experts and many others are not only focused at the centres.
- Provision for a working ambience which professionally and intrinsically motivates, *grade 1 teachers* and other stakeholders to engage in *curriculum decision-making* and development.
- To forge linkages for *curriculum decision-making* and development with both national and political organizations which are engaged in formulating and monitoring the national education policy.

- To modify the current professional standards of *curriculum development* for *grade 1 teachers* at all stages of *SBCD* by formulating INSET and Training (PRESET) programmes.
- To identify and analyse current and recurrent *curriculum decision-making* development problems at national and international levels and focus on strategies for solutions of problematic issues at all stages. Where possible, expatriate consultancy may also be effective.

In terms of knowledge regarding teaching practice, the NCDFTTC should represent the best clinical expertise available. In fact, this assumption adds another dimension, to the argument that *grade 1 teachers* must be substantively involved in the process of *curriculum* change. It further suggests that the clinical expertise of *grade 1 teachers* should be used to test and alter *curriculum* ideas so that they may be more meaningfully applied in schools. Not to use the clinical expertise of *grade 1 teachers* risks the demise of a perfectly good *curriculum* procedure, for the mere fact that it was not modified to meet the realities of the *SBCD* and the *grade 1 teachers* expected to implement it. In a sense, *grade 1 teachers* and other *curriculum* administrators need to reinvent the wheel each time *curriculum* change is generated within the school building. Staff development should be viewed as an ongoing part of the school programme improvement process. Staff development should assist *grade 1 teachers* to sharpen their programme improvement outcomes, and to establish commitment and ownership gradually as the process unfolds. It is thus worth noting that without *grade 1 teacher* representation at all stages of *SBCD*, negotiations cannot be viewed as non-partisan and democratic in South Africa. This ensures democratic ownership and advocates a bottom-up approach, as reflected in figure 5.3:

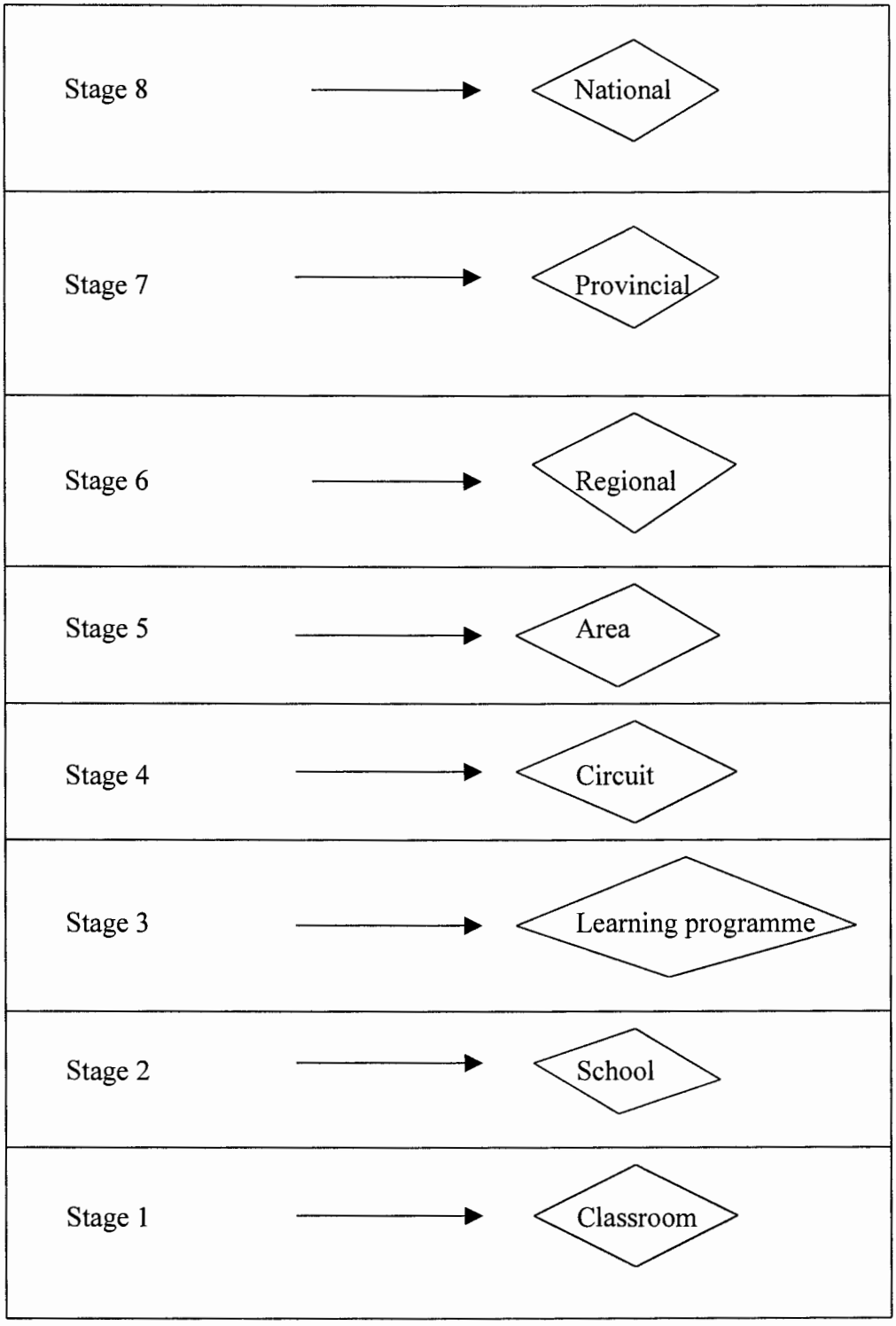


Figure 5.3 Stages of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* (bottom-up approach)

5.2 SYNTHESIS

In the preceding discussion, the researcher outlined the significance of *grade 1 teachers'* autonomy as a contributing factor in favour of their participation in *SBCD. Grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *curriculum decision-making* and development issues, is a serious responsibility towards democratising *curriculum development.* The representation of *grade 1 teachers* on committees at all stages of *SBCD* enables *grade 1 teachers* to enjoy democratic ownership and control of the school *curriculum.* Diversified *curriculum* paradigms yield pitfalls in regulating the *SBCD* and in establishing a spirit of mutual respect and understanding among *grade 1 teachers* and other relevant parties. *Grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* reduces the current top-down *curriculum* approach to teachers, which deprives them from the process of interpreting national aspirations into relevant *SBCD* priorities.

In chapter 5 the researcher has given an overview of guidelines for grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD, whereas in chapter 6 concluding remarks, summary and recommendations will be provided.

CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Aim of chapter 6: Recommendations in this study are mostly based on the findings identified in chapter 4, and the guidelines regarding grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD which were presented in chapter 5. Chapter 6 will focus on recommendations, the implications thereof and concluding remarks.

Figure 6.1 presents recommendations regarding the following themes which recurred in chapters 4 and 5:

- The state of buildings in primary schools.
- Lack of resources
- Unequal access to ownership in *SBCD.*
- The timing of *curriculum* implementation and the knowledge explosion.
- *Grade 1 teachers'* attitudes towards *SBCD.*
- Culture of teaching and learning.
- Professional growth and experience in *SBCD.*
- Inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management.
- Politics and teachers' unions.
- Multi-cultural education and *SBCD.*

6.1 SUMMARY

This study was triggered by a genuine concern over the influence of the centre-periphery model on the school *curriculum* and the limited extent to which *grade 1 teachers* are currently involved in *SBCD.* It became apparent that *grade 1 teachers* do not make significant contributions to *curriculum* issues and decision-making and that there ignorance with regard to the theory and practice of curriculating. It is on the basis of *grade 1 teachers*' exclusion that the particular themes evolved as highlighted in chapter 4

items 4.3.1- 4.3.10. Guidelines for *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* were provided in chapter (5 items 5.1.1- 5.1.8) on the basis of a synthesis of these needs.

THEMES	RECOMMENDATIONS
The state of buildings in schools	Ministry of education to intervene
	NGOs have a critical role
	Fundraising by community
Lack of resources	Improvisation in teaching
	INSET for developing *grade 1 teachers'* behaviour
	Inclusion in the training *curriculum* for prospective teachers
Unequal access to ownership in *SBCD*	Participation in *curriculum* design and development
	Democratic ownership of *SBCD*
	Sharing of ideas amongst committee members
The timing of *curriculum* implementation and the knowledge explosion	Seminars, workshops and conferences
	Situation analysis
	Core *curriculum* for prospective students
Grade 1 teachers' attitude towards *SBCD*	Exemplary lives by *grade 1 teachers*
	Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation
	Autonomy in *SBCD*
Culture of teaching and learning	School visits by government officials
	Follow-up sessions
	Didactic strategies in COLTS
Professional growth and experience in *SBCD*	INSET
	Staff development programmes
	Capacity building and quality assurance
Inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management	Parental *involvement*
	Decision-making
	Joint effort of stakeholders
Politics and teachers' unions	Equalty of viewpoints
	Respect for each other
	Exchange of ideas
Multi-cultural education and *SBCD*	No culture is superior or inferior to another
	Activities on cultural day
	An anti-racist approach

Figure 6.1 Recommendation for grade 1 teachers' involvement in SBCD

6.1.1 Background to the problem

The core of the problem which was dealt with in the study is geared towards the "top-down" approach of *curriculum development* in South Africa, as illustrated by the *grade 1 teachers* of the *Northern Province,* whereby a decision taken by a central authority, at high level is communicated downwards in hierarchical order to the unfortunate *grade 1 teachers* who have no choice but simply to implement *curriculum* packages without any prior *involvement* in their development (Consult chapter 1, item 1.2.1). In fact, critics of this style of *curriculum development* which is frequently underpinned by power coercive dissemination strategies, view it as undemocratic and an infringement of the professional rights of teachers (Marsh 1994:70).

6.1.2 The problem

A thorny issue in the school *curriculum* is therefore that *grade 1 teachers* are not fully involved in *curriculum decision-making*. For any educational innovation to be successful the *grade 1 teachers* must not be operated by remote control. *Curriculum* design and development is not placed in the hands of *grade 1 teachers* and experience of learners at the Foundation Phase. *Curriculum development* maximizes the effectiveness of teaching and learning through change in planned context, activities and arrangements for the educational process. *Curriculum decision-making* by different stakeholders without *grade 1 teachers' involvement* is indeed a futile exercise. The *grade 1 teachers'* proximity to the actual learning situation is a valuable source of information to *curriculum* developers. Teacher training courses at institutions of higher learning must recognise the value of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD*.

6.1.3 The investigation

An introductory orientation to the problem of *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province* was provided in the first chapter. In the second chapter a literature study on the theory of *SBCD* and *OBE* was conducted. The theoretical component and

background presented a basis for the significance of the *SBCD* in an *OBE* framework. Chapter 3 focused on qualitative research as a strategy to address problems in *SBCD*. The foundation for the application of research theory to practice teaching in schools in the *Northern Province* evolved from the analysis of this information. The fourth chapter comprised a synthesis of the information gleaned in chapters two and three, as research instruments and data analysis were implemented scientifically. As such, the findings thereof culminated in the provision of guidelines for empowering *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD*. These guidelines in chapter 5 thus emanated from the literature review and qualitative research data analysis dealt with in chapters 2 and 3 respectively. This last chapter provides concluding remarks and recommendations for improved *curriculum* policies and teaching practice in South Africa.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

6.2.1 Recommendations and implications for teaching practice

It is recommended that both *grade 1 teachers* and all prospective teachers who are products of the content-based model need thorough INSET. The content-based *curriculum* has serious limitations because the content, and not the learner, is always at the centre of the *curriculum* process. The *curriculum* is designed centrally and transmitted to the school for implementation without the *grade 1 teachers*' participation. It is in this respect that the researcher recommends that *grade 1 teachers* should be provided with golden opportunities to improve the teaching strategies and skills which they require in the new dispensation. *Grade 1 teachers, inter-alia* need to be empowered in the areas to be discussed in items 6.2.1.1- 6.2.1.10.

6.2.1.1 In-service education as a tool to address *grade 1 teachers*' needs

Bullough, Kauchak, Crow, Hobbs, and Stokes (1997:162) stated that effective and successful INSET courses are those designated co-operatively with teachers to address specific school related problems and teacher concerns and frustrations. From the

foregoing discussion it is evident that a network of teacher INSET should be established at various stages of *grade 1 teachers*' representation in *curriculum decision-making* such as circuit, area, region and province. *Curriculum* 2005 was enough justification for the massification of INSET in the *Northern Province*. *Curriculum* 21 (the envisaged new *curriculum*) will require extensive INSET (Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005:18).

Initial training does not equip *grade 1 teachers* for a lifelong career in their vital profession of teaching. The current perception is that a *grade 1 teacher*'s training should occur throughout teaching. In fact, INSET should thus not be perceived as an isolated event in a *grade 1 teachers*' career, but as an on-going tool essential for professional efficiency and expertise. Although, in the light of the finding, it is clear that INSET should not be regarded as being a tool to effect "crisis management" but rather as an opportunity for continuing professional development, the role of INSET in assisting *grade 1 teachers* to adjust to shifting educational demands should not be negated and, in the current situation, it certainly can fulfil a decisive role in equipping the existing teaching corps to meet the challenges of *Curriculum 2005/ Curriculum 21*.

It is worth noting that the success or failure of any education system at any stage of *SBCD* is determined by the quality of its *grade 1 teachers,* since the *grade 1 teachers* are indubitably key figures who lay foundations in the classroom situation. It thus follows that *grade 1 teachers* should acclimatise to changes in educational policy and their *involvement* in the *curriculum,* as determined and directed by the educational authorities, if the proposed education system is to meet with success. An overall strategy for dealing with these needs for adjustment is to provide INSET opportunities for *grade 1 teachers* which are aimed at assisting them in improving and updating their current teaching expertise, knowledge, skills and values. See figure 6.2 for INSET as a tool to address problems in *SBCD*.

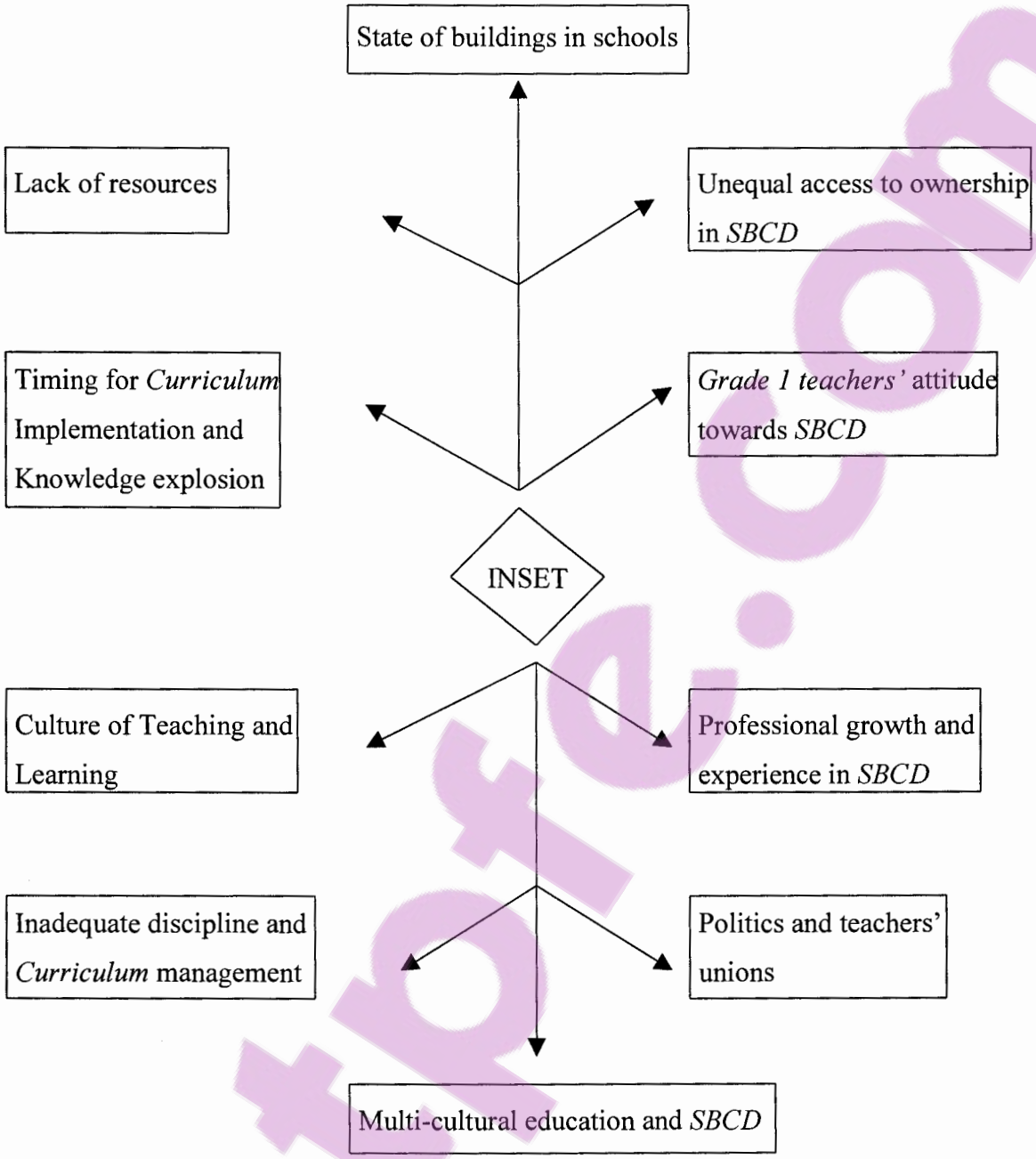


Figure 6.2 INSET as a tool to address SBCD problems

(a) The state of buildings in primary schools

The Ministry of Education should ensure that sufficient school buildings are erected. Where there are serious budgetary constraints, renovation could become the last resort. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.3.1 and chapter 2 item 2.2 in this regard). SGBs should also make it a point that they encourage the community to hold functions for raising funds. Such funds should be channelled into a building fund account. NGOs should also be approached in this regard because they have a critical role to play in the provision and delivery of learning and teaching. The remaining NGOs have a role to play in supporting government efforts in both the development and implementation phases. NGOs have always demonstrated a commitment to volunteer for development work, past and present. In summary:

- Fundraising projects involving various stakeholders should be considered
- Supportive structures such as NGOs and RDPs are of assistance.

(b) Lack of resources

The use and manufacturing of a variety of teaching and learning media should be included as learning content in the *curriculum,* for HET. (See chapter 4 item 4.3.2 and chapter 5 paragraph 5.1.1.9 in this regard). The prospective teacher trainees should be skilled in the use of educational technology media such as overhead projectors and the manufacturing of their own teaching aids, but also in utilising whatever is available in the classroom or schools. Where there is a problem regarding furniture and stationery, *grade 1 teachers* should always improvise. An INSET should also be used to develop the *grade 1 teachers'* professional behaviour and interpersonal skills.

The Ministry of Education should see to it that there are media centres even in primary schools. It is emphasized again that the function of these media centres is to promote concern for knowledge on the part of learners. Accordingly, it must become a resource and services centre for the promotion of study, research, and basic learning. To be truly a resource in facilitating learning, the library must be an adjunct to the classroom.

Experienced *grade 1 teachers* should take the initiative and responsibility to develop school libraries. Such libraries should become increasingly adequate as a result of efforts made over a period of years. They should include some materials that remain permanently in the classroom, as well as other materials borrowed from various sources for periods of one day to one semester.

