

THE POST 1994 CURRICULUM CHANGES AND HISTORY TEACHERS'  
ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE MOTHEO IN  
THE FREE STATE PROVINCE

BY

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## DECLARATION

I declare that **THE POST 1994 CURRICULUM CHANGES AND THE HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF MOTHEO DISTRICT IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCE** is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



**SIGNATURE**

**(TEBOHO CLIFFORD SEEKANE)**

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**DATE**

## **DEDICATION AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Mothibeli and Sani Seekane.

I would like to thank the following people for their support during the completion of this dissertation:

My wife, Masabatha Seekane, for encouragement and motivation throughout my studies

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The Almighty God for courage, health, and strength

## **ABSTRACT**

The new educational dispensations implemented in South Africa since 1998 brought successive and rapid changes in teaching and assessment. This qualitative research aimed to investigate the impact of curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices, and to develop a model that will ensure smooth curriculum implementation. The research design followed the intrinsic case study, in which interviews and document analysis were used to collect data. Purposive sampling was used to identify five grade 10 to 12 history teachers. Face-to face semi-structure interviews were used to provide the researcher with detailed information regarding the research question. The interview question centred on the experiences of the history teachers during the 1998, 2002 and 2011 curriculum changes with reference to how they affected their assessment practices. Copies of relevant documents were collected from interview sites. Subjective data analysis was applied to obtain useful information about the teachers' understanding of curriculum changes and their experiences, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs about the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices. Research found that the two curricula introduced between 1998 and 2002, namely OBE/C2005 and RNCS respectively, led to confusion, frustration, and resentment among many history teachers as pre-training was not adequate. Thus, other teachers continued with traditional teaching and assessment methods and ignored calls for more learner-centred and constructivist teaching and assessment strategies. Against that background the researcher recommended that curriculum implementation should be preceded by thorough planning and preparations, including adequate training of teachers, dealing with the concerns of implementers, providing support and effective monitoring. A combination of curriculum implementation models can also ensure that the process is successful.

## **KEYWORDS**

National Curriculum Statement, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, Revised National Curriculum Statement, Outcomes Based Education, assessment practices, assessment of learning, assessment for learning, assessment forms, alternative assessment, curriculum, curriculum change, curriculum implementation, curriculum development, curriculum design.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
C2005	Curriculum 2005
CNE	Christian National Education
DBE	Department of Basic Education
ECDE	Eastern Cape Department of Education
FET	Further Education and Training
FSDE	Free State Department of Education
GET	General Education and Training
IEB	Independent Examination Boards
MEC	Member of the Executive Committee
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
POA	Programme of Assessment
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SBA	School Based Assessment
STD	Secondary Teachers Diploma
WCDE	Western Cape Department of Education

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION.....</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>DEDICATION AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>KEYWORDS.....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .....</b>	<b>v</b>

### CHAPTER 1

#### INTRODUCTION

1.1	BACKGROUND INFORMATION .....	1
1.2	PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	3
1.3	RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY .....	6
1.4	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	9
1.5	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .....	10
1.6	THESIS STATEMENT .....	10
1.7	DELINEATIONS AND LIMITATIONS .....	10
1.8	DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS .....	11
1.8.1	Curriculum .....	12
1.8.2	Curriculum change.....	12
1.8.3	Assessment.....	12
1.8.4	Assessment practices .....	13
1.8.5	History .....	13
1.8.6	Secondary schools.....	14
1.9	ASSUMPTIONS.....	14
1.10	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	15
1.11	CHAPTER OVERVIEW .....	15
2.1	INTRODUCTION .....	16
2.2	CURRICULUM DESIGN .....	17
2.2.1	Philosophical orientations .....	18
2.2.2	Science, society, knowledge, religious sources and learners .....	19
2.2.3	Interpretations of three basic designs.....	20
2.3	CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT .....	22
2.3.1	Perspectives related to curriculum development.....	23
2.3.2	Technical-scientific perspective to curriculum development .....	23

2.3.3	Non-technical perspective to curriculum development.....	24
2.3.4	Models of curriculum development .....	25
2.4	CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION .....	27
2.4.1	Curriculum implementation models.....	28
2.4.2	Stages in curriculum implementation .....	29
2.4.3	Implementation strategies .....	30
2.4.4	Curriculum implementation as a change process.....	31
2.5	CHANGE AND RESISTANCE .....	32
2.6	HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS IN SOUTH AFRICA BETWEEN 1998 AND 2011 .....	33
2.6.1	Introduction.....	33
2.6.2	Curriculum 2005 and the Outcomes-Based Education system .....	37
2.6.2.1	Meaning of the concepts .....	37
2.6.2.2	Philosophical orientation of Curriculum 2005.....	38
2.6.2.3	Features of Curriculum 2005 .....	39
2.6.2.4	Main components.....	40
2.6.3	Curriculum development for Outcomes-Based Education .....	41
2.6.3.1	Aims, goals and objectives.....	42
2.6.3.2	Learning content .....	42
2.6.3.3	Teaching methods .....	43
2.6.3.4	Assessment.....	43
2.6.4	Curriculum implementation models.....	44
2.7	CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT (NCS) OF 2002 .....	46
2.7.1	Introduction.....	46
2.7.2	Background.....	47
2.7.3	Curriculum design of the National Curriculum Statement NCS (2002) .....	47
2.7.3.1	Philosophical orientation(s) .....	48
2.7.3.2	Features .....	49
2.7.4	Curriculum development of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002.....	50
2.7.5	Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (2002) .....	51
2.8	CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT GRADES R-12 – THE CAPS DOCUMENT OF 2011.....	54
2.8.1	Introduction and background .....	54
2.8.2	Philosophical orientation of the CAPS document (2011).....	55
2.8.3	Design features of the CAPS (2011).....	56