The library room might include paper cuttings, drawings, one or two daily newspapers, current periodicals, a pamphlet file on personal, social, economic, and political problems, and a collection of books selected for their relevance to the typical problems that learners face and recognize. Additional books and bulletin boards can, of course, be secured as the specific problems emerge. The responsibility for securing such supplementary materials is an important one for learners themselves to assume (Hargreaves 1991:29).

The classroom library can be built up by a rental fee that learners pay in lieu of learning material costs. Although the school library can be of use to other learners in a school, it should also have materials on the three learning programmes of *grade 1* namely: Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills. Posters, pictures, models, films, records, transcriptions, and other visual and auditory learning aids are used intensively in a core class. These materials, too, are usually obtained by learners in the process of seeking information. Briefly, there should be:

- Improvisation where there is a shortage of teaching and learning materials
- Encouragement of active participation using the available resources.

(c) Unequal access to ownership in *SBCD*

Grade 1 teachers' representation at various stages of *curriculum decision-making* and development should be required. (See chapter 5 items 5.1.1- 5.1.10 and chapter 2 paragraph 2.3.1 in this regard). Where various committees share ideas regarding curricular issues, serious problems that are encountered when the *curriculum* is designed and developed at the centre might be avoided, because the *curriculum* will be developed democratically. In summary, there should be:

- Participation which guarantees equal access to *curriculum decision-making*
- Mutual dependence necessitating a policy of democracy which reduces polarisation
- *Grade 1 teacher*'s autonomy in *SBCD* issues
- Respect for various opinions from various legitimate stakeholders.

(d) Timing for *curriculum* implementation

Fullan and Hargreaves (1991:28) state that teaching is not a collection of technical skills or a bunch of things one can learn. *Grade 1 teachers* need time to implement change, to reflect on new goals and objectives, to consider learning experiences, and to try out new tasks. A good *curriculum* warrants enough time for development before implementation. (See chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.4 in this regard). *Grade 1 teachers* should attend seminars, workshops and conferences regarding the new *curriculum*. Where there are discrepancies, they should be ironed out prior to the implementation stage. To avoid this danger, it is worth involving *grade 1 teachers* at all stages of *SBCD*. Transformation of a *curriculum* requires time, planning, a new approach to partnership, with parents and community organizations and a *curriculum* that will from the outset be designed as a *curriculum* for all (Mittler 1995:108).

In a nutshell, the retraining of *grade 1 teachers* can be accomplished in numerous ways such as:

- Workshops, seminars and conferences
- Through further studies on *OBE* offered by distance education institutions
- Follow-up sessions which should be considered to monitor the work of *grade 1 teachers.*

(e) *Grade 1 teachers*' attitude towards *SBCD*

A negative attitude that is displayed by *grade 1 teachers*, can become positive if they are to become fully involved in all curricular issues. (Compare chapter 2 item 2.2.2 and

chapter 4 item 4.3.5). It is also imperative for *grade 1 teachers* to lead exemplary lives, for learners to be able to emulate their lives. Extreme policies such as rationalization, redeployment and retrenchment of teachers should only be implemented after negotiation with the parties concerned. In summary there should be:

- Incentives which should be annually given to *grade 1 teachers* who perform well
- A combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches which are considered in *curriculum* issues.

(f) Culture of teaching and learning

Circuit and area managers should visit schools on a regular basis, as inspectors for capacity building and not as "suspectors" or fault-finders. Where there are serious academic problems, inspectors should join hands with the top structure of the institution and the *grade 1 teachers*. *Grade 1 teachers* should however not become "cheaters" or caricatures. Their presence should have an impact on the life of *grade 1* learners. Various didactic strategies and techniques in handling larger groups of learners, classroom management, discipline and differentiation in one class should be included in the *curriculum* for prospective teachers at an institution of HET. To sum up, there should be:

- Parental meetings which should be held on a regular basis to discuss issues affecting the school curricula
- Punctuality should be viewed as of paramount importance.

(g) Professional growth and experience in *SBCD*

Since experience cannot be bought, for *grade 1 teachers* to become more knowledgeable and experienced they need an INSET regarding *curriculum* issues. Staff development is of paramount importance, as the *curriculum* developer will gain an accurate sense of the scope of the problem to be addressed by the intended *curriculum* and also of the potential solutions available. By working with *grade 1 teachers*, the development effort will benefit qualitatively. Commitment from the potential users will also aid in the political acceptance of the development effort; it will also be a positive step in the future

dissemination of the *curriculum* product. Capacity building and quality assurance are both necessary conditions for a sustainable and well-functioning system. A capacity building initiative should be part of a development plan extending from PRE-SET to INSET initiatives (Discussion document 1996:76).

In summing up, there should be:

- Induction programmes
- Workshops, seminars and conferences.

(h) Inadequate discipline and *curriculum* management

Where serious problems are encountered in the classroom set-up because of learners' behaviour, parents of the learners concerned should be informed accordingly. If both parties join hands, such problems may be solved amicably. Learners and parents face and make decisions in families, while learners by themselves encounter the need for decisions in their own recreational and social groups.

The *grade 1 teacher* has to respect and welcome the parents' equal say in matters concerning his or her child. In this way he or she builds up healthy relationships with both the parents and the parent community. At the same time, the teacher also promotes healthy parent-child relationships. (See item 4.3.8 in chapter 4). A free flow of communication is required so that parents, can tell the teacher what they require and what their ideals for the child are, while simultaneously learning about the problems in their child's progress at school (Krüger and Müller 1990:254).

However, to carry through successfully the modern idea of educational and personal guidance means that the *grade 1 teacher* must have enough time to talk to learners about their personal adjustments and needs. Parents who must be brought into the picture if the needs of learners are to be fully met. Modern education, within the core *curriculum,* also envisages extensive community relationships. The *grade 1 teacher* must have free time for conferences to this end. At this stage, the school should be planning and effecting a

change in schedule organization to provide an extra hour per day for the *grade 1 teacher* to meet learners, parents, and public, as well as to have some time to plan and care for details of the general program. To sum up, there should be:

- A healthy teacher-parent relationship in order to develop a school *curriculum* which meets the needs of the parents and society
- A system to deal with difficulties experienced in terms of learners' behaviour and progress.

(i) Politics and teachers' unions

Teachers from different political organisations and teachers' associations should establish a committee where *grade 1 teachers* are represented. (See chapter 2 paragraph 2.3.4 and chapter 4 item 4.3.9 in this regard). *Grade 1 teachers* in such tasks teams should refrain from viewing political organizations or teachers' unions as superior or inferior to others.

Since committees are usually constituted as bodies having decision-making and rather final recommendation responsibilities, it should be noted that in the zeal to promote action, the greatest emphasis should not be to further the interests of the "organization" rather than the development of vital learning experiences for learning. When committees are formed, it means that action of some kind is expected. Often action is precipitated before the members become sufficiently involved in the exchange and examination of ideas to establish a sense of security with the handling of the ideas. This may result in an artificial product, devoid of real meanings for instructional practices. Briefly, there should be:

- Respect for another's political organization and teachers' union
- Equity, for not one of the parties should be viewed as superior or inferior to the other

(j) Multi-cultural education and *SBCD*

Grade 1 teachers and learners in South African schools in general, and the *Northern Province* in particular, should learn about their own cultural heritage as well as that of other cultural groups. Fundamental differences between cultural groups can provide the foundation for racial conflict in schools, and this in turn can influence the culture and climate of the school (Cohen 1992:23; Van Heerden 1997:197-198). *Grade 1 teachers* therefore need to be made aware of cultural differences and similarities in order to understand themselves and to understand the people around them, because they are cultural educators (Soni 1997:17-19).

All cultures should be viewed on an equal footing, as there is no culture which is superior or inferior to the other; there are simply different cultures each with its own strengths and weaknesses (Walking 1990:87). *Grade 1 teachers* should become experienced and knowledgeable about cultural aspects so that they can in turn produce new, quality materials and teacher guides which will enhance teacher empowerment and *curriculum development*. Moore (1994:254), in support of this idea, stated that a relevant *curriculum* is one that is culturally sensitive. *Grade 1 teachers* in multi-cultural societies such as South Africa, are faced increasingly with the challenge of teaching culturally diverse classes.

Freeman (1994:69) shows that teachers and learners come to school with cultural biographies different from each other. These biographies manifest themselves in cognitive styles, and have a substantial influence on learning. This implies that *grade 1 teachers* should make it a point that they build different cognitive styles into their pedagogical strategies. Krizmaric and Kolezaric (1994:47) show that expectations concerning appropriate forms of behaviour are defined (a frame of reference, a system of standards and values) which create feelings of belonging. These feelings of belonging might increase to such an extent that other groups become the objects of racial prejudice, group conflict and the emerging of "we" and "they" groups (Garcia 1991:105; Stone 1993:189-190). *Grade 1 teachers* must know that culture is introduced in verbal and non-

verbal patterns of behaviour. Inadequate communication therefore prevents mutual understanding and insight (Botha and Reeler 1991:70-71). Thus *grade 1 teachers* must become aware of the fact that they will have to consider how they indicate acceptance of learners, both in words and actions.

NGOs remain the holders of knowledge, skills, expertise and the ability to support learning, teaching and development. They continue to house great potential for *curriculum* and educational innovation, research and development. NGOs have collaborated with government and continue to reinforce efforts towards a literate society. The importance of NGOs in literacy work both here and in other countries is significant.

In summary, there should be:

- A philosophy of cultural pluralism underlying multi-cultural education
- The selection and adaptation of strategies, methods and media for use in a multi-cultural classroom (Grové 1992:355).

In line with the teacher's roles as indicated by the Department of Education, the researcher is of the opinion that a good *grade 1 teacher* should reflect the qualities elaborated in items a-g (Government Gazette 2000:13-14).

6.2.1.2 Responsibilities for the *grade 1 teacher*

(a) Learning mediator

The educator should mediate learning in a manner which is sensitive to the diverse needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning; construct learning environments that are appropriately contextualised and inspirational; communicate effectively, showing recognition of and respect for the differences of others. (Compare chapter 5 item 5.1.1). In addition an educator will demonstrate sound knowledge of learning content and the various principles, strategies and resources appropriate to teaching in a South African context. Refer to table 6.1 with regard to the responsibilities of *grade 1 teachers*.

Table 6.1 Responsibilities of the *grade 1 teacher*

•	*Learning mediator*	• addresses needs and interests of *grade 1* learners
		• constructs inspirational learning environments
		• demonstrates sound knowledge of strategies for teaching Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills
•	*Designer of learning programmes and materials*	• makes decisions on relevant materials
		• interprets learning programmes
		• selects resources for learning
•	*Leader, administrator and manager*	• manages learning in the classroom
		• participates in *curriculum decision-making*
		• performs democratic competences
•	*Scholar, researcher and life long learner*	• does sound research in the learning programme
		• is dedicated in studying
		• exercises patience when working with learners
•	*Community, citizenship and pastoral role*	• shows respect towards others
		• promotes democratic values in schools
		• aims at supportive relations with parents
•	*Assessor*	• keeps detailed and diagnostic records of assessment
		• improves existing learning programmes
		• provides feedback to learners
•	*Learning programme specialist*	• is conversant with different teaching approaches
		• has an understanding of knowledge appropriate to specialism
		• develops expertise in the learning programme

(b) Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials

The educator will understand and interpret learning programmes which are provided, design original learning programmes, identify the requirements for a specific context of learning, and select and prepare suitable textual and visual resources for learning. (Compare chapter 4 item 4.3.2 and chapter 5 item 5.1.3). The educator will also select, sequence and pace the learning in a manner sensitive to the differing needs of the

Learning Areas and the particular needs of *grade 1* learners (Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills).

(c) Leader, administrator and manager

The educator will make decisions appropriate to the level, manage learning in the classroom, carry out classroom administrative duties efficiently and participate in school decision making structures. (See chapter 5 items 5.1.1-5.1.2 and chapter 4 item 4.3.8). These competencies will be performed in ways which are democratic, which support learners and colleagues, and which demonstrate responsiveness to changing circumstances and needs.

(d) Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner

Educators will achieve ongoing personal, academic, occupational and professional growth (consult chapter 4 item 4.3 paragraph 4.3.7) through pursuing reflective study and research in their Learning Areas, in broader professional and educational matters, and in other related fields. As *curricula* change, the *grade 1 teachers* will need to remain knowledgeable about the latest changes, e.g. *curriculum* 21.

(e) Community, citizenship and pastoral role

The educator will practise and promote a critical, committed and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards others. The educator will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practices in schools and society. Within the school, the educator will demonstrate an ability to develop a supportive and empowering environment for the learner and respond to the educational and other needs of learners and fellow educators. (See chapter 2 item 2.1.5.4).

(f) Assessor

The educator will understand that assessment is an essential feature of the teaching and learning process and know how to integrate it into this process. (Consult chapter 2 item 2.6.1.5 paragraph a.) The educator will have an understanding of the purposes, methods and effects of assessment and be able to provide helpful feedback to learners. The educator will design and manage both formative and summative assessment in ways that are appropriate to the level and purpose of the learning and meet the requirements of accrediting bodies. The *grade 1 teacher* will use assessment for the improvement of instruction and learning in the Learning Areas: Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills.

(g) Learning area specialist

The educator will be grounded in the knowledge, skills, values, principles, methods, and procedures relevant to the discipline, subject, learning area, phase of study, or professional or occupational practice (Government gazette 2000:13-14). As such the *grade 1 teacher* will be especially grounded in the knowledge, skills and values of the 3 foundational learning programmes.

6.2.2 Recommendations and implications for teacher training

Here, too, the recommendations to be provided with respect to teacher training go hand in hand with those pertaining to teaching practice as identified in item 6.2.1, as it is imperative that *grade 1 teachers* should be equipped to participate fully in *SBCD*. HET institutions, more especially those training teachers, should impart skills so that they become competent, active and responsible citizens of South Africa. Obsolete and outdated learning content, teaching methodologies, and didactic principles cannot equip the *grade 1* learner for current and recurrent issues. Relevant development thus demands that the *curriculum* be problem-centred and future-oriented, not pre-occupied with past events.

The existing teacher training *curriculum* has very little on *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD*, and as such it would be educationally viable to introduce relevant programmes in *grade 1 teachers*' participation in *curriculum decision-making* as separate modules for a certificate, diploma or degree e.g. in BA (Ed) courses. In fact, the ideal situation is that courses for teacher training should enable both teacher trainees and prospective *grade 1 teachers* to exhibit teaching skills and demonstrate an understanding of *curriculum decision-making* issues. The unique nature of each *grade 1* learner's life-world necessitates educational teacher training programmes which will enable the prospective *grade 1 teachers* to enhance the learners' knowledge to develop in a way which is appropriate and relevant to their mandate. (Consult chapter 2 item 2.5).

6.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

It became evident during the research investigation that there are numerous problematic areas pertaining to *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* which require profound scrutiny. Many of these themes were highlighted in chapter 4 (items 4.3.1- 4.3.10) but still need in-depth research.

It should also be borne in mind that this study did not include all the problematic areas of education in South Africa. Only problems identified by *grade 1 teachers* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province* were addressed.

Crucial matters on the periphery of the key problems were not examined, because they are not within the ambit of the study. It should also be stated explicitly that research of this nature is always limited due to the scope of the discipline, time constraints, budgetary implications and access to the quota of respondents. It is in the light of these shortcomings that the researcher does not guarantee a solution to all problematic educational issues in South Africa, because the success or the failure of one's research is determined by numerous variables.

The researcher therefore suggests the following areas for future research:

- School-based INSET which comprises any activity which emanates from the identified needs of the school and which should be co-ordinated with the full *involvement* of the *grade 1 teachers* concerned
- An investigation into the participation of the community at large in *SBCD* activities
- The establishment of *curriculum development* centres and teachers' centres, which could be utilised for training the teachers in *curriculum development*
- The impact of politics and teacher education on the school *curriculum*
- A detailed study on multi-cultural teacher training programmes.

6.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this study, the researcher attempted to shed light on *grade 1 teachers' involvement* in *SBCD* in the *Northern Province*. The research illustrated that there is no apparent framework within schools for *grade 1 teachers* to participate fully in curricular decision-making. It is worth noting that it is naïve to expect *grade 1 teachers* to spend their time and energy developing *curriculum* and program material spontaneously. In fact, with some exceptions, *grade 1 teachers* do not have the time, resources and training to carry out these activities. The reality of the situation is that *grade 1 teachers* are constantly involved in developing outlines, lesson plans, outcomes and remedial materials, but unfortunately mainly as a reaction to an administrative directive. In the recent Report of the Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005 the fact that teachers require support in the form of learners support materials, appropriate training and facilities to implement outcomes-based *curriculum* was highlighted (Review Committee on *Curriculum* 2005, 2000:76).

The research instruments that were utilized, enabled the researcher to identify a number of problems that featured repeatedly (as indicated in chapter 4 item 4.3.1-4.3.10). Some of them are the condition of buildings in schools, *grade 1 teachers*' attitude towards *SBCD*, the culture of teaching and learning, professional growth and *SBCD*, multi-cultural education and *SBCD* and others. Based on these findings, guidelines for *grade 1*

teachers' involvement in *SBCD* were presented in chapter 5 item 5.1.1-5.5.1.8 and recommendations were also highlighted. The study also revealed that there is a profound need for prospective teachers to go through a core *curriculum* on areas of need at institutions of higher education and training.

The core *curriculum* centres around major problems of both social and personal concern to the learner. There is a likelihood that such problems may have more educational significance than learning content which is often without challenge because it does not have any relevance to the actual needs or problems of learners. This study revealed that INSET is a vehicle for equipping both *grade 1 teachers* and prospective student teachers with relevant strategies, skills and knowledge which can improve their performance.

It is argued in this study that *grade 1 teachers* should have the responsibility for what happens in the class setting. Although *grade 1 teachers* do not have an overtly large role to play in *curriculum development*, they actually wield enormous influence on day-to-day *curriculum decision-making*. Another way on which *grade 1 teachers* might be fully involved in *curriculum* issues is their representation at the various stages of *SBCD* namely classroom, school, learning programme, circuit, area, region, province and the country itself, that all help to delineate the decentralized mode of educational decision-making which is suggested in this thesis.

It goes without saying that *grade 1 teachers* should be fully involved in *curriculum* work, all the way from designing the total *curriculum* to the level of classroom implementation, because they are exposed to a variety of curricular situations which call for instructional decision-making at different levels.

Proper cognisance should be taken of the fact that the bright future of the education system in South Africa is not dependent on a magic wand which can make the desired change academically sound and viable. The involvement of grade 1 teachers in SBCD is a valuable exercise because their expertise in classroom reality forms the basis for discerning practical instructional issues that call for curricular remedies.

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9. APPENDICES

9.1 CORRESPONDENCES

17 Saner Road
Illiondale
Edenvale
1610
20 February 1999

The Chief Director
Department of Education
101 Dorp Street
P/Bag x 9489
PIETERSBURG
0700

Dear sir

APPLICATION FOR DATA COLLECTION AT SCHOOLS WITHIN YOUR REGIONS

A request is hereby made for collecting data at schools within your region for a scheduled period of two consecutive months, which are May and June. The data to be collected is warranted for one's research studies. The respondents shall be *grade 1 teachers* and data will solely and strictly be collected after office hours or as per arrangements with government officials in charge.

Your co-operation in this matter is highly appreciated.

Yours truly

.....
LUMADI M.W.

Fakulteit Opvoedkunde

Faculty of Education

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Mr MW Lumadi (559 5991) is a student at Unisa.
Professor MEW McDonald is his Promoter.

PROF MEW McDONALD
HEAD: DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
TEACHER EDUCATION

17 February 2000

Northern Province

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

101 Dorp Street
Private Bag X9489
PIETERSBURG
0700
Tel.:015 297 0110, 015 297 0590, 297 0392, 297 0386
Fax: 015 297 0885, 015 297 0872

To whom it may concern

This is certify that Mr. M W Lumadi has approach the Department of Education requesting Statistics of schools in the Province.

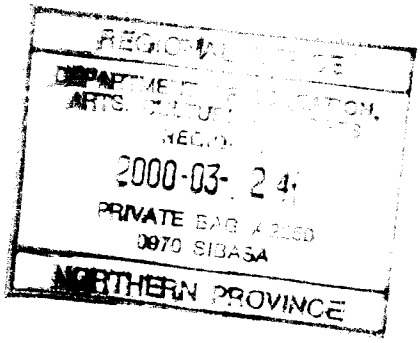
The Department, through Research and Statistics Section, has supplied Mr. M W Lumadi with the school database information

Yours truly

M W Machika

Northern Province
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NORTHERN REGION

Private Bag X2250
SIBASA
VENDA
0970
Tel.: 015 9621313, 015 96 21331
Fax.: 015 962 6039/ 9623 07 6



REF: 8/3/1.
ENQ: MAKGAHLELA S.M.

LUMADI M.W.
17 SANER ROAD
ILLIONDA EDENVALE
1610

APPLICATION FOR DATA COLLECTION AT SCHOOLS WITHIN OUR REGION.

1. The above matter refers to your letter dated 20 February 2000.

2. The permission is hereby granted to you to collect the data as you requested during May and June 2000.

3. Arrangements will be made by the region to facilitate and make room for your operation.

4. Kindly confirm your coming to the regional director when time has arrived.

Your Faithfully

REGIONAL DIRECTOR: EDUCATION
dombs

Northern Province
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NORTH EASTERN REGION

Private Bag X578
GIYANI
0826
Tel.: 015 8121911, 015 812 1646
Fax.: 015 812 3412

18 AUGUST 2000

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that Mr M.W. LUMADI visited our Region and our Office provided him with the list of schools where he wanted to conduct research for his studies.

REGIONAL DIRECTOR: NORTH EASTERN REGION
/dem

Northern Province
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
EASTERN REGION

Private Bag X4060
TZANEEN
0850
Tel.: 015 307 1823, 015 307 1429, 015 307 1470
Fax.: 015 307 5302

REF.: 8\3\1 **ENQ.: MASINGE R.**

24 AUGUST 2000

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

VISIT TO OUR REGIONAL OFFICE

1. The subject above bears reference.

2. This is to certify that M.W. LUMADI (from the University of Venda) has been to our Regional Office.

3. We provided him with a list of names of all our schools within this Region.

.....
REGIONAL DIRECTOR
EASTERN REGION
/jnu

9.2 DATA FROM NORTHERN PROVINCE'S REGIONS

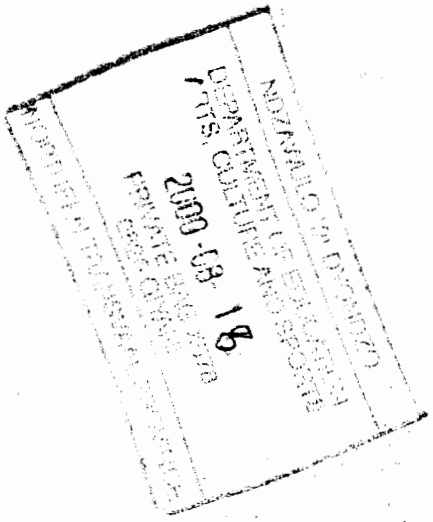
Northern Province
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
BUSHBUCKRIDGE REGION

Private Bag X1339
THULAMAHASHE
1365
Tel.: 013 770246
Fax.: 013 7730175/246/336

ENQ : MANZINI J.M.
DATE: 18-08-2000

CONFIRMATION OF THE VISIT BY LUMADI M.W.

This is to confirm that Lumadi M.W. (Mr) visited schools in our Region and he collected data in various Secondary Schools in the Region.



REGIONAL DIRECTOR: REGION 7
/rb

1. REGION 1: WESTERN REGION

	AREAS	CIRCUITS
•	MAHWELERENG	Mokopane Mahwelereng Mapela Potgietersrus Naboomspruit
•	PALALA	Palala Palala North Palala South Ellisras Baltimore
•	WARMBATHS	Warmbad Vaalwater Nylstroom Thabazimbi Dwaalboom
•	BAKENBERG	Matlalane Bakenberg North Mogalakwena Bakenberg South

1.1 MAHWELERENG AREA

1.1.1 MOKOPANE CIRCUIT

1.1.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL

1. JOHANNES MASIBE
2. KGWATHELE
3. LEGAGANENG
4. JAKAMANE L/HP SCHOOL
5. MOSHIBUDI
6. MOTSHITSHI
7. SEPEDI
8. SETJOAMADI
9. MAPANOLLA
10. TETEMA
11. NKOKONE
12. KGOPEDINOTA
13. MAIDI PRE PRIMARY
14. MALELE PRE PRIMARY
15. MMBATHO PRE PRIMARY SCHOOL
16. MMANTOA

1.1.2 MAHWELERENG CIRCUIT

1.1.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. EDL RAMPOLA
2. ITHUTENG LOWER PRIMARY
3. KGABA
4. KGABETLI
5. KGATABELA
6. DUMAZI
7. MAAKA MALEKA
8. CHUMANA
9. MOSESANE BALOYI
10. MOSHUPSA HIGHER PRIMARY
11. ND MOKONYANE
12. LESHOBA
13. MONCHIMUDI
14. RAPHELA
15. SEGOOA KGALA LOWER PRIMARY
16. MADIKOTI PUTSOA
17. MAKGUBUKETJA
18. MMAMAGINA
19. ISMAIL MOTSHABI PRE PRIMARY
20. MACHONISA PRE PRIMARY
21. NKGODI SIPHUNGO
22. MATSHIDISO PRE PRIMARY
23. NTJATJI PRE PRIMARY
24. MACHIKIRI

1.1.3 MAPELA CIRCUIT

1.1.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. GODWIN MASIBE
2. HANS MASIBE
3. JACOB PUKA
4. JAN MALEBANA
5. CORNELIUS MASIBE
6. KGABAGARE
7. LAMGALIBALELE
8. ALFRED MASIBE
9. MOSOGE
10. PODILE
11. SEBILOANE
12. SERITARITA
13. MAPUSO
14. MABUELA-RAMORULANA
15. MAMAGOLA
16. MMOPA
17. MAPELA JUNIOR PRIMARY
18. MARCUS MASEBE
19. MATLHABA HIGHER PRIMARY
20. M.C. LANGA
21. MMANTUTULE
22. TJITJALA
23. TLAKANA
24. PUKA SEKHAOLELO PRE PRIMARY

1.1.4 POTGIETERSRUS CIRCUIT

1.1.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAGEMA
2. LIMBURG
3. SEKGEDLWA
4. STERKRIVIER
5. VAALTYN JUNIOR PRIMARY
6. BOLEDI PRE PRIMARY
7. GABOTSE
8. EILAND PRIMARY
9. BLINKWATER PRIMARY
10. NTSOGA
11. POTGIETERSRUS
12. SCHAAPHOK
13. TSWELOPELE
14. MORARELA
15. MOKII
16. KALAKENG
17. VOLKSKOOL POTGIETERSRUS
18. TINA FOUCHE KLEUTERSKOOL
19. LAERSKOOK POTGIETERSRUS
20. ELANDSKRAAL PRIMARY
21. HEBRON MODEL CHOOL
22. LAER SKOOL KRUGERPARK
23. MANGALA
24. MODIKAHOHLE PRIMARY

1.1.5 NABOOMSPRUIT CIRCUIT

1.1.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MATSWAPILONG
2. DITHEKU
3. DIKUBU
4. BB MATLAILA PUBLIC PRIMARY
5. BADSELOOP
6. MOGOMANENG
7. ONVERWACHT FARM PRIMARY
8. SEKGARI
9. TSHIPU
10. TSHIVHULA
11. RAMOKHUA
12. ROEDTAN INERMEDIATE
13. WICKLOW
14. FEJANE
15. GA-MATSEBE
16. GRUIFONTEIN
17. HAAKDOORNKUIL
18. MPHATLALATSANE
19. LAERSKOOL EUGENE N MARAIS
20. MASUPATSELA
21. MOJATAU
22. MOKHARI FARM SCHOOL
23. LAERSKOOL BYSONDERHEID

1.2 PALALA AREA

1.2.1 PALALA CIRCUIT

1.2.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEFITLHOGO
2. RAMAKWAPENG
3. ST. MAJADIBODU PRE PRIMARY
4. MOABI PRIMARY
5. WILLIAM MAPITSO PRE PRIMARY

1.2.2 PALALA NORTH CIRCUIT

1.2.1.2 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SELEKA HIGHER PRIMARY
2. SHONGOANE
3. TSHEESEBE
4. RASERITE
5. TSHELAMMAKE
6. SEGALE
7. MOROE
8. MAZWE
9. MFAKE
10. MOABI
11. MAKHURUMELA
12. OLIFANTSDRIFT
13. RADIBAKI
14. MOKWELE
15. ABBOTSPOORT HIGHER PRIMARY
16. BAPHOTING
17. MASWIKANANOKO
18. KLIPSPRUIT
19. LETLAMORENG
20. MOKGALO
21. ALICE PRE PRIMARY
22. MAKI PRE PRIMARY
23. ROSINA-KOTLHAO PRE PRIMARY

1.2.3 PALALA SOUTH CIRCUIT

1.2.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MATSETSENG
2. MOSIMA 2 PRIMARY
3. NKU
4. POULOS MOSIMA
5. RAMOJAPUDI
6. BAKGALAKA
7. BANGALONG
8. JACOB LANGA LOWER PRIMARY
9. KITTY PRIMARY
10. MAETELETJA
11. BORUTLA MOSIMA
12. WILLIAM PHASHA PRE PRIMARY
13. SJ MOTLUHUNENG

1.2.4 ELLISRAS CIRCUIT

1.2.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. TSHUKUDU PRIMARY
2. SKUINSKLOOF
3. LAPOLOGANG
4. MOREKHURE PRIMARY FARM
5. RELEBOGILE
6. OREAGETSE
7. LEREKHURENG
8. MAKILAKA PRIMARY FARM
9. MATSHANENG
10. MOTOMA
11. MOKGALO
12. NELSONSKOP
13. LAERSKOOL ELLISRAS
14. STERKFONTEIN
15. MMAMINA
16. BOSVELD PRIMARY
17. BILTON
18. BOTSHELONG

1.2.5 BALTIMORE CIRCUIT

1.2.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MONALA
2. MPEDI-MAPHUTHA
3. RANOKO
4. KGOBOKI
5. BALTIMORE
6. BOITHUTO COMBINED
7. KREUPELBOCH PRIMARY FARM
8. KGODILPAN
9. KWELOBOHLOKO
10. MAKOMBANE
11. MOTSWERENG PRIMARY FARM
12. RALEHUMANE
13. RHENOSTERFONTEIN
14. TOUCHSTONE
15. SEKHUNG
16. LEKGOLWA
17. REABILWE
18. TLHWARE
19. MARKEN
20. LAERSKOOL UNITAS
21. ZANDKRAAL
22. MAMMUSO MOKGADI

1.3 WARMBATHS AREA

1.3.1 WARMBAD CIRCUIT

1.3.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOUTSE
2. PIENAARSRIVIER
3. MODDERSPRUIT
4. THABAGARE
5. TURFFONTEIN
6. TURFPAN
7. LANGKUIL
8. BLAAUWBOSCHKUIL
9. BRUINESSE
10. DIBATHORO
11. GRETNA
12. HLEKETANI
13. KHABELE
14. LAERSKOOL WARMBAD
15. MALEBONE
16. MANTSHOLE
17. MMAMAKWA
18. WARMBATHS PRIMARY
19. JINNAH PARK
20. BUZZY BEEZ PRE PRIMARY

1.3.2 VAALWAATER CIRCUIT

1.3.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SITRUSVLAKTE
2. LEEUPOORT LAERSKOOL
3. STROH PRIMARY
4. LAERSKOOL VAALWATER
5. LEBOGANG
6. MAKAEPEA
7. KRANSBERG
8. MOLLELA
9. MONATE
10. NARE
11. LAERSKOOL ALMA
12. REAHLAHLWA
13. BOEKENHOUTPOORT
14. DIBAPHOHU
15. KHWITING
16. BAVIAANSDRAAI PRIMARY FARM
17. REFIHLILE
18. MAHLASEDI
19. TOOYSKRAAL
20. METSOTSO
21. MEETSEMATALA
22. TSWELAPELE

1.3.3 NYLSTROOM CIRCUIT

1.3.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RANAMANE
2. REHOMODITSWE
3. MMABUTSETSA PRIMARY FARM
4. LAERSKOOL EENHEID
5. LAERSKOOL NYLSTROOM
6. LAERSKOOL TUIN PLAAS
7. LEKKERBREEK
8. LERNA
9. MODDERNEK
10. MPHEMPHE
11. MODIMOLLE
12. DAGBREEK
13. PITINYANA
14. SEKATEKATE
15. TSWALO
16. WILDEVYEBOOM
17. MOTLHAPING
18. LAERSKOOK DOORFONTEIN

1.3.4 THABAZIMBI CIRCUIT

1.3.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAMORAKA
2. KAMEELSPRUIT PRIMARY FARM
3. MAKOPPA COMBINED
4. LAERSKOOL NORTHAM
5. LAERSKOOL KOEDESKOP
6. KOEDOESLAAGTE
7. KAREEHOEK
8. PHOLO
9. ISTORES
10. FAIR PRIMARY
11. DEO GLORIA
12. CANTEBURY
13. MOTLOKOANE
14. KESARONA
15. LAERSKOOL THABAZIMBI
16. HOOPDAL
17. PANSMEUL
18. YSTERBERG PUBLIC PRIMARY
19. NATSANA
20. WILDEGANSVLEI
21. DITLHARENG

1.3.5 DWAALBOOM CIRCUIT

1.3.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOUNT HOPE
2. MONAGENG
3. MOGOTLHO
4. LETSWAI METSI
5. LAERSKOOL VAN WYKS KRAAL
6. LAERSKOOL DWAALBOOM
7. KRAUSE FARM
8. FAIRFIELD
9. DWAALBOOM
10. NOORDT BRABANDT
11. THEKGANANG
12. STEENDAL FARM
13. SILENT VALLEY
14. SENAKANGWEDI
15. ROOIGROND PRIMARY FARM
16. RABUGALE PUBLIC PRIMARY
17. LAERSKOOL PLATINA
18. CHROME MINE

1.4 BAKENBERG AREA

1.4.1 MATLALANE

1.4.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. NAKEDI-KOBE
2. LENNES
3. MOROBA
4. MABANA PRE PRIMARY
5. MATHEKGA
6. SEPOBE
7. MASHOSHO
8. RATINKE
9. TLHAKO LOWER AND HIGHER PRIMARY
10. MAKOBE
11. MASHIKA PRE PRIMARY
12. RASEFADIMA PRE PRIMARY
13. MAKGABO BOSHOMANE
14. MODISHA
15. MASHAO MABUSHA
16. DORA PALE PRE PRIMARY
17. KOENA PRE PRIMARY
18. DITLOU
19. RAMELA
20. WILSON MOKOKO PRE PRIMARY
21. MAGALAKWINSTROOM
22. HAM NO. 1 PRIMARY

1.4.2 BAKENBERG NORTH CIRCUIT

1.4.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. BOKWIDI
2. NELLY PUBLIC PRIMARY
3. SUPI
4. RABASOTHO
5. KGOPEDI
6. KGOKA
7. NKGAKGAUTHA
8. MATLHAKANE HIGHER PRIMARY
9. MASIPA
10. CLERMONT
11. JIM GWANGWA
12. KGOMOSHIAKWENA
13. DENNIS MATLHABA II
14. DITLOTSWANE
15. THUTLWANE LOWER PRIMARY
16. GR MOTLANA PRE PRIMARY
17. LEAKA PRE PRIMARY
18. LERITA PRE PRIMARY
19. LECHABA
20. LEUBANENG
21. MABUSELA
22. MALOKONG

1.4.3 MOGALAKWENA CIRCUIT

1.4.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. NGWANAKWADI
2. NKEKETHLALWA
3. PHAHLAPHAHLA
4. MATLOU MEMORIAL
5. RAMASOLA PRE PRIMARY
6. NTEBELENG
7. MMAKEAGANG PRE PRIMARY
8. K.K. MONARE
9. MADIDIMALO
10. DIRETSANENG
11. JOHN MANANYE
12. JORDAN
13. NKIDIKITLANA
14. KGOKOLO
15. SEHOJANE
16. MUSHI
17. SERUPA
18. MAHLORA
19. MOKGOPA

1.4.4 BAKENBERG SOUTH

1.4.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SUSWE
2. GIVEN MANGOLO
3. GALAKWINSTROOM
4. SEKANEKAMOYI
5. HOSEA SEFATA MOLO PRE PRIMARY
6. MOOKAMEDI
7. BASTERSPAD
8. ABIOT KOLOBE
9. BATHOKWA
10. KGAKGALA
11. NKONTLHA
12. RANTJIE
13. RAWESHI LOWER AND HIGHER PRIMARY
14. LENKWANE
15. LESODI MOTLANA HIGHER PRIMARY
16. MAHLOMA
17. MALAPILE
18. MAPITIKAMA
19. SESHOATLHA

2. REGION 2: CENTRAL REGION

	AREAS	CIRCUITS
•	POLOKWANE	Pietersburg Maraba Maune Bahlaloga Seshego Koloti
•	KONEKWENA	Bakone Moloto Central 3 Mogoshi Moletjie Vlakfontein
•	BOCHUM	Bochum East Bochum West Maleboho West Maleboho East Maleboho central Bahananwa Bahananwa East Bochum
•	ZEBEDIELA	Magatle Moletlane Lepelle Lepelle A
•	MOGODUMO	Mogodumo Nokotlou Sepitsi Lebowakgomo

		Mphahlele Central 2 Thabamoopo Leolo
•	MANKWENG	Mankweng Mamabolo Lebopo Dimano Kgakotlou

2.1 POLOKWANE AREA

2.1.1 PIETERSBURG CIRCUIT

2.1.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SNELL PHOSHOKO
2. LETLOTLO
3. LOTANANG
4. DOROTHY LANGA
5. GRACE AND HOPE SPECIAL SCHOOL
6. PHISHEGO JUNIOR PRIMARY
7. TSUTSUMETSA HIGHER PRIMARY
8. FLORA PARK COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL
9. PRIMERE SKOOL SUIKERBEKKIE
10. LAERSKOOL IVY PARK
11. LAERSKOOL PIET HUGO
12. PIETERSBURG ENGLISH MEDIUM PRIMARY SCHOOL
13. PAPKUIL
14. GENL PIET JOUBERT
15. MKONKO FARM SCHOOL
16. PIETERSBURG LAERSKOOL
17. LAERSKOOL PIETERSBURG OOS
18. LAERSKOOL PIETERSBUR NOORD
19. LAERSKOOL CHRIS HOFMEYER
20. PRIMERE SKOOL KLEIN ONDEUG PRE

2.1.2 MARABA CIRCUIT

2.1.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL

1. MANKGAKISHA
2. MAPANGULA
3. SEHLARE
4. SOLOMON MARABA
5. MAKGWARENG
6. MALEMA PRIMARY SCHOOL NO2
7. MAHLODUMELA LP SCHOOL
8. MOREMI HIGHER PRIMARY
9. MOKGADIATHOLA PRE PRIMARY
10. MATUMA
11. JOHN NRIMBA
12. JONAS LESETJA LEDWABA
13. HOSEA NTSOANE
14. TLOUKGOMO
15. MAFATOAKGWALE PRE PRIMARY
16. NGWANAMPHAHLELE
17. ISAAC LEDWABA PRE PRIMARY
18. NKOKOBA
19. MPHATLALATSANE
20. NNATILE
21. JONAS MANTJIU
22. NTSODI BAMBO
23. PAXANA

2.1.3 MAUNE CIRCUIT

2.1.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEEMOLE MARABA
2. TUTWANA
3. UTJANE
4. SEOKA
5. LETLAKANA
6. MADENATHAGA
7. MALOPENG
8. MASHIANOKE
9. MMATALEDWABA
10. MORELEBAKGANYAGO
11. MORWASETHULA
12. MATSHELANA
13. MAUNE
14. MASHASHANE
15. MOKIRIMANE
16. MOSENYAMAHLO PRE PRIMARY
17. JONAS KGAPHO PRE PRIMARY
18. NAPO
19. SEFATI FARM SCHOOL
20. PHATLAPHADIMA SPECIAL SCHOOL

2.1.4 BAHLALOGA CIRCUIT

2.1.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEHLAGANE
2. MARIPHU
3. MASEGELA
4. MALOKANENG
5. MOHWIBIDU
6. KGAKOA MOKGAKOA
7. KAPUTLA NKOANA
8. JH MOLOTO
9. BOSEMAHLA
10. CHOKWE
11. RAMONGWANA
12. RAMOGOBE
13. NGWAKO
14. MARWESA
15. PHUTI MAKIBELO
16. RALEMA

2.1.5 SESHEGO CIRCUIT

2.1.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. THAKGALANG
2. MAKWEYA
3. MOKATI
4. PETER NCHABELENG
5. MOCHOCHO
6. ZONE 8 PRIMARY
7. MATOLO KHALO
8. BIKO PARK
9. DAVID KOANA SENIOR PRIMARY
10. MPHARENG JUNIOR PRIMARY
11. ALF MAKALENG
12. APRIL MAKGAKGA SENIOR PRIMARY
13. BOIKETLO
14. CM SEHLAPELO
15. ERNEST MATLOU
16. MP MALATJIE
17. WESLEY PRE PRIMARY
18. NELLY KGAKA PRE PRIMARY
19. NTIKANA PRE PRIMARY

2.1.6 KOLOTI CIRCUIT

2.1.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL

1. MACHEMA
2. MANAMELA
3. MMATLOU
4. MORUPAHALE
5. MOLOTO
6. KGANTSHI
7. KGWAREDI
8. KOMAPE MOLAPO
9. BAILAFURI
10. HLABANA
11. MOSHASHA
12. MAPITSI PRE PRIMARY
13. MABOKELE
14. SEBOKELA

2.2 KONEKWENA AREA

2.2.1 BAKONE CIRCUIT

2.2.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RAMASHILO
2. MABOPA ABO MPUWA
3. MAHLWARENG
4. BURGWAL LOWER PRIMARY
5. CRACOUW
6. BORUME
7. AURORA
8. LETSHEGA MALOKWANE
9. LEKITING
10. LEKHURENG
11. MASHILO
12. MAKARAPENG
13. MAFIFING
14. NAREMOHLALERWA
15. MOSEHLENG
16. MODIANYANA
17. NAKEDI MOJELA PRE PRIMARY
18. NTSHAKGA PRE PRIMARY
19. WEGELEGEN
20. MAPHUTHA

2.2.2 MOLOTO CIRCUIT

2.2.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LETLHOTLHONG
2. LEKWALAKWALA
3. MABITSELA
4. PHAUDI
5. PITSI A MASHILO
6. PELABELA
7. MAKGODU
8. MMASEHLONG
9. MOGOSHI
10. MOGALADI
11. LEWENG
12. KGAIWA
13. MAKGOKHLOANE
14. MODIANA

2.2.3 CENTRAL 3 CIRCUIT

2.2.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. TSHERANE HIGHER PRIMARY
2. SEEPABANA LOWER PRIMARY

2.2.4 MOGOSHI CIRCUIT

2.2.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. HAKALA
2. DIBENG
3. BAKONE
4. KGOPODI
5. KGOMONTSWERE
6. PULA SEOPA
7. PUDUTJIE
8. PHUTI SEOPA
9. PHOFU
10. LETSWALELA BAHLALOGA
11. PHEHLE
12. MADIETANE
13. NKHUISHE HIGHER PRIMARY
14. NGAKANA
15. MMUSHI JUNIOR PRIMARY
16. HARRY OPPENHEIMER
17. TSOGE
18. TLOU
19. SEKGWARI

2.2.5 MOLETJIE CIRCUIT

2.2.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. DIAKGANYA
2. CERES
3. KGOROSI
4. MMADITSIKA
5. MANCHIMUDI
6. MMAKGABO
7. MOTANA
8. SEFATALADI
9. RAMETLOANA LOWER PRIMARY
10. IKETETSENG PRE PRIMARY
11. SEOKENG
12. RAPITSI
13. SETLHAKO
14. LEOKANENG

2.2.6 VLAKFONTEIN CIRCUIT

2.2.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LEKGORONG
2. KWENA-A-PEU
3. KWENA SELAKI
4. MADUMA
5. MOSHIBI MOKOBODI
6. NONGMODIK
7. MOTLISHI
8. PROSPECT
9. MMANKOGAEDUPE
10. MMAMEHLABE
11. KGOBOKI
12. AMBERGATE
13. WINGFIELD
14. TAU-KWENA
15. HWIBI
16. TIBANEFONTEIN
17. MOETAGARE
18. KONKOTI
19. CHLOE
20. IKAGELENG MAKOBE
21. PUTJISHI
22. MMAPHEKGO

2.3 BOCHUM AREA

2.3.1 BOCHUM EAST CIRCUIT

2.3.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RADIBOLOTJIE
2. MODUMELA
3. SEKURUWE
4. SERIPA
5. SHAKOLENG
6. NKOANA
7. KANANA
8. KGOBOKANANG
9. MADIKANA
10. BRUSSELS NGOAKO
11. NTLHODUMELA
12. MONYEMATHULA
13. PHUTI
14. RAPOHO
15. KGOLOUTHWANA
16. MASENWE
17. DENDRON

2.3.2 BOCHUM WEST CIRCUIT

2.3.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MMARATHA
2. MOGOHLONG
3. SEOBI
4. SESHANE
5. MAMADISHA
6. KGOKONYANE
7. KODUMELA
8. MABETWA
9. WITLIG LOWER PRIMARY
10. MONYESEBODU
11. HLOHLODI
12. MMAKGOTSHWEU
13. NUWE MORE

2.3.3 MALEBOHO WEST CIRCUIT

2.3.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MASEBE
2. SADU
3. SEPHAOWENG
4. MANTUNTUNYANE
5. PHUMATLA
6. POTOKELA
7. MOHLAKENG
8. TLHAKAUMA
9. SEFOTO
10. SEIKGONI
11. SETHUNYA
12. SEFOTWANE
13. KGWALE
14. BORWALATHOTO LOWER AND HIGHER PRIMARY
15. KAWENE HIGH PRIMARY
16. BOTSWA
17. MASHILOMPANA

2.3.4 MALEBOHO EAST CIRCUIT

2.3.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RAMARULA
2. RAMMUTLA
3. MPHOKANENG
4. TEMA
5. TSWATSANE
6. SEANEGO
7. SEFIHLAMPYANA
8. TEFU
9. SEKHWIDITSANE
10. SELAELO
11. SEMETSE
12. BOIKHUTSO
13. MMANTOTOLE
14. MANAKA
15. RALEKWANA

2.3.5 MALEBOHO CENTRAL CIRCUIT

2.3.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RADIRA
2. SESALONG
3. DINOKO
4. MATJEKETLANE
5. RASEASALA
6. HOSEA MOTSHEMI
7. LETHLOEDI
8. DIKGOALE
9. DIKOLOI
10. DITATSU
11. BODIROA
12. MATHUWE
13. MAPOTLA
14. MANOE
15. MATHEKO
16. MAKGOTLHO
17. MAMASONYA
18. MAMOSHA
19. MAMPOTE

2.3.6 BAHANANWA CIRCUIT

2.3.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. POKANONG
2. NONYANA
3. MPEBE
4. MORONGWA
5. MATJEKETLANE
6. RAPHOTOLOLO
7. RASEBILU
8. RASEKGALE
9. SELELO
10. LEBOHO
11. KGALUSHI
12. MABOI
13. MASHIE
14. MATSUOKWANE
15. MMAKGOMO
16. MAMA
17. MODULATHOKO
18. MAKGAFELA
19. MAKGARI
20. MANTSHABE
21. MAIMELA
22. MALOLOANE

2.3.7 BAHANANWA EAST

2.3.7.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL/S

1. MOHLABI

2.3.8 BOCHUM CIRCUIT

2.3.8.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RANKHUMANENG
2. KOBE
3. MASEALELE

2.4 ZEBEDIELA AREA

2.4.1 MAGATLE CIRCUIT

2.4.1.1 LIST OF SCHOOLS

1. MOTSERERENG
2. MAPATJAKENG
3. MMAMMATI
4. MAMOGOASHA
5. MOKGOHLWE MAKOPO
6. MOLEMO
7. BOLAHLAKGOMO
8. DIPOFUNG
9. LETJATJI PRESIDENTIAL
10. MADIKA
11. MAGATLE
12. MADIBO
13. SHUPENG
14. MOTSOFALA
15. NKAKATI PRE PRIMARY
16. SELLO SCHOOL
17. SEKGOPHOKGOPHONG
18. SEGAENG

2.4.2 MOLETLANE CIRCUIT

2.4.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MATOME
2. MOGOTO
3. MOHLOPHENG
4. MOKONE
5. MOSHODO
6. GAUTA JONATHAN
7. MATSHUMU
8. SHIKOANE
9. TINTELA
10. SEKUTUPU
11. MMATJIE PRE PRIMARY
12. NKGALABELE
13. PHALALONG
14. RAKGOATHA
15. RAMOKGOTHO
16. RAMOLOKOANE
17. SEBOTSI

2.4.3 LEPELLE CIRCUIT

2.4.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOHLAHLANE
2. MOGOLOGOLO
3. KHURENG
4. LEHLWELERE MATLALA
5. SEULA MMAKO
6. THADUKU
7. PHALAKGORO MOTHOA
8. REGAE

2.4.4 LEPELLE A CIRCUIT

2.4.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MMAMMATI
2. MPELEGENG MATLALA
3. RAMASODI
4. NKGOSO
5. SEALAMAGORO
6. MAMETJA

2.5 MOGODUMO AREA

2.5.1 MOGODUMO CIRCUIT

2.5.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. THOKGWANENG
2. SILOE SCHOOL FOR THE VISUALLY IMPAIRED
3. RIETKOLK
4. KGETSA
5. KGAMPI
6. MARATAPELO
7. MANGAKANE LOWER PRIMARY
8. MAHWIBITSANE
9. BOKGOBELO LOWER PRIMARY
10. SEHLOLA
11. VREDERUST
12. GWARA-GWARA
13. MOLAPOMATEBELE
14. MPHACHUE
15. MOKHOPO
16. MOGODUMO
17. SEROKOLOSENYANE
18. SEKURWANENG
19. SEFALAOLO
20. PHULANE
21. NGWANAMAGO

2.5.2 NOKOTLOU CIRCUIT

2.5.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAMONGAO
2. LEGOBOLE
3. KOPJANE
4. MAFEFE
5. KOMANE
6. MATALANE
7. MASHABASHABA
8. MAPOMPALE
9. DIKGEU
10. BOREDI
11. TLOUATIBA
12. MOLEKE JUNIOR PRIMARY
13. MAREDI LOWER PRIMARY
14. MOLOTOADI
15. SEALANE
16. SCHEIDING
17. RAMATSEDI
18. PHOPHEDI

2.5.3 SEPITSI CIRCUIT

2.5.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. HLAGATSE
2. LENTING
3. MALEMATI
4. MANEENG
5. MALEKAPANE
6. MAKURUNG
7. DITHABANENG
8. DINAO
9. BYLDRIFT
10. BOSCHPLAATS
11. REKHUTJITJE
12. TJIANE
13. MOROTSE
14. MORORE

2.5.4 LEBOWAKGOMO CIRCUIT

2.5.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LITTLE BEDFORDVIEW
2. LAFATA
3. MARETLWANG
4. MOKGOTHOANE
5. MAHLASEDI
6. MAMAOLO
7. HWELERENG
8. EUREKA
9. TSOGA O ITIRELE SPECIAL CENTRE
10. HILLSIDE PARK
11. NDLOVU
12. NTSEEKGOPU

2.5.5 MPHAHLELE CIRCUIT

2.5.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LESETSI
2. KGAGATLOU
3. KGAGANOKO
4. MADISEI
5. MAIJANE
6. DIKOBE MOLABA
7. MATIME 2
8. BOLOPA
9. MATHABE
10. GWARA-GWARA
11. NGWANA MOHUBE
12. MUTLE
13. MOUPO
14. MOKGOROTLWANE
15. MOKGAPANENG

2.5.6 CENTRAL 2 CIRCUIT

2.5.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAHLATJANE
2. PHULANE

2.5.7 THABAMOOPO CIRCUIT

2.5.7.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. THOKA
2. BOGALENG

2.5.8 LEOLO CIRCUIT

2.5.8.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The list of primary schools was not provided when the research was conducted

2.6 MANKWENG AREA

2.6.1 MANKWENG CIRCUIT

2.6.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAREGE PRE PRIMARY
2. MAKANYE
3. MASEMELA PRE
4. TURFLOOP PRE
5. TLOU HLALERWA PRE
6. KGOKONG
7. DIKOLOBE
8. PULA MADIBOGO
9. MOTHOLO LOWER PRIMARY
10. TORONTO
11. SESOGI HIGHER PRIMARY
12. MAKGEFOLA
13. MAKGWADIBA HIGHER PRIMARY
14. MALESA
15. MORIA
16. MORITING
17. MEGORING
18. MMAPHOTLA

2.6.2 MAMABOLO CIRCUIT

2.6.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. THUNE
2. LESHOANE LOWER PRIMARY
3. RAMOHWIBIDU PRE PRIMARY
4. MOROPO PRE
5. MPAMBA PRE
6. KGATLA HIGHER PRIMARY
7. MAHLANHLE
8. KOTANKWER
9. KATANE
10. SEHLOMOLA
11. RAKOPI JUNIOR PRIMARY
12. LEPHARO PRE PRIMARY
13. KIBI PRE PRIMARY
14. KAMELA RAPHELA PRE PRIMARY
15. TSHWARE
16. THABAKGONE

2.6.3 LEBOPO CIRCUIT

2.6.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. PUTLA PRE PRIMARY
2. MOTHUBA MATEADI PRE
3. MAPHEFO
4. MOSHOAHLA PRE
5. BOLOPA
6. MAKATA
7. MAGATOLLE
8. BOSHEGA
9. DIPUWE
10. DIHLOPHANENG
11. SEHLALE
12. RAMPHERI
13. KGABE PRE PRIMARY
14. SEKGWENG
15. SUBIACO
16. MAKGALAPANE
17. MAMPA
18. MANKGAILE
19. MOGANO
20. MOLEPO
21. MOTAPO

2.6.4 DIMANO CIRCUIT

2.6.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAPHUTO
2. KOKONA DIKGALE
3. MAKGOADI PRE
4. BANA BA THARI SPECIAL SCHOOL
5. MARIBE
6. MAGOGO
7. KONOTO
8. KGALAKA
9. DIKGOPENG
10. KGOTLHO
11. SEBAYENG
12. MP MAMABOLO
13. SOLOMONDALE
14. MASEBODILA
15. MAROBALA
16. MANTHEDING
17. MALESELA
18. MODIBONE
19. MOGABAANE
20. MORARO
21. MOSEBO

2.6.5 KGAKOTLOU CIRCUIT

2.6.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAPUDITHOMO
2. MANKGOADI
3. MAKOTOPONG SENIOR PRIMARY
4. LAASTEHOOP
5. LAASTEHOOP HIGHER PRIMARY
6. DIKWATA
7. PHUTI
8. NTJI MOTHAPO
9. POGUTI MARIBULLA
10. THOMO
11. THABA DORA
12. MAREDI
13. MMANTHE
14. MAMAHLO
15. MOLAMO
16. MATSHELANE MOTHAPO

3. REGION 3: NORTHERN REGION

	AREAS	CIRCUITS
•	MALAMULELE	Malamulele West Malamulele East Malamulele Central
•	MUTALE	Mudaswali Niani Sambandou Tshilamba
•	SEKGOSESE	Sekgosese East Sekgosese North Sekgosese Central
•	SOUTPANSBERG	Soutpansberg East Soutpansberg North Soutpansberg West Nzhelele East
•	THOHOYANDOU	Luvuvhu Mutshundudi Mvudi Tshinane
•	VUWANI	Vhuronga 1 Vhuronga 2 Dzondo

REGION:3
AREA:MALAMULELE
CIRCUIT:MALAMULELE WEST

PUBLIC PRIMARY

1 CHANYELA
2 GINGIRIKANI
3 GUWELA
4 HASANI LAWRENCE
5 HLAWULEKANI
6 KHAKHANWA
7 MACHELE
8 MAHLEPUNYE
9 MUDARULA
10 MUKHOMI
11 MULAMULA
12 MULENZHE
13 MUSWANI
14 MUTOTI
15 MHEHO
16 NHOMBELANI
17 PHAPHAZELA
18 TOVHOWANI
19 TSHAMANI
20 TLANGELANI
21 TSHAMISEKA
22 TWANANI
23 RISANA

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
23

REGION:3
AREA:MALAMULELE
CIRCUIT:MALAMULELE EAST

PUBLIC PRIMARY

1 FUMANI
2 GOVHU
3 HANGALAKANI
4 HISEKELANI
5 MAGONA
6 KHODOBI
7 MAKHASA
8 MASHOBYE
9 MERWE
10 NKANDZIYI
11 NYAVANI
12 NXANGUYINTSWA
13 NGHOMUNGHOMU
14 PHATIMA
15 SHIKATSA
16 SHIGOMBE
17 SHILUME
18 TINYIKO
19 TIVONELENI
20 TSHIKWANI

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
20

REGION:3
AREA:MALAMULELE
CIRCUIT:CENTRAL

PUBLIC PRIMARY

1 GEORGE HASANI
2 KHANANI
3 KHUPUKANI
4 LANGUTANI
5 MAGANGENI
6 MAGODA
7 MAHONISI
8 MAKHAPULE
9 MAKUMEKE
10 MANAUELE
11 MAPAPILA
12 MANAMBE
13 MDANISI
14 MUTSHENA
15 RIPINDZI
16 SHIBANGWA
17 SHIGALO
18 SHIMAMBANI
19 SHITLHELANI
20 TITIRHELENI
21 TIVANANI
22 TIYISELANI
23 TSUNDZUKANI
24 MAVUYISI
25 XIHLOVO

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES

25

REGION:3
AREA: MUTALE
CIRCUIT: MUDASWALI

PRIMARIES

1 LUANAME
2 MAHUNGUWI
3 MBAHELA
4 MAKWARANI
5 MARAXWE
6 MATANGARI
7 MIANZWI
8 MUDZIDZIDZI
9 MUHUYU
10 MUKONDENI
11 MUTSHENZHENI
12 NDIDIVHANI
13 RAVHURA
14 SAMBANDOU
15 THENZHENI
16 TSHANZHE
17 TSHIDZIVHE
18 TSHILUNGWI
19 TSHIOMBO
20 TSWERA
21 VHUTALU

PRE-SCHOOL

1 MATOMBOTSWUKA

SUMMARY

PRIMARY	PRE-SCHOOL
21	1

REGION: 3
AREA: MUTALE
CIRCUIT: NIANI

PRIMARIES

1 BALE
2 DAMBALE
3 DOMBONI
4 DOVHO
5 FOLOVHODWE
6 GUMBU
7 MADANGANI
8 MADAVHILA
9 MADIMBO
10 MADIFHA
11 MAKAVHINI
12 MALALE
13 MALINGE
14 MANENZHE
15 MAPAKONI
16 MARAMANZHI
17 MASALA
18 MASEA
19 MASISI
20 MATATANI
21 MATSHENA
22 MAVHODE
23 MBODI
24 MBONENI
25 MUFULWI
26 MUKOVHABALE
27 MUKUNUNDE
28 MUSUNDA
29 MUSWODI
30 MUTELE
31 SIGONDE
32 TSHAPINDA
33 TSHENZHELANI
34 TSHIKUYU
35 TSHIPISE
36 TSHIRUNZINI
37 TSHIUNGANI
38 TSHIVHONGWENI
39 TSHOKOTSHOKO

SUMMARY

PRIMARIES
39

AREA :MUTALE
CIRCUIT : SAMBANDOU
REGION: 3

PRIMARIES

1 B.R NEMULODI
2 FANDANI
3 KAREL NGIGIDENI
4 KHAVHAMBE
5 LADZANI
6 LAMVI
7 LAVHURAL
8 LUVHONE
9 MAGILEDZHI
10 MAHOLONI
11 MANGAYA
12 MATSHIKIRI
13 MAVUNDE
14 MUKOMOWABANI
15 TAKALANI NYAWEDZANI
16 TSHIAKHATHO
17 TSHIANZWANE
18 TSHIBALO
19 TSHIKALANGE
20 TSHIKONDENI
21 TSILAWA
22 VHURIVHURI
23 TSHIDONGOLOLWE

INDEPENDENT PRIMARY

1 TSHIKONDENI LAERSKOOL

PRE-PRIMARY

1 TSHIAMAWELA

SUMMARY

PRIMARY	INDEP.PRIMARY	PRE.SCHOOL
23	1	1

REGION 3
AREA: MUTALE
CIRCUIT: TSHILAMBA

PRIMARIES

1 BASHASHA
2 FEFE
3 DZAMBA
4 GOGOGO
5 GUNDANI
6 GUYUNI
7 LUHENI
8 LUKAU
9 LUPHEPHE
10 MABILA
11 MADATSHITSHI
12 MAFUKANI
13 TSHIXWADZA
14 NGALAVHANI
15 N' WANEDI
16 PILE
17 SHALEDZA
18 SHESHE
19 TSHAMULUNGWI
20 TSHANDAMA
21 TSHAPASHA
22 TSHATHOVELA
23 TSHAVHADINDA
24 TSHIKOSI
25 TSHITANDANI

INDEPENDENT COMBINE

1 ST. AUGUSTINE

PRE- SCHOOL

1 TSHAKHUMA
2 TSHILAMBA

SUMMARY PER CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	INDEPENDENT COMBINE
25	1
PRE-SCHOOL	
2	

REGION :3
CIRCUIT :SEKGOSESE EAST
AREA : SEKGOSESE

CATEGORY : PRIMARIES

1 BABERWA
2 KOPANANG
3 LEKGOLO
4 MAMAILA
5 MASEHLONE
6 MOTSOKOTSA
7 NKEI
8 PHETOLE
9 RAMAITE
10 SEBELAOLO
11 SENWAMOKGOPE
12 SEPHUKUBJE
13 SETSEKANA
14 THABANATSHWANA
15 TSEKERE
16 TSHANGWANE

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
16

REGION :3
CIRCUIT:
SEKGOSESE NORTH
AREA :SEKGOSESE

CATEGORY: PRIMARIES

1 EDZISANI
2 LOTAVHA
3 LUPENYO
4 MAANDAMAHULU
5 MADABUDE
6 MADADZI
7 MADIHADZULI
8 MAILA
9 MALWELA
10 MANKO
11 MASETHE
12 MUDIKHOMU
13 MUILA
14 MUISE
15 MUROGOLO
16 MUVHANGO
17 MUWAWENI
18 NTHABALALA
19 ST. SCHOLASTICA
20 THONZWE
21 TSHILAHO
22 TUWANI
23 VARI

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
7

REGION : 3
CIRCUIT : SEKGOSESE CENTRAL
AREA : SEKGOSESE

CATEGORY: PRIMARIES

1 BODUMA
2 BOSHATOLA
3 DEELKRAAL
4 IKAGELENG
5 ITSHOMELENG
6 KILETSA
7 LEBOWAKGANYANE
8 MABOKE
9 MAKHABENI
10 MAKWA
11 MALADUMA
12 MALEBALA
13 MANTSHA
14 MAPALEDI
15 MATSWIDIKANYE
16 MOGATSENA
17 MPTSEKETLA
18 MINNIK
19 PHEEHA
20 RAMOKGOPA
21 RAMOHLALE
22 RATHOMA
23 SEKGOPO
24 SEPHALA
25 MAMOTHE

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
25

REGION: 3
AREA : SOUTPANSBERG
CIRCUIT :SUOTPANSBERG EAST

CATEGORY:PRIMARY

1 BELE
2 DJUNANE
3 ELIM
4 HLALELANI
5 KETLANE
6 KHUNDA
7 LAERSKOOL LOUISTRICHARDT
8 LAERSKOOL SOUTPANSBERG
9 MADOMBIDZHA
10 MAGAU
11 MAGUADA
12 MAKWATAMBANI
13 MALIMUWA
14 MAMBEDI
15 MASINDI
16 MASUNGULO
17 MATSHAVHAWE
18 MUNZHEDZI
19 MUTAVHANANI
20 MUTHUHADINI
21 NKHENSA
22 NNDWAKHULU00
23 NYATEMA
24 PETAMUKANDA
25 SHIHLOBYENI
26 SHIRLEY
27 TANGANEDZWA
28 TSHIFIRE
29 TSHIKHWANI
30 TSHIKWARANI
31 TSHILWAVHUSIKU
32 TSHIMONELA
33 TSHISAPHUNGO
34 THIMOTHY TSHIBVUMO
35 VALDEZIA

COMBINED PUBLIC

1 ELTIVALLAS
2 MASEDI

INDEPENDENT COMBINEI

1 SWEET WATERS

PUBLIC PRE-SCHOOI

MUDINDIVHATHU
MURAVHA
VLEIFONTEIN
WATERVAL

INDEPENDENT PRE-SCHOOLS

1 HANG KLIP
2 EMMARENTIA
3 DRIE BEERTJIES
4 RIDJEWAY

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	COMMBINED PUBLIC	INDEPENDENT COMBINEI
35	2	1
INDEPENDENT PRE SCHOOL	PRE-SCHOOL	
4	4	

REGION : 3
AREA :SOUTPANSBERG
CIRCUIT : SOUTPANSBERG NORTH

CATEGORY: PRIMARIES

1 BONWAUDI
2 DOLIDOLI
3 ESMEFOUR
4 FHEMBELEDZANI
5 GOMBANI
6 HOPE
7 KHRIVHA
8 KHOMELA
9 KRANENEBURG
10 LAERSKOOL MESSINA
11 LANGANANI
12 LIPHAKHA
13 MAKUSHU
14 MANGWELE
15 MANYII
16 MAPANI
17 MAROI
18 MATAKWE
19 MITUMBA
20 MULUMBI
21 MUSEKWA
22 OVERVLAKTE
23 RAMANA
24 RIXILE
25 SANE
26 SIKHIVHILU
27 SKUTWATER
28 ST. MARTIN DE PORREZ
29 TAKALANI
30 TAVHANYEDZANI
31 TSHAKANDE
32 TSHISHIRU
33 MUFONGODI

COMBINED PUBLIC

1 DOREEN BRIDGE
2 MOPANE
3 MPHATHAKHA
4 SCHUITDRIFT

INDEPENDENT COMBINED

1 NEHAMIA CHRISTIAN

PRE-SCHOOL

1 KABOUTERLAND

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	COMBINED PUBLIC	INDEPENDENT COMBINED
33		
PUBLIC PRE- SCHOOL	4	1
1		

REGION :3
AREA : SOUTPANSBERG
CIRCUIT : SOUTPANSBERG WEST

CATEGORY : PRIMARIES

1 BOERLANDS
2 FUNYUFUNYU
3 GOGOBOLE
4 KHOGONYANE
5 KLIPPUT
6 MADABANI
7 MADAHENI
8 MADODONGA
9 MAEBANI
10 MAGOVHANI
11 MAGULUVHE
12 MANAVHELA
13 MARA - BUYS
14 MARUA
15 MASETE
16 MATITIVHALA
17 MMBABADA
18 MMBEREGENI
19 MUDULWI
20 MUENGEDZI
21 MUGORORWANE
22 MUKHUDWANA
23 MUNAU
24 MURALENI
25 MUUNGADI
26 PHARANI
27 RAMAHANTSHA
28 TSHIOZWI
29 VHULORWA

COMBINED PUBLIC

1 MARA

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	COMBINEND PUBLIC
29	1

REGION: 3
AREA :SOUTPANSBERG
CIRCUIT:NZHELELE EAST

PRIMARIES

1 ADZIMBAMBI
2 DZANANI
3 DZUMBULUWANI
4 FONDWE
5 GODABI
6 GILBERT MULANDO
7 KHALAVHA
8 MADALA
9 MANAME
10 MANDALA
11 MANDIWANI
12 MILABONI
13 MPHALA
14 MUDUNUNGU
15 MUILADI
16 MUTHUWAFHETHU
17 NZHELELE
18 PFUMBADA
19 SHAVHANI
20 SENDEDZA
21 SHURA
22 SILOAM
23 THONONDA
24 TSHABVUMA
25 TSHAROTHA
26 TSHIAVHA
27 TSHIENDEULU
28 TSHIHENI
29 TSHIKOMBANI
30 TSHIKOVHANI
31 TSHIPANGE
32 TSHIRENZHENI
33 TSHITHUTHUNI
34 TDHIVHILIDULU
35 VHUTUWANGADZEBU

INDEPENDENT PRE-SCHOOL

1 FUNZANI
2 MPFARISENI

SUMMARY

PRIMARY	**INDEPENDENT PRE-SCHOOL**
35	2

REGION :3
AREA :THOHOYANDOU
CIRCIUT : LUVUVHU

CATEGORY : PRIMARIES

1	DZIVHANI
2	FRANK MUDALO
3	JIM TSHIVHONELO
4	LUFULE
5	LUKWARANI
6	MAHWASANE
7	MAKANYU
8	MAMATHIELEDZA
9	MANGODI
10	MANIINI
11	MASHAWANI
12	MULEDANE
13	MURAGA
14	MUVHI-TSHIKOVHA
15	NTSHUMBEDZENI
16	MVUDI
17	TAMBAULATE
18	TSHIKHUDINI
19	TSHILIVHO
20	TSHINETISE
21	TSHIULUNGOMA
22	TSWINGA

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	PRIMARY INDEPENDENT
22	1

INDIPENDENT COMBINED
1

REGION :3
AREA : THOHOYANDOU
CIRCUIT:MUTSHUNDUDI

CATEGORY : PRIMARIES

1 DAMANI
2 GALANANDZHELE
3 GEORGENHOLTZ
4 GILBERT NNDANGANENI
5 JIM MASINDI
6 KHUBVI
7 LONDOLANI
8 MAKONDE
9 MASIKWA
10 MBULU
11 MPHATHELE
12 MUTAVHE
13 NYAHANELANI
14 RAMUSHASHA
15 TAKALANI
16 TSHIKAMBE
17 TSHIFHATANI
18 TSHIPAKO
19 TSHISELUSELU
20 TSHIVHILWI
21 VONDWE

PRE-SCHOOLS: PUBLIC

1 ALUWANI
2 MULAMILELI
3 TSHIKONDWE

PRE-SCHOOL: INDEPENDENT

1 TENDER CARE

SUMMARY OF AREA

PRIMARY	PRE-SCHOOLS
21	3

INDEPENDENT PRE- SCHOOL
1

REGION: 3
AREA: THOHOYANDOU
CIRCUIT : MVUDI

CATEGORY: PRIMARY

1 BEUSTER
2 LUKHAIMA
3 LUKUNDE
4 MAFENYA
5 MALAMANGWA
6 MATSIKA
7 MAUNGANI
8 MBAHE
9 MULAMULI
10 NWELI
11 THIFHURIWI
12 TSHAMAVHUDZI
13 TSHILUVHI
14 TSHISHONGA

INDIPENDENT COMBINE

1 ALMIGHTY LEARNING CENTRE
2 HILMARY
3 LIIVHA
4 TSHIKEVHA.

SPECIAL SCHOOL

1 FULUFELO

INDIPENDENT PRIMARY SCHOOL

1 NAZARENE

COMPREHESIVE

1 TSHEDZA PRIMARY SCHOOL

PRE- SCHOOL

1 MALAVUWE
2 MVELEDZANDIVHO

SUMMARY

PRIMARY SCHOOLS	COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS	SPECIAL SCHOOLS
14	1	1
INDEPENDENT COMBINED	INDEPENDENT PRIMARY	PRE-SCHOOLS
4	1	1

REGION :3
AREA : THOHOYANDOU
CIRCUIT : TSHINANE

CATEGORY : PRIMARY

1 DAMBAVHUSHA
2 GONDENI
3 KHAILALE
4 MABILU
5 MAKHUVHA
6 MATONDONI
7 MBULAHENI
8 MIKOSI
9 MPHIGALALE
10 MUKUMBANI
11 MUTSHALINGANA
12 MURANGONI
13 NDIKANDAFHI
14 NGUDA
15 PFANO
16 PRINCE RAMANEMISA
17 TSHADZUME
18 TSHANOWA
19 TSHILAPFENE
20 TSHIMEDZWA
21 TSHITEREKE
22 TSHIVHUNGULULU
23 SEDZULUSANI
24 VHUFULI

INDIPENDENT PRIMARIE

1 GOLDVILLE

PRE-SCHOOLS

1 FHATALUSHAKA
2 NNDUVHENI
3 RATSHALINGWA

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES	INDEPENDENT PRIMARY
24	1

PRE-SCHOOL
3

REGION :3
AREA :VUWANI
CIRCUIT : VHURONGA 2

CATEGORY : PRIMARY

1 AVHATONDWI
2 DE. HOOP
3 F. MUKHESWAKULE
4 KURULENI
5 LUPENZE
6 MARIADZE
7 MASHAA
8 MASHAU
9 MASIA
10 MATHOTHWE
11 MATSILA
12 MATSINDEVHE
13 MAVHINA
14 MAPHAGANE
15 MUNWAI
16 PHINIMINI
17 SHANDUKANI
18 T. NTSHAVHENI
19 TSHIRUNZANANI
20 TSIVHADE
21 VHANGANI

PRE -SCHOOLS

1 FULULEDZANI
2 GUNDO
3 KHATHUTSHELO
4 THAVHAYAMIPFA

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARY	PRE-SCHOOLS
21	4

REGION : 3
AREA : VUWANI
CIRCUIT : DZONDO

CATEGORY :PRIMARY

1 DZONDO
2 GANYANE
3 HAMUTSHA
4 LUVHALANI
5 LEVUBU LAERSKOOL
6 MAFHARALALA
7 MAFHUMULELE
8 MANGOMANI
9 MAPHUPHE
10 MASAMBELWE
11 MATAVHA
12 MATHULE
13 MATSHELE
14 MUGIVHI
15 MMBOSWOBENI
16 MULANGAPHUMA
17 MUTANGWA MANUGU
18 MUTSHIPISI
19 MASUVHELELE
20 MUHUVHOYA
21 MUUNGAMUNWE
22 NNDWAMMBI
23 RALUTHAGA
24 TSHAKHUMA
25 TSHIFHANDE
26 TSHIFHUMULO
27 TSHIFULANANI
28 TSHIKURUKURU
29 TSHIMBILUNI
30 TSHITUNGULU

SUMMARY OF CIRCUIT

PRIMARIES
30

REGION 4: NORTH EAST REGION

4.1 GIYANI AREA

4.1.1 SHAMAVUNGA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Baleni	05	Box 96 Giyani 0826	Shawela village
2. Bvuma	15	Box 1005 Giyani 0826	Loloka village
3. Dingamazi	24	Box 65 Giyani 0826	Dingamanzi
4. Hlayisanani	62	Box 22 Giyani 0826	Shimange
5. Hleketani	63	P/Bag X 9605 Giyani 0826	Nsavulani village
6. Kheyi	83	Box 2799 Giyani 0826	Kheyi village
7. Khungulu	89	Box 150 Giyani 0826	N'wamankena
8. Khwezu	605	Box 3697 Giyani 0826	Shawela village
9. Leleni	95	Box 592 Giyani 0826	Shikhumba
10. Mhlanganisweni	184	Box 558 Giyani 0826	Shikhunyani
11. M.K. Khambani	579	Box 3603 Giyani 0826	Ngove village
12. Munghonghoma	189	Box 618 Giyani 0826	Munghonghoma
13. Mushiyani	191	Box 90 Giyani 0826	Mushiyani village

14 Muswanama	192	Box 623 Giyani 0826	Maphata village
15. Nghilazi	205	Box 2676 Giyani 0826	Guwela village
16 Nkomo	218	Box 2374 Giyani 0826	Nkomo village
17. Rirhandzu	253	Box 218 Giyani 0826	Nkomo village
18. Vahlave	314	Box 586 Giyani 0826	Ngove village
19. Vuyani	320	Box 1459 Giyani 0826	Mbhedle settlement

4.1.2 KLEIN LETABA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Xihlamariso	638	Box 3997 Giyani 0826	Makosha
2. Benson Shiviti	596	Box 3808 Giyani 0826	Thomo
3. Hatshama	53	Box 187 Giyani 0826	Makosha
4. Hipambukile	54	Box 152 Giyani 0826	Homu 14B
5. Khakhala	78	Box 137 Giyani 0826	Khakhala
6. Madzivi	542	Box 3508 Giyani 0826	Homu 14B
7. Magome	111	Box 548 Giyani 0826	Ndindani
8. Muninginisi	190	Box 600 Giyani 0826	Muninginisi
9. Muyeshe	195	Box 548 Giyani 0826	Muyexe
10. Nghatsane	203	Box 128 Giyani 0826	Mhlava-vhelemu
11. Pfunani	236	Box 556 Giyani 0826	Muninginisi Block 2
12. Solani	281	Box 555 Giyani 0826	Gawula
13. Thomo	288	Box 533 Giyani 0826	Thomo
14. Tshovani	309	Box 597 Giyani 0826	Hlomela
15. Tanani	289	Box 243 Giyani 0826	Homu 14B
16. Rhida	249	Box 546 Giyani 0826	Mapayeni
17. Vuhehli	317	Box 536 Giyani 0826	Vuhehli
18. Vusizi	319	Box 955 Giyani 0826	Mahlathi

4.1.3 MAN'OMBE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Ndzumulo	369	Box 918 Giyani 0826	Giyani section A
2. Ntsako	416	Box 1878 Giyani 0826	Giyani section B
3. Anderson	002	P/Bag X 9951 N'wamanungu 0932	Ndengeza village
4. Babangu	003	Box 1213 Giyani 0826	Babangu village
5. Hlakheto	056	Box 602 Giyani 0826	Basani village
6. Hlaneki	059	Box 3612 Giyani 0826	Hlaneki village
7. Honoka	068	Box 646 Giyani 0826	Rivala village
8. Kayanene	077	Box 1723 Giyani 0826	Gon'on' village
9. Khomisani	087	Box 278 Giyani 0826	Dzingidzingi village
10. Kremetart		Box 03 Giyani 0826	Kremetart
11. Kutsakeni	092	Box 1794 Giyani 0826	Gandlanani village
12. Langutelani	094	P/Bag X 9632 Giyani 0826	Ndengeza C.
13. Maswanganyi	026	Box 648 Giyani 0826	Maswanganyi village
14. Mbhureni	162	Box 995 Giyani 0826	Maxavela village
15. Meehleketo	365	Box 9655 Giyani 0826	Giyani section A
16. Ndzalama	350	Box 2357 Giyani 0826	Giyani section D
17. Nhlalala	523	Box 2404 Giyani 0826	Giyani extension A

18. Nqceche	389	P/Bag X 9660 Giyani 0826	Phikela village
19. Sukani	358	Box 09 Giyani 0826	Giyani section A
20. Thanda-bantu	639	P/Bag X 2172 Giyani 0826	Homu 14C
21. Vurhonga	485	Box 2654 Giyani 0826	Giyani section E

4.1.4 NSAMI CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Fuyatha	547	Box 2706 Giyani 0826	Siyandhani
2. Hanyanyani	51	Box 21 Giyani 0826	Xivulani
3. Nghalalume	202	P/Bag X 534 Giyani 0826	Jim Nghalalume
4. Nkuri	220	P/Bag X 1170 Giyani 0826	Nkuri
5. Pfuxetani	237	Box 124 Giyani 0826	Mavalani
6. Risenga	508	Box 2281 Giyani 0826	Siyandhani
7. Samson Shiviti	534	Box 3555 Giyani 0826	mavalani
8. Siyandhani	281	Box 162 Giyani 0826	Siyandhani
9. Tirhani	294	P/Bag X 8613 Nkuri	Nkuri
10. Tlharihani	302	Box 580 Nkuri	Nkuri
11. Mashengani	622	Box 1500 Giyani 0826	Xikukwana
12. Mafanele		Box 5576 Giyani 0826	Mbatlo
13. Tshembani	307	Box 30 Giyani 0826	N'wadzekudzeku
14. Khanyisa	479	Box 2422 Giyani 0826	Giyani
15. Xikukwana	334	P/Bag X 8610 Giyani 0826	Xikukwana
16. Zamani	326	P/Bag X 290 Nkuri	Nkuri
17. Mixo	636	Box 2125 Giyani 0826	Giyani
18. Swisumbe			Nkuri

4.2 PHALABORWA AREA

4.2.1 LULEKANI CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Drakensig	424,174	Box 698 Hoedspruit 1380	Hoedspruit
2. Mariepskop	400,430	P/Bag X 401 Hoedspruit 1380	Hoedspruit
3. Modume	23/833	P/Bag X 11006 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
4. Stanbury	A23/2641	P/Bag X 11017 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
5. Rethusitswe	23/2485	Box 7216 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
6. Bollanoto	23/53	P/Bag X 11034 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
7. Makhushane	23/526	Box 782 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
8. Phalaborwa Suid	409,878	P/Bag X 01012 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
9. Phalaborwa Noord	419,968	P/Bag X 1026 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
10. Schiettocht	A25957	Box 1719 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
11. Chuchekani	554	Box 798 Lulekani	Lulekani
12. Nwasorini	430	P/Bag X 012006 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani
13. Lulekani	99	P/Bag X 12002 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani
14. Phulani Byi Hola	457	P/Bag X 012018 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani
15. Pondo	456	Box 103 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani

16. Shiphamele	354	P/Bag X 12007 Lulekani	Lulekani
17. Xitlhangu	550	Box 719 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani
18. Fauna Park	415,826	P/Bag X 01002 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
19. Nwarisenga	455	Box 569 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani
20. Mashavele	722	P/Bag X 12022 Lulekani 1392	Lulekani

4.2.2 NAMAKGALE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Gravelotte	23/2247	Box 7135 Phalaborwa 1391	Namakgale
2. Leseding (JCI)	5,898	P/Bag X 401 Gravelotte 0895	Gravelotte
3. Rethabile	23/115	P/Bag X 11012 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
4. Mabine	23/411	P/Bag X 11005 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
5. Mashishimale	23/720	P/Bag X 11002 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
6. Refiloe	23/1660	P/Bag X 11029 Namakgale 13491	Namakgale
7. Zamani	23/1409	P/Bag X 11013 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
8. Kgopsane	23/266	Box 739 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
9. Gaza	23/2730	Box 7138 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
10. Mhalamhala	23/2731	Box 135 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
11. Namakgale	23/992	Box 584 Phalaborwa 1390	Phalaborwa
12. Phalaborwa	23/1056	Box 7257 Namakgale 1391	Namakgale
13. Maseke	23/701	Box 101 Namakgale 1391	namakgale

4.2.3 GROOT LETABA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Ukuthula	313	Box 70 Giyani 0826	Mageva
2. Charlie Rhangani	593	Box 3703 Giyani 0826	Mageva
3. Ndzhovela	201	Box 651 Giyani 0826	Daniel Rababalela
4. Mizuzwani	592	Box 3864 Giyani 0826	Ndhambi
5. Dzumeri	30	Box 629 Giyani 0826	Ndhambi
6. Mayephu	157	Box 631 Giyani 0826	Mayephu
7. Matsotsosela	149	Box 640 Giyani 0826	Matsotsosela
8. Xitlakati	331	Box 1549 Giyani 0826	Xitlakati
9. Mhitlwa	168	Box 608 Giyani 0826	Khashani
10. Katekani	76	Box 657 Giyani 0826	N'wamarhanga
11. Govani	43	Box 593 Giyani 0826	Mphagani
12. Mabunda	101	Box 4472 Giyani 0826	Phalaubeni
13. Nyiko	231	P/Bag X 594 Giyani 0826	Mbaula
14. Prieska	672	Box 1149 Lulekani 1392	Prieska
15. Selwana	23/1228	P/Bag X 11022 Namakgale 1391	Selwana
16. Ehleketani	671	Box 1148 Lulekani 1392	Nondweni
17. Madjadji	23/2815	Box 972 Selwana 1394	Selwana

18. Vatswatsi	525	Box 64 Lulekani 1392	Mahale
19. Albert Mabe	567	Box 40 Phangweni 0816	Makhuva
20. Makhuva	A124	Box 50 Phangweni 0816	Makhuva
21. Mzilela	197	Box 642 Giyani 0826	Mzilela
22. Phadi	238	Box 3467 Giyani 0826	Bambeni

REGION 5: EASTERN REGION

5.1 BOLOBEDU AREA

5.1.1 BOLOBEDU CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Bolobedu	0501311629	Box 6004 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
2. Femane	1501311633	Box 4742 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
3. Khumelong	1501311639	Box 4309 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
4. Khutsong	1501311640	P/Bag X 930 Molototsi	Molototsi
5. Leakhale	1501311642	P/Bag X 229 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
6. Matshwi	0501311666	Box 4156 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
7. Mohokone	0501311674	Box 1364 Ga-Kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
8. Mothobekhi	0501311684	Box 4714 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
9. Ramaroka	0501311698	P/Bag X 733 Molototsi	Molototsi
10. Sekgothi	0501311707	Box 1619 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
11. Senakwe	0501311708	Box 1317 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
12. senopelwa	0501311709	Box 4031 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
13. Seripe	0201122943	Box 62 duiwelskloof 0835	Duiwelskloof
14. Setloumane	0501311712	Box 4301 Ga-kgapane	Ga-kgapane

5.1.2 KGAPANE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Shotong	0501311714	Box 4654 Ga-kgapane0838	Ga-kgapane
2. W.M. Kgatla		Box 4084 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
3. ZZ2	0501502496	Box 631 Mooketsi 0825	Mooketsi

5.1.3 MAWA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Mabjepilong	1501311649	Box 6031 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
2. Makgope	1501311651	P/Bag X 767 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
3. Miragoma	0501311671	P/Bag X 579 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
4. Masekwane	0501311663	Box 3505 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
5. Mauloko		Box 3204 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
6. Mawa	0501311668	Box 4308 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
7. Mohale	0010140218	Box 4456 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
8. Mokgwathi	0501311676	Box 4790 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
9. Molokwane	0501311680	P/Bag X 1461 Shihoko 0872	Shihoko
10. Morapalala	0501311681	Box 6045 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
11. Ooghoek	0501311693	Box 80 Shihoko 0872	Shihoko
12. Pjapjamela	0501311697	Box 6064 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
13. Tumedi	0501311722	Box 6018 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
14. Vallambrosa	0501311723	P/Bag X 739 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane

5.1.4 MOLOTOTSI CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Boreletsana	0501311630	Box 4159 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
2. Kgobokanane	1501311635	P/Bag X 926 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
3. Lekwareng	1501311644	Box 4136 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
4. Lerale	1501311646	Box 5045 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
5. Mahekgwe	1501311650	Box 4804 Ga-Kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
6. Maloba	0501311655	Box 5088 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
7. Mamanyoha	0501311656	Box 4464 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
8. Masefora	0501311662	Box 4162 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
9. Metsi-a-phepha	0501311670	Box 4135 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
10. Mpepule	0501311687	P/Bag X705 Giyani 0826	Giyani
11. Northamptom	0501311692	Box 5021 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
12. Ratseke	0501311702	Box 4309 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
13. Shamiriri	0501311713	Box 4135 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
14. Taulome	0501311715	Box 4309 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
15. Thabisong	0501311716	P/Bag X923 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
16. Tlhotlhokwe	0501311720	Box 4664 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
17. Tsogang	0501311721	Box 4159 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane

5.1.5 MOTUPA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Botludi	0501311631	P/Bag X 114 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
2. Kheopeni	1501311637	P/Bag X 1113 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
3. Khethapoye	1501311638	Box 1024 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
4. Mabje a kgoro	1501311648	Box 4055 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
5. Malemela	0501311654	Box 3953 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
6. Mapitula	0501311660	Box 1786 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
7. Mapula	1501311661	P/Bag X 4051 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
8. Matjatji		Box 1618 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
9. Mokutupi	0501311677	Box 968 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
10. Moleketla	0501311679	Box Deerpark 0852	Deerpark
11. Morutsi	0501311682	Box 6067 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
12. Mothomeng	0501311685	Box 6066 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
13. Motupakgomo	0501311686	P/Bag X 4011 Ga-kgapane	Ga-kgapane
14. Pholoahlaba	0501311695	Box 2687 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
15. Sara	0501311703	Box 3658 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
16. Sefolwe	0501311705	P/Bag X 1104 Modjadji 0837	Modjadji
17. Thapane	0501311717	P/Bag X 4044 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
18. Tlhapedi	0501311719	Box 2741 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen

5.2 HLANGANANI AREA

5.2.1 HLANGANANI CENTRAL CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Bungeni	0501432237	Box 45 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
2. Caledon	0501442268	Box 462 Vongani 0930	Vongani
3. Giya	1501442270	Box 341 Giyani 0826	Giyani
4. Joe Mabedle	1501442273	P/Bag x 462 Vongani 0930	Vongani
5. Khapakhapa	1501442275	P/Bag X 6700 Khomanani 0933	Khomanani
6. Madobi	1501442277	P/Bag X 636 Khomanani 0933	Khomanani
7. Magezi Majozi	1501442278	Box 430 Khomanani 0933	Khomanani
8. Majosi	1501442281	P/Bag X 636 Khomanani 0933	Khomanani
9. Masungi	0501432247	P/Bag X 325 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
10. Mhluri		P/Bag X 303 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
11. Mukhono	0501432250	Box 1024 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
12. Mutsetweni		P/Bag X 1267 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
13. Ndlhaveya	0501432252	Box 346 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
14. Njakanjaka	0501432253	Box 388 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
15. Njhinga	0501432254	P/Bag X 324 Elim Hospital	Elim

16. Nkuzana	0501432284	Box 621 Giyani 0826	Giyani
17. Ntshuxi	0501442285	Box 486 Vongani 0930	Vongani
18. N'wamhandzi		P/Bag X 338 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
19. Pembunuka	0501442287	P/Bag X 6613 Khomanani 0933	Khomanani
20. Wayeni	0501432263	P/Bag X 302 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
21. Xitachi	0501432266	Box 45 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim

5.2.2 HLANGANANI NORTH CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Chavani	0501432238	Box 309 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
2. Maphanyi	1501432245	P/Bag X 328 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
3. Masekani	0501432246	Box 1264 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
4. Mashamba	0301291512	Box 200 Louis Trichardt 0920	Louis Trichardt
5. Mbokota	0501432249	Box 303 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
6. Mufeba	0301291521	Box 17 Mashamba 0942	Mashamba
7. Mulindathavha	0301291526	Box 24 Mashamba 0942	Mashamba
8. N'waxinyamani	0501432256	Box 48 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
9. Nyeleti	0501432257	Box 327 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
10. Riverplaats	0501432258	Box 306 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
11. Sithumani	0501432261	Box 329 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
12. Sekhosana		Box 1107 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim
13. Tshitangule	0301291553	Box 11 Mashamba 0942	Mashamba
14. Tshivhangani	0301291554	Box 926 Louis Trichardt 0920	Louis Trichardt
15. Xilumana	0501432265	P/Bag X 328 Elim Hospital 0960	Elim

5.2.3 HLANGANANI SOUT CIRCUIT

1. Berea	0501442267	P/Bag X 1990 Vuyani 0931	Vuyani
2. Dumani	1501442269	P/Bag X 1514 Vuyani 0931	Vuyani
3. Goza	1501442271	Box 59 Vongani 0930	Vongani
4. Haaka	1501442272	P/Bag X 4001 N'wamanungu 0932	N'wamanungu
5. Khamanyana	1501442274	P/Bag X 5010 Vongani 0930	Vongani
6. Kulani	1501442276	Box 205 Vongani 0930	Vongani
7. Mahatlane	1501432243	Box 393 Vongani 0930	Vongani
8. Mahochomba	1501442279	P/Bag X 1664 Vuyani 0931	Vuyani
9. Mahuntsi	1501442280	P/Bag X1663 Vuyani 0931	Vuyani
10. Masakona	0301291511	Box 11 Masakona 0941	Masakona
11. Mawela	0301291515	Box 49 Mashamba 0942	Mashamba
12. Muhunguti	0501442282	P/Bag X 5003 Vongani 0930	Vongani
13. Muvimbi	0301291535	Box 205 Masakona 0941	Masakona
14. Nkanyani	0501442283	Box 88 Vongani 0930	Vongani
15. Pfumelani	050144228	P/Bag X 5002 Vongani 0930	Vongani
16. Rasikhuthuma	0301291542	C/O Bag X 5006 Vongani 0930	Vongani
17. Rembuluwani	0501403696	C/O Bag X 5006 Vongani 0930	Vongani
18. Rivoningo	0501442289	P/Bag X 5004 Vongani 0930	Vongani

19. Vulani	0501442290	Box 628 Vongani 0930	Vongani
20. Vungela	0501552291	Box 95 Vongani 0930	Vongani
21 Ximuwini	0501442292	P/Bag X 1625 Vuyani 0931	Vuyani

5.2.4 MAMAILA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Dulang	1501311632	Box 5017 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
2. Jamela		C/O Bag 5006 Vongani 0930	Vongani
3. Kubune	1501311641	Box 5033 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
4. Lebaka	1501311643	Box 5092 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
5. M.R. Mamaila		Box 5030 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
6. Mamokgadi	1501311658	Box 5035 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
7. Maufota	0501311667	Box 5039 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
8. Nakampe	0501311689	P/Bag X 904 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
9. Nokane	0501311691	Box 4066 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
10. Phakeng	0501311694	Box 5169 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
11. Pipa	0501311696	Box 4503 Ga-kgapane 0838	Ga-kgapane
12. Ramatimana	0501311699	Box 509 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
13. Ramollo	050131 1700	P/Bag X 5102 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi
14. Sehonwe	0501311706	Box 5011 Molototsi 0827	Molototsi

5.3 THABINA AREA

5.3.1 KHUJWANA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Graighead	1501502463	Box 334 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
2. Khujwana	1501472321	P/Bag X 1433 Letaba 0870	Letaba
3. Lephaphane	1501401978	Box 131 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
4. Leseka	1501401979	Box 131 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
5. Magreth Shiluvana		Box 1923 Letaba 0870	Letaba
6. Maje	1501401988	Box 276 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
7. Mathunyani		P/Bag X 1433 letaba 0870	Letaba
8. Mogabe	0501402011	Box 630 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
9. Mohlaba	0501482348	P/Bag X 1406 Letaba 0870	Letaba
10. Murlebrook		Box 712 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
11. Nkankasana	05014723340	P/Bag X 1423 Letaba 0870	Letaba
12. Nugart	0010140222	Box 544 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
13. Ponani	0501472338	Box 593 Letaba 0870	Letaba
14. Shikhati	0501472341	Box 947 Letaba 0870	Letaba
15. Thabeng	0501402040	Box 319 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
16. Tighitsi	0501462734	P/Bag X 1423 Letaba 0870	Letaba

5.3.2 LEPELLE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Butshwana	0501401965	P/Bag X 417 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
2. Diphuti	0501401966	P/Bag X414 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
3. Kgopong	1501401970	Box 94 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
4. Kobjaname	1501401972	P/Bag X 412 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
5. Lepelle	1501401977	Box 251 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
6. Maatla	1501401983	Box 361 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
7. Magaingwana	1501401986	Box 12 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
8. Mahupje	1501401987	Box 181 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
9. Makgaung	1501401989	Box 197 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
10. Mametja	0501401993	Box 245 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
11. Mamokaile		Box 543 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
12. Mampshe	1501401994	Box 166 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
13. Matsikinyane	0501402002	P/Bag X 418 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
14. Molalan	0501402016	P/Bag X 136 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
15. Sekoko	0501402032	Box 270 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
16. Sekolo	0501402033	Box 234 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo

5.3.3 MAKHUTSWE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Ballon Mantlana	0501401963	Box 73 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
2. Lefoke	1501401973	Box 465 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
3. Lekane	1501401974	Box 161 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
4. Lorraine Banareng	1501401980	Box 65 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
5. Maangwako		Box 161 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
6. Malebalong	0501401991	Box 6 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
7. Mamahlola	0501401992	P/Bag X 403 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
8. Matshangwene	0501402001	Box 49 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
9. Metz	0501402003	P/Bag X 407 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
10. Mmakau	0501402005	Box 258 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
11. Molalatladi	0501402017	Box 258 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
12. Motlolatsoko	0501402020	Box 49 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
13. Rankagele	0501402026	Box 494 Moetladimo 0891	Moetladimo
14. Sekororo	0501402034	Box 125 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
15. Thubisane	0501402042	Box 406 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
16. Timamogolo	0501402043	Box 40 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal
17. Tjalatjala	0501402753	Box 603 Trichardsdal 0890	Trichardsdal

5.3.4 SHILUVANE CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Allegraine	0501502461	Box 14 Ofcolaco 0854	Ofcolaco
2. Bordeax	0501472315	P/Bag X 405 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
3. Dindini	0501502466	C/O Bag X 414 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
4. Hoveni	1501472320	Box 180 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
5. Maake	1501401981	Box 64 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
6. Maale	1501401982	Box 30 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
7. Mogapene	1501402012	Box 15 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
8. Mmakgotlo	0201120438	Box 59 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
9. Maponya		Box 680 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
10. Maroboni	0501401995	Box 76 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
11. Mashiloane	0501401999	Box 19 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
12. Mmalahla	0501402007	Box 358 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
13. Mogapene	0501402012	Box 15 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
14. Molati	0501402018	Box 314 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
15. Ntwanano	0501472336	Box 04 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
16. Phepeni	0501402023	Box 4180 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
17. Rhulani	0501472339	Box 23 Julesburg 0875	Julesburg

18. Semana	0501492036	Box 301 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
19. Sepeke	0501402037	Box 55 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
20. Serare	0501402038	Box 55 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
21. Shiluvane	0501472342	C/O Bag X 411 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane

5.3.5 THABINA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Joseph Maenetja	1501401968	Box 1314 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
2. Kgahara	1501401969	Box 2 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
3. Legolo Maake		Box 132 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
4. Lenyenye	1501401976	Box 100 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
5. Mogoboya Ramadike	1501402013	Box 1320 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
6. Mogoboya	1501402013	Box 253 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
7. Marumofase	0501401996	Box 535 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
8. Mmaphai	0501402008	P/Bag X 1403 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
9. Modupi	0501402010	Box 75 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
10. Mohlodumela	0501402014	Box 304 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
11. Moime	0501402015	Box 132 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
12. Montsheng	0501402019	Box 33 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
13. Ramalema	0501402025	Box 104 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
14. Rasemana	0501402027	Box 425 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
15. Thabina	0501402041	Box 58 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye

5.4 RITAVI AREA

5.4.1 NWANEDZI CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Akanani	0501462733	Box 1361 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
2. Dankbaar	0501502465	Box 01 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
3. Deeside	0010140204	Box 626 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
4. Favasi	1501462296	Box 293 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
5. Fofoza	1501462297	Box 253 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
6. Jassie	1501502470	Box 01 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
7. Lacotte	1501502471	P/Bag X 524 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
8. Leonora	1501502474	Box 142 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
9. Mahlebezulu	1501462298	Box 252 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
10. Malubana	0501462300	Box 1031 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
11. Manyunyu		Box 920 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
12. Mpenyisi		Box 943 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
13. Nhlengeleti	0501462305	Box 308 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
14. Nkambako	0501462306	P/Bag X 331 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
15. N'wajaheni	0501462307	Box 681 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa

16. Pfukani	0501502485	Box 30 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
17. Riverside	0501502489	Box 77 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
18. Tsakani	0501462309	Box 262 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
19. Vhulakanjhani	0501462310	P/Bag X 507 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa

5.4.2 MAFARANA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. DR. Annecke	1501192229	C/O Bag X 1411 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
2. Gavaza	1401472318	P/Bag X 401 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
3. Jack Mashamba	1501482347	Box 453 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
4. Khopo		Box 1425 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
5. Mafarana	1501472322	P/Bag X 514 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
6. Mbangwa	0501472328	P/Bag X 564 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
7. Mbetana	0501472329	P/Bag X 582 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
8. Mhangweni	0501472330	Box 78 Shiluvane 0873	Shiluvane
9. Mlungisi	0501472331	P/Bag X 565 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
10. Mushoti		P/Bag X 576 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
11. Nyatshiri		Box 1319 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
12. Rita	0501402031	P/Bag X 1405 Lenyenye 0857	Lenyenye
13. The junction	0501502494	Box 01 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
14. Totwana	0501472345	P/Bag X 504 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
15. Xivodze	0501472346	P/Bag X 511 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele

5.4.3 NKOWANKOWA CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Banana	0501472313	P/Bag X 1436 Letaba 0870	Letaba
2. Bombeleni	0501472314	Box 1096 Letaba 0870	Letaba
3. Dan	0501472316	P/Bag X 1422 Letaba 0870	Letaba
4. Dududu	1501472317	Box 214 Letaba 0870	Letaba
5. Hosanamavele	1501472319	Box 1174 Letsitele 0885	Letsitele
6. Letaba Landgoed		Box 06 Letaba 0870	Letaba
7. Letaba special school		Box 24 Letaba 0870	Letaba
8. Malwandla	0501472323	P/Bag X 1419 Letaba 0870	Letaba
9. Marito	0501472325	P/Bag X 1418 Letaba 0870	Letaba
10. Mariveni	0501472326	Box 8 Letaba 0870	Letaba
11. Mavumba	0501472327	P/Bag X 1442 Letaba 0870	Letaba
12. Nkowankowa	0501472335	Box 92 Letaba 0870	Letaba
13. N'waxindzele	0501472337	P/Bag X 1425 Letaba 0870	Letaba

5.4.4 XIHOKO CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Makhanana	0501462299	Box 697 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
2. Mavele	0501462302	Box 351 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
3. Mavhabaza	0501462301	Box 307 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
4. Mpapalati	0501462303	P/Bag X 1443 Xihoko 0872	Xihoko
5. Muhlavasi		Box 186 Xihoko 0872	Xihoko
6. Ndzhungulwana	0501452295	Box 185 Xihoko 0872	Xihoko
7. N'wamungololo	0501311690	Box 2132 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
8. Ngwazana	0501462304	Box 707 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
9. Nyavana	0301211025	P.O. Xihoko 0872	Xihoko
10. Runnymede	0501462308	Box 321 N'wamitwa 0871	N'wamitwa
11. Xihoko	0501462311	P/Bag X 1460 Xihoko 0872	Xihoko
12. Xirhulurhulu	0501462312	P/Bag X 1407 Xihoko 0872	Xihoko

5.4.5 TZANEEN CIRCUIT

SCHOOL	REGISTRATION NUMBER	ADDRESS	LOCALITY
1. Crisnic	0501502464	Box 503 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
2. Enkel Elk	1501502467	Box 2184 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
3. Grysapple	1501502468	Box 786 Tzaneen 0950	Tzaneen
4. Inzana	1501502469	Box 2096 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
5. Ledzee	1501502472	Box 206 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
6. Lehlaba	1501502473	Box 2845 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
7. Lianas	0020150781	Box 695 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
8. Loretto	0501502476	Box 885 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
9. Mabapa	1501502477	Box 2083 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
10. Makgoba	1501502478	Box 243 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
11. Manorvlei		Box 1074 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
12. Mathoma	0501502480	Box 84 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
13. Politsi	0501502487	Box 51 Politsi 0851	Politsi
14. Radisaka	0501502488	Box 224 Duiwelskloof 0835	Duiwelskloof
15. Rooikoppies	0501502490	Box 1343 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
16. Scholtz	0501464112	Box 163 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
17. Sekolotome	0501502491	Box 182 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen

18. Silwersee	0501502492	Box 771 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen
19. Spes Bona	0501502493	Box 57 Duiwelskloof 0835	Duiwelskloof
20. Thelifa	0501502495	Box 993 Duiwelskloof 0835	Duiwelskloof
21. Tzaneen Laêrskool		Box 171 Tzaneen 0850	Tzaneen

6. REGION 6: SOUTHERN REGION

	AREAS	CIRCUITS
•	BOHLABELA	Drakensberg Bogwasha Tubatse Mabulane Burgersfort
•	MAGAKALA	Dilokong Driekop Leolo Moroke Malokela Central 3
•	APEL	Seotlong Mashung Mohlaletse Lepellane
•	NEBO	Ngwaritsi Eensaam Masemola Glen-cowie Phokoane Lobethal
•	SEKHUKHUNE	Ngwaabe Malegale Mmashadi Schoonoord Jane Furse Sekhukhune Mashapi

•	DENNILTON	Rakgwadi Hlogotlou Tsimanyane Motetema Manthole

6.1 BOHLABELA AREA

6.1.1 DRAKENSBERG CIRCUIT

6.1.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEKIBIDI
2. THOROMETSANE
3. TSWENYANE
4. LEBOENG
5. LEGABENG
6. LEGOLENG
7. BANARENG
8. LESOKA PRE PRIMARY
9. MAHLATSENGWANE
10. MOKITING
11. MOKGWAKGWADI
12. PHAKGAPHAKGA
13. MAHLAHLE
14. MAKGALANE
15. PITSANENG
16. MAREOLOGE

6.1.2 BOGWASHA CIRCUIT

6.1.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. TUBATSE LOWER AND HIGHER PRIMARY
2. ITSOSENG
3. KGOBALANE
4. KGOTLOPONG
5. LEKUBOSHAI
6. MASHAKWANENG
7. MORETHUSHE
8. MAROTA
9. NTLAISHENG
10. PHATUDI
11. MAFEMANE
12. MAHLASHI
13. MAKOTASENG
14. MALEKGOBO

6.1.3 TUBATSE CIRCUIT

6.1.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEKAKATE
2. KABISHI
3. MOHLARUTSE
4. SEKABATE
5. RIBA
6. RATOLE
7. TSWELOPELE
8. KOBOTI
9. TANTANYANE
10. MOGOLO
11. ITIRELLE
12. MOREWANE
13. MOKGABUDI
14. MPEU PRE PRIMARY
15. NTEPANE
16. MADINOGE
17. MAHLAGAUME
18. RAMAUBE

6.1.4 MABULANE CIRCUIT

6.1.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SEHLOI
2. THABANE
3. SEGORONG
4. AGNEP PRE PRIMARY
5. KGAKANTSHANE
6. KGOMATAU
7. MOISELE
8. MOKOBOLA
9. MOOKOTSI
10. MOTSHANA
11. NTIBANENG
12. PENGE
13. MAKWALE
14. MABOTSHA
15. MADIKOLOSHE
16. MAKHWESE
17. MAMOGOLO
18. MAMOLOBELA
19. MANKELE
20. MANTOPI
21. MAPITI

6.1.5 BURGERSFORT CIRCUIT

6.1.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

MAMPHARE PRE PRIMARY

1.2 MAGAKALA AREA

1.2.1 DILOKONG CIRCUIT

1.2.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. HLAPOGADI
2. DJATE
3. MANOTWANE
4. MABORAGANE
5. MAFISE
6. MAHUDU
7. MAMOGALAKE
8. MNYAMANE
9. MONAMETSE
10. MOTLAMOTSE
11. MOTSATSANA
12. MOTSEPE
13. PHOKO
14. RAMOKO
15. SEJADIPUDI
16. SELEPE
17. MONAMPANE
18. KEJWA

1.2.2 DRIEKOP CIRCUIT

1.2.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. ROOTSE
2. MALELENG
3. MASHISHI
4. MANYAKA
5. MOHLOPE
6. MPHOTO
7. SEBOPE
8. SELALA
9. THIBEDI
10. TUMISHI
11. MAFOLO
12. BACHABANG
13. GOWE
14. HLAHLANA
15. KHWITING
16. SEOKE

1.2.3 LEOLO CIRCUIT

1.2.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. TSWAKO
2. MOLEKWANE
3. MOHLAMORUOI
4. MOROKADIETA
5. MORULADILEPE
6. NTOSHANG
7. PHOGOLE
8. RATAU
9. SETLOPONG
10. MATHOLENI
11. SEFUFULE
12. MOLAKA
13. BONWANKWE
14. DIKETEPE
15. HLONG
16. LESIBE
17. MABOELETSE
18. MAFETE
19. MAGABANENG
20. MAROGA
21. MASEBUDI

6.2.4 MOROKE CIRCUIT

6.2.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SETLAMORAGO
2. TELEKI
3. THOKWANE
4. TSWERENG
5. LEDINGWE
6. BOGALATLADI
7. SEROLETSHIDI
8. DIPHALA
9. KGAGUDI
10. KWANO
11. MOROLENG
12. LEBELO
13. LAERSKOOL ATOKIA
14. MPETJE
15. MAKGALANOTO
16. MAKGOPA
17. MALEGASE
18. MANKU
19. MAPUDI
20. MATIANYANE
21. MOGALE
22. MOROKE
23. ROSTOCK

6.2.5 MALOKELA CIRCUIT

6.2.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. KWATA
2. LETOLWANE
3. MABU
4. MAHLO
5. MALEGODI
6. MASETE
7. MASENYELETJE
8. MATSIRI
9. MOHLALA
10. MOHLOPING
11. MPHOGO
12. SHAI
13. BAITHUTI MOHLAHLEDI

6.2.6 CENTRAL 3 CIRCUIT

6.2.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAEPA

1.3 APEL AREA

1.3.1 SEOTLONG

1.3.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOLOKE ENGLISH MEDIUM
2. MAPATO
3. MAFENE
4. MODIMOLLE NO 2
5. PHASHAMONARE
6. RANGWATO
7. INDIE
8. SELEBALO
9. KGOEDI
10. MAPHOTLE
11. NKOTSANE
12. NKWANA
13. PELANGWE

1.3.2 MASHUNG CIRCUIT

1.3.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MANKOPANE LOWER PRIMARY
2. MAKGABUTLE
3. RAMPHELANE MABOOE
4. MAKANTANE
5. MOENYANE
6. STRYDKRAAL
7. MAKGAKE
8. HANS
9. MAESELA
10. PHUKUBJANE
11. THOBEHLALE
12. TLAKALE
13. TSEKE

]6.3.3 MOHLALETSE CIRCUIT

6.3.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOROPE MATLALA
2. SEROKA
3. MOROAMOCHE
4. TSHWEELE
5. LEGANABATHO
6. LERAJANE
7. MAEBE
8. MOLETSE
9. MAMPURU THULARE
10. MANKOPODI
11. MAPHUTHE
12. MASEHLENG
13. MASHILABELE
14. MATLEU

6.3.4 LEPELLANE CIRCUIT

6.3.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MARAGANE
2. DITLHAKANENG
3. MMAGOSEBO
4. DITHOTHWANENG
5. MOHWADUBA SEN
6. MMOTONG
7. MODIPADI
8. MPHANAMA
9. PEBETSE
10. PHEPANE
11. RADIMELA
12. MAMOLOBE
13. MATHIBENG
14. MAPHALE
15. DINOTSI
16. MAILA NO 2

6.4 NEBO AREA

6.4.1 NGWARITSI CIRCUIT

6.4.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RHULANI
2. MOLATI
3. MOSOPSADI
4. MAPONYA
5. MOTLOKWE
6. MOTSEMOGOLO
7. NCHUBATHE
8. MAROTOBALE
9. MOGALETLWA
10. NGWANAMASHILE
11. MMAKADIKWE
12. SEKWATI
13. TEME
14. THOLONG
15. RANANONG
16. RRAILE
17. EENSGEVONDEN
18. GEORGE CLIFORD
19. HOPEFIELD
20. MARISHANE
21. KGARUTHUTHU
22. MANCHE
23. MAKGATSIKE
24. LETSIRI
25. BOHWELABATHO

6.4.2 EENSAAM CIRCUIT

6.4.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MORULANA
2. PATANTSHWANA
3. GAMMALEBESE
4. AREIKHULENG
5. KWENATSHWANE
6. MAKGOPENG
7. LEHLAKONG

6.4.3 MASEMOLA CIRCUIT

6.4.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. NGWANABEKANE
2. MATLEBJOANE
3. MOGAILE
4. MOKALAPA
5. TIITSANE
6. THABAMPSHE
7. NKGARI
8. SEKALE
9. EKELE
10. KGOOGO
11. KHUDU TSEKE
12. MAHLOLWANENG
13. MANNYETHA
14. LEWALEMOLOMO
15. MACHELANE
16. MABOOE

6.4.4 GLEN-COWIE CIRCUIT

6.4.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MANGOPE LOWER PRIMARY
2. MPELENG
3. MATOBULE
4. SEKWENA
5. TEME
6. SEBJANENG
7. THINGWA
8. TLAME
9. NGWANANKETE
10. SEDIKWE
11. PHOTO
12. KATISI
13. HLABJE
14. KATUDI
15. DIKWETSE
16. KOPANONG
17. MAPALAGADI
18. MANOTONG
19. MAPOGO
20. MMAKUBU

6.4.5 PHOKOANE CIRCUIT

6.4.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MAKOSHALA
2. MONTLAKANE
3. MAKGOSHI
4. MOLEIJANE
5. TSHWATLHAKGE
6. MARUTLE
7. MASHUANA
8. MATIME MANASOE
9. MOKGOMA
10. MMESHI
11. MOGATLADI
12. THOTANENG
13. TSHWAANE
14. NGWANASENANA
15. NTETELENG
16. PETLOANE
17. PHOKOANE
18. PHOTOTLOGOANA
19. GAREAGOPOLA
20. KGOPOLO E BOTSE
21. MASHILE
22. LEHLAKE
23. KOPJENG

6.4.6 LOBETHAL CIRCUIT

6.4.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOGOBELALA
2. MOKGOGO
3. NALA
4. MASHABELA
5. MOHLODI
6. MOHWELERE
7. PHASWANE
8. MAMORITHING
9. MAREI
10. LEDIITSE
11. LOBETHAL

6.5 SEKHUKHUNE AREA

6.5.1 NGWAABE CIRCUIT

6.5.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LEGAPANA
2. PAPONG
3. NGWANANGWATO
4. NGWANATHEKO
5. NGWANATHULARE
6. NKOKOANE
7. NTAKE
8. MALEKANA
9. MAMPURU
10. MANTE
11. MAREMELE
12. MASHA
13. MASAGO
14. KGOBOKO
15. MADIETE
16. DIKGAGENG
17. KGALADI

6.5.2 MALEGALE CIRCUIT

6.5.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. SERAGENG
2. PITSI
3. RAMPHELANE
4. SEBOENG
5. MOGOMARELE
6. MALEGALE
7. MALOKE
8. MAMPURU 1
9. MEFOLO
10. MATHABENG
11. MODIKETSE
12. HONOKO
13. THULARE
14. TSATANE
15. PAAPA
16. MASELESELENG
17. KGETEDI
18. MABHEDLA
19. MAKOBOTE

6.5.3 MMASHADI

6.5.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOOKWANE
2. MORETSELE
3. MORIPANE
4. JANE FURSE
5. ARETHABENG
6. FREDDY MOKGABUDI
7. ST. MARK'S
8. KALAFONG
9. BAFEDI
10. BAROPODI
11. BONEGA MADIKUBUNG
12. MASHEGOANYANE
13. DIKGABJE

6.5.4 SCHOONOORD CIRCUIT

6.5.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. NOKOMEETSE
2. MOKALE
3. NTSHITSHIMALE
4. MOGASHOA
5. SCHOONOORD
6. SEMASHEGO
7. MALAKENG SEROTELE
8. MANCHAKGATHE
9. MAPHOOKO
10. MAROTA MAKGANE
11. MASERAL
12. MATIME
13. MANTIMO
14. MADIKANONO
15. MAKGANED
16. DIKANKATLA
17. DLAMINI

6.5.5 JANE FURSE CIRCUIT

6.5.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL/S

The list of primary schools was not provided when the research was conducted

6.5.6 SEKHUKHUNE CIRCUIT

6.5.6.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOL/S

1. TIBAMOSHITO

6.5.7 MASHAPI CIRCUIT

6.5.7.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The list of primary schools was not provided when the research was conducted

6.6 DENNILTON AREA

6.6.1 RAKGWADI CIRCUIT

6.6.1.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. RAKGOADI
2. MOKONEAMABULA
3. MABITSI
4. MAKHUTSO

6.6.2 HLOGOTOU CIRCUIT

6.6.2.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MASHIYANE
2. J MKHABELA
3. MOTLANKANE
4. KHUTHALANI
5. JAFTA LOWER PRIMARY
6. MBALENHLE
7. HLOGOTLOU
8. KAWUSIME
9. LUCKAU
10. MAKEKE
11. ZWANANI
12. MAMADI
13. PHAKGAMANG
14. MNINWAMAHLANGU
15. MOKGALABJE
16. MOTSEPHIRI
17. SINDILE
18. SOKALI
19. SOMAKATA
20. MOROBE
21. QHUBANI
22. ZAMA ZAMA

6.6.3 TSIMANYANE CIRCUIT

6.6.3.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. MOGALATSANA
2. MOGALATJANE MPHAHLELE
3. MATSEDI
4. SETHOKGWA MAKUA
5. NWATSHIPE AMAEPE
6. MATHUNG
7. NKOANA WILLY MADITSI
8. LEKGOLANE
9. LEKOMETSE
10. TSIMANYANE
11. GOSHETSENG
12. MOSHEGE
13. THOKE
14. LEGADIMANE
15. MAMASEGARE
16. MOSOGANENG

6.6.4 MOTETEMA CIRCUIT

6.6.4.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. VM MOHLALA
2. HLAKUDI
3. JACK MORARE
4. GADIFELE
5. MOTJEDI
6. NTSHOENG
7. BAKOPA
8. MONAMODE MATSEPE
9. DIKGALAOPENG
10. DIPAKAPAKENG
11. IKAGENG
12. JACOB SEFAKO
13. MAMORAKE
14. MAMPHOKGO
15. MONTSOSABOSEGO
16. ABRAHAM SEROTE
17. MOILANONG
18. MATSEPE
19. KENNETH MASEKELA
20. MMATHOLO
21. RAMMUPUDU
22. RITE

6.6.5 MANTHOLE CIRCUIT

6.6.5.1 LIST OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. LEKALA
2. IKHUTSENG
3. BONANG BONANI
4. BAFALADI
5. MOGANETSWA

REGION 7: BUSHBUCKRIDGE REGION

7.1 ACORNHOEK AREA

7.1.1 ARTHUSEAT CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Banabaswa	Arthustone	**P.O. Box 162 Acornhoek 1360**
•	Johanna Mpheto	Arthuseat	P/Bag X 435 Acornhoek 1360
•	Modike	Ga-Mreku	P/Bag X 440 Acornhoek 1360
•	Aplos Chiloane	Newline	P/Bag X 435 Acornhoek 1360
•	Chugu	Rooiboklagte	P.O. Box 22 Acornhoek 1360
•	Greenvalley	Greenvalley	P.O. Box 43 Acornhoek 1360
•	Makgomane	Cragieburn	P.O. Box 2677 Acornhoek 1360
•	Makwetse	Tsakane	P/Bag X 480 Acornhoek 1360
•	Maoloshe	Cragieburn	P.O. Box 2200 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mapateletsa	Ga-Joseph	P.O. Box 2041 Acornhoek 1360
•	Morei	Dingledale	P/Bag X 9302 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Motlamogatsane	Newline	P/Bag X 429 Acornhoek 1360
•	Nkulungwana	Xanthia	P.O. Box 1688 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Phatsedi	Mokololane	P/Bag X 476 Acornhoek 1360
•	Senoni	Arthuseat	P.O. Box 32 Acornhoek 1360
•	Tshokolo	Madile	P/Bag X 3025 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Zigode	M.P. Stream	P/Bag X 1328 Thulamahashe 1365

7.1.2 CASTEEL CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Maditsebe	Zoeknog	P/Bag X 9376 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Poti	Casteel	P/Bag X 481 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Tsakata Mpepula	Casteel	P/Bag X 9361 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Tshikedi	Casteel	P/Bag X 9314 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Casteel	Casteel	P.O. Box 55 Acornhoek 1360
•	Lebadishang	Zoeknog	P/Bag X 9394 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Lekanang	Wales	P/Bag X 9376 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Lekedi	Wales	P/Bag X 9310 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mahubahuba	Wales	P/Bag X 9334 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mamosebo	Wales	P/Bag X 1949 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mamosodi	Zoeknog	P/Bag X 481 Acornhoek 1360
•	Matloshe	Zoeknog	P/Bag X 406 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mokgawane	Zoeknog	P/Bag X 9398 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	M.O. Mashego	Casteel	P/Bag X 9378 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Motamogale	Wales	P/Bag X 436 Acornhoek 1360

7.1.3 COTTONDALE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Abuti	Buffelshoek	P/Bag X 1145 Acornhoek 1360
•	Lekuba	Buffelshoek	P/Bag X 1143 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mpho	Acornhoek	P.O. Box 2166 Acornhoek 1360
•	Nease	Buffelshoek	P.O. Box 933 Acornhoek 1360
•	Andover	Okkernootboom	P/Bag X 433 Acornhoek 1360
•	Eckson M. Chiloane	Buffelshoek	P/Bag X 479 Acornhoek 1360
•	Jameyana	Okkernootboom	P/Bag X 445 Acornhoek 1360
•	Khokhovela	Islington	P/Bag X 422 Acornhoek 1360
•	Letsamaile Chiloane	Buffelshoek	P/Bag X 477 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mabonwana	Cottondale	P/Bag X 1421 Hluvukani 1363
•	Makhahlise	Buffelshoek	P/Bag X 472 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mawuvana	Okkernootboom	P/Bag X 1329 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Morage	Buffelshoek	P.O. Box 141 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mphaku	Islington	P.O. Box 72 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mpisi	Okkernootboom	P/Bag X 445 Acornhoek 1360
•	Panyana	Buffelshoek	P.O. Box 140 Acornhoek 1360
•	Powerline	Acornhoek	P.O. Box 2553 Acornhoek 1360
•	Sebosegole	Dingleydale	P/Bag X 477 Acornhoek 1360
•	Sesete	Burlington	P/Bag X 430 Acornhoek 1360
•	Sihlekisi	Okkernootboom	P/Bag X 433 Acornhoek 1360

7.1.4 GREENVALLEY CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Andries Inama	Boelang	P/Bag X 448 Acornhoek 1360
•	Katlego	Rooibok	P.O. Box 2140 Acornhoek 1360
•	Lebogang	Brooklyn	P/Bag X 460 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mabjane	Greenvalley	P.O. Box 286 Acornhoek 1360
•	Madule	Brooklyn	P/Bag X 414 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mish Mohlahu	Dingleydale	P/Bag X 9346 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Moses Nyundu	Chavela gaza	P/Bag X 441 Acornhoek 1360
•	Pfukani	Timbavati	P/Bag X 426 Acornhoek 1360
•	Teedi	Greenvalley	P.O. Box 640 Acornhoek 1360
•	Bereta	Mahlatini	P/Bag X 409 Acornhoek 1360
•	Chayiwe	Acornhoek	P/Bag X 439 Acornhoek 1360
•	Funjwa	Acornhoek	P/Bag X 403 Acornhoek 1360
•	Kwasitiba	Kgapamadi	P/Bag X 456 Acornhoek 1360
•	Lumukisa	Chavela gaza	P/Bag X 444 Acornhoek 1360
•	Maotole	Brooklyn	P.O. Box 7 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mapalane	Boeklang	P/Bag X 448 Acornhoek 1360
•	Masenyane	Moloro	P/Bag X 460 Acornhoek 1360
•	Mugidi	Timbavati	P.O. Box 131 Acornhoek 1360
•	Ndabeni	Chavela gaza	P/Bag X 450 Acornhoek 1360
•	Paulos Ngobeni	Okkernootboom	P.O. Box 273 Acornhoek 1360
•	Sethlare	Health centre	P.O. Box 128 Acornhoek 1360
•	Timbavati	Timbavati	P/Bag X 1314 Acornhoek 1360

7.1.5 MANYELETI CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Khahlela	Islington	P.O. Box 57 Hluvukani 1363
•	Makomichana	Ludlow	P/Bag X 4432 Acornhoek 1360
•	Monasi	Welverdiend	P/Bag X 109 Hluvukani 1363
•	Hananani	Manyeleti	P/Bag X 1433 Hluvukani 1363
•	Hlalakahle	Gottinburg	P/Bag X 1408 Hluvukani 1363
•	Ludlow	Ludlow	P/Bag X 1311 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mahlathi	Islington	P/Bag X 1434 Hluvukani 1363
•	Malwana	Islington	P/Bag X 1420 Hluvukani 1363
•	Manyeleti	Gottinburg	P/Bag X 1430 Hluvukani 1363
•	Matikinya	Oglington	P/Bag X 1412 Hluvukani 1363
•	Manyamane	Thorndale	P/Bag X 1431 Hluvukani 1363
•	Mthembeni	Islington	P/Bag X 1407 Hluvukani 1363
•	Nxalati	Ludlow	P/Bag X 1342 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Samson Sibuyi	Thorndale	P/Bag X 1428 Hluvukani 1363
•	Shiviti	Utah	P/Bag X 1419 Hluvukani 1363
•	Welverdiend	Welverdiend	P/Bag X 1421 Hluvukani 1363
•	Xinyeketi	Thorndale	P/Bag X 1428 Hluvukani 1363

7.2 BUSHBUCKRIDGE AREA

7.2.1 AGINCOURT CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Agincourt	Agincourt	P.O. Box 808 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Phelandaba	Newington	P.O. Box Ximhungwe 1281
•	Quvekani	M.P. Stream	P/Bag X 1367 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Sungulani	Xanthia	P.O. Box 2001 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Gavazana	Newington	P/Bag X 7427 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Hlavathi	M.P. Stream	P/Bag X 1326 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Hluvukani	Xanthia	P/Bag X 9336 Bushbuckridge 1365
•	Hokwe	M.P. Stream	P/Bag X 1315 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Khayelihle	Agincourt	P.O. Box 807 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Mahlahluvana	Dumphries	P/Bag X 555 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Manyakatana	Newington	P/Bag X 7442 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Matsavane	Agincourt	P/Bag X 9328 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Ndimande	Maviljan	P/Bag X 11355 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Quetywayo	Agincourt	P/Bag X 1388 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Welani	Dumphries	P/Bag X 1345 Thulamahashe 1365

7.2.2 THULAMAHASHE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Amukelani	Thulamahashe	P.O. Box 165 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Jabulani	Edinburg	P/Bag X 1368 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mahlambandlopfu	Thulamahashe	P/Bag X 360 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Vonani	Newforest	P.O. Box 457 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Charley Mbungele	Rolle	P/Bag X 1305 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Ezrom	Edinburg	P/Bag X 1364 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Floraphophe	Rolle	P/Bag X 1322 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Humulani	Athol	P/Bag X 1425 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Malamule	Edinburg	P/Bag X 1350 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mavandla	Edinburg	P.O. Box 64 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mpikaniso	Newforest	P/Bag X 1330 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mpithi	Thulamahashe	P/Bag X 1336 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mzilikazi	Dumphries	P/Bag X 1316 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Ndwandwe	Allandale	P/Bag X 1344 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Sabeka	Allandale	P/Bag X 1333 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Wisani	Rolle	P/Bag X 1352 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Xilongana	Edinburg	P/Bag X 1354 Thulamahashe 1365

7.2.3 DWARSLOOP CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Arthustone	Arthustone	
•	Dwarsloop	Dwarsloop	P/Bag X 9313 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Motibidi	Elandsfontein	P/Bag X 391 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Nkimolle	Dwarsloop	P/Bag X 9313 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Phafoga	London	
•	Beng ba lona	Dwarsloop	P.O. Box 499 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Buyisonto	Arthustone	P.O. Box 101 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	D.G. Mashego	Dwarsloop	P.O. Box 1969 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Esselman	Dwarsloop	P/Bag X 9312 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Hlamalani	Orinoco	P/Bag X 9323 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Majembeni	Orinoco	P/Bag X 9385 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mathambo	Orinoco	P/Bag X 1323 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Mpisane	Orinoco	P.O. Box 32 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Nkwenkwezi	Dwarsloop	P.O. Box 327 Mafemani 1285
•	Nkothasi	Arthustone	P.O. Box 619 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Saile	Dwarsloop	P.O. Box 9354 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Saselani	Saselani	P.O. Box 62 Mafemani 1285
•	Sibambayana	Orinoco	P/Bag X 1327 Thulamahashe 1365
•	Siboyiye	Orinoco	P/Bag X 349 Acornhoek 1360
•	Twalakule	Dwarsloop	P/Bag X 9380 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Xingala Makamu	Arthustone	P.O. Box 647 Bushbuckridge 1280

7.2.4 SHATALE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Matladifedile	London	
•	Matsepole	London	
•	Montedi	London	
•	Boikhutso	London	P/Bag X 8003 Shatale 1281
•	Farel	London	P/Bag X 8021 Shatale 1281
•	Matlalong	London	P/Bag X 8019 Shatale 1281
•	Matlolane	London	P/Bag X 9342 Shatale 1281
•	Mathule	London	P/Bag X 8012 Shatale 1281
•	Moratiseng	Maviljan	P.O. Box 499 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Narishe	London	P/Bag X 8004 Shatale 1282
•	Ngwarele	London	P/Bag X 8001 Shatale 1282
•	Ntsoelemolodi	London	P/Bag X 8013 Shatale 1282
•	Relani	London	P/Bag X 9332 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Sedibeng	London	P/Bag X 8002 Shatale 1282
•	Shatale	London	P/Bag X 8008 Shatale 1282
•	Thabakgolo	London	P/Bag X 8005 Shatale 1282

7.2.5 MAVILJAN CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Nkoebotse	Maviljan	
•	Dilayi	Maviljan	
•	Diphaswa	Maviljan	P/Bag X 9356 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Masakeni	Maviljan	
•	Maviljan	Maviljan	
•	Ntsie	Maviljan	P/Bag X 9347 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	S.H. Nyalungu	Maviljan	P.O. Box 57 Bushbuckridge 1280

7.3 MKHUHLU AREA

7.3.1 MARITE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Bhekiswayo	Marite	P.O. Box 711 Hazyview 1242
•	Jackson Xingange	Madras	P/Bag X 3006 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Khoane	Marite	P/Bag X 9368 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mosopodi	Marite	P.O. Box 771 Hazyview 1242
•	O.B. Mokoena	Marite	P.O. Box 697 Hazyview 1242
•	Sandord	Marite	P.O. Box 935 Hazyview 1242
•	Bantomu	Madras	P/Bag X 3006 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Emfuleni	Marite	P.O. Box 396 Hazyview 1242
•	Kwanang	Marite	P/Bag X 125 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Kwetse	Alexandra	P.O. Box 429 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Lapishe	Marite	P.O. Box 295 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Madukulushe	Marite	P/Bag X 9368 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Makorompane	Marite	P.O. Box 332 Hazyview 1242
•	Malengeza	Marite	P.O. Box 141 Hazyview 1242
•	Mapetekoane	Oakley	P.O. Box 1941 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Matikwane	Madras	P/Bag X 1015 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Moduping	Marite	P.O. Box 246 Hazyview 1242
•	Mogolane	Marite	P.O. Box 344 Hazyview 1242
•	Motseleng	Alexandra	P.O. Box 1875 Bushbuckridge 1282
•	M.P. Mokoena	Marite	P.O. Box 571 Hazyview 1242
•	Nwamahumane	Madras 'A'	P.O. Box 251 Hazyview 1242
•	Shatleng	Marite	P.O. Box 71 Bushbuckridge 1280

7.3.2 MKHUHLU CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	George Mduli	Madras	P.O. Box 586 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Homuzeya	Belfast	P/Bag X 1020 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Joel Mnisi	Ronaldsey	P/Bag X 616 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Nkala	Lisbon	P.O. Box 111 Clanor 1351
•	Nwaxilambatana	Calcutta	P.O. Box 1191 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Paul Mabuza	Calcutta	P.O. Box 1200 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Rozola	Calcutta	P/Bag X 560 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Bhejani	Calcutta	P.O. Box 65 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mkhuhlu	Lisbon	P.O. Box 23 Clanor 1365
•	Londhinda	Calcutta	P.O. Box 385 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mapaleni	Calcutta	P/Bag X 3010 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mavimbela	Calcutta	P/Bag X 3007 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mbatini	Calcutta	P/Bag X 3011 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mkhumbini	Cork	P/Bag X 3004 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Mvuyazi	Cork	P/Bag X 3005 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Pensele	Calcutta	P.O. Box 1246 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Shalamuka	Belfast	P/Bag X 380 Hazyview 1242
•	Vukuzenzele	Madras 'A'	P/Bag X 3023 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Thwasani	Ronaldsey	P/Bag X 3025 Mkhuhlu 1246

7.3.3 LEHUKWE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	A.K. Mokoena	Tekamahala	P.O. Box 727 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Cunningmoore	Cunningmoore 'A'	P/Bag X 24 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Lehukwe	Cunningmoore	P.O. Box 37 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Lekgokamang	Alexandra	P.O. Box 429 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Mashabiya	Marite	P.O. Box 807 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Ntswelemotse	Alexandra	P/Bag X 9375 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Ryes	Oakley	P.O. Box 998 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Alexandra	Alexandra	P.O. Box 53 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Cunningmoore	Cunningmoore 'A'	P/Bag X 7415 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Hokisa	Cunningmoore	P.O. Box 569 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Magashule	Oakley	P.O. Box 231 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Oakley	Oakley	P.O. Box 64 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Plaatjie	Oakley	P.O. Box 435 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Saringwa	Cunningmoore 'B'	P/Bag X 7417 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Sele	Tsakani	P.O. Box 184 Bushbuckridge 1280
•	Tiyimeleni	Cunningmoore 'B'	P/Bag X 7420 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Vandama	Marite	P/Bag X 344 Bushbuckridge 1280

7.3.4 XIMHUNGWE CIRCUIT

	SCHOOLS	SETTLEMENT	ADDRESS
•	Angelo Martodes	Sommerset	P.O. Box 757 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Chivirikani	Areagh 'B'	P.O. Box 753 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Henna	Areagh 'A'	P/Bag X 7404 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Malamule	Kildare	P.O. Box 823 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Njombo	Areagh 'A'	P/Bag X 756 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Ntshunxekani	Justicia	P/Bag X 7419 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Ringetani	Croquetlawn	P/Bag X 7428 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Babati	Justicia	P/Bag X 7423 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Tipfuxeni	Kildare	P/Bag X 7406 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Dyondzekani	Somerset	P/Bag X 3003 Mkhuhlu 1246
•	Hibamandla	Lilydale	P/Bag X 7439 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Hlanganani	Croquetlawn	P/Bag X 7407 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Hundzukani	Huntington	P/Bag X 7413 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Jan Rikhotso	Kildare	P/Bag X 7403 Ximhungwe 1281
•	John Khoza	Cunningmoore 'B'	P/Bag X 7403 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Jogilanga	Kildare	P/Bag X 7408 Ximhungwe 1281
•	J.J. Matsana	Somerset	P/Bag X 7437 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Magudu	Grea 'B'	P/Bag X 7410 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Mhlahle	Lilydale	P/Bag X 7405 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Nembe Mhlava	Croquetlawn	P.O. Box 759 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Njonjela	Kildare	P/Bag X 7412 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Nwankupana	Kildare	P/Bag X 7440 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Rhandzekile	Lilydale	P/Bag X 7430 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Tiyani	Areagh 'A'	P/Bag X 7420 Ximhungwe 1281
•	Vuyelani	Lilydale	