2.8.4	Characteristics.....	56
2.8.5	Curriculum development and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grades R-12 of 2011	57
2.8.6	Implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 in Grades R-12 .....	59
2.9	POST-1994 ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN HISTORY AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT ....	61
2.9.1	Background.....	61
2.9.2	Assessment as part of teaching and learning .....	63
2.10	Assessment forms in History since 1994 .....	64
2.10.1	Short-answer items and extended response questions .....	67
2.10.2	Tests .....	68
2.10.3	Data handling.....	70
2.10.4	Map reading and analysis.....	71
2.10.5	Contextual analysis .....	72
2.10.6	Research tasks.....	73
2.10.7	Creative response questions .....	75
2.10.8	Essay questions .....	77
2.11	Recording assessment .....	79
2.12	REPORTING .....	80
2.13	CONCLUSION.....	81
3.1	INTRODUCTION .....	82
3.2	THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS OF THE STUDY .....	82
3.3	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....	85
3.3.1	Research design .....	86
3.3.2	Research methodology.....	88
3.3.2.1	Data collection methods and analysis .....	89
3.3.3.3	Interpretation and presentation of the data.....	96
3.3.3.4	Trustworthiness.....	98
3.3.3.5	Ethical considerations .....	100
3.4	CONCLUSION.....	101
4.1	INTRODUCTION .....	102
4.2	APPROACHES TO AND PRINCIPLES OF QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS.....	102
4.3	PREPARATION OF THE DATA .....	103
4.4	CODING THE DATA .....	103
4.5	ESTABLISH THEMES AND CATEGORIES.....	103
4.6	STRUCTURING OF ANALYSED DATA .....	104

4.7	INTERVIEWEE BACKGROUND .....	105
4.7.1.1	Knowledge of curriculum change .....	108
4.7.1.2	Experiences of curriculum changes .....	110
4.7.1.3	Perceptions about assessment practices .....	113
4.7.1.4	Teachers' attitudes towards curriculum implementation .....	115
4.7.1.5	Teachers' attitudes towards the impact of curriculum change on assessment practices ...	116
4.7.1.6	<b>Challenges experienced by history teachers in curriculum implementation .....</b>	<b>120</b>
4.7.1.7	<b>Suggestions to overcome challenges affecting implementation .....</b>	<b>121</b>
4.7.2	<b>Interpreting the data from interviews .....</b>	<b>122</b>
4.7.3	<b>Analysing the data from the documents .....</b>	<b>124</b>
4.7.5	Presenting the data .....	132
4.7.6	Visualising, representing, and displaying the data .....	136
4.8	QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION .....	138
4.8.1	Trustworthiness .....	138
4.8.2	Internal validity .....	139
4.8.3	Practicality .....	141
4.9	CONCLUSION .....	142
5.1	INTRODUCTION .....	143
5.2	SUMMARY OF LITERATURE .....	143
5.3	SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY .....	143
5.4	THE RESEARCH FINDINGS .....	144
5.5	DISCUSSIONS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS .....	147
5.5.1	Knowledge of curriculum change .....	147
5.5.2	Experiences of curriculum changes and assessment .....	147
5.5.3	Perceptions about assessment .....	148
5.5.4	Attitudes towards curriculum implementation .....	148
5.5.5	Attitudes and beliefs towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices 148	
5.5.6	Suggestions to overcome challenges .....	149
5.6	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	149
5.6.1	Knowledge of curriculum changes .....	149
5.6.2	Experiences of curriculum changes and assessment .....	150
5.6.3	Perception about assessment practices .....	150
5.6.4	Attitude towards curriculum implementation .....	151
5.6.5	Attitudes and beliefs towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices 151	

5.6.6	Suggestions to overcome challenges.....	152
5.7	CONCLUSION.....	152
5.8	MODEL TO ENSURE SMOOTH CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION .....	153
5.9	CONCLUSIONS.....	155

## LIST OF TABLES

4.6.7.1.	KNOWLEDGE OF CURRICULUM CHANGE.....	137
4.6.7.2	EXPERIENCE OF CHANGES.....	138
4.6.7.3	PERCEPTIONS ABOUT ASSESSMENT .....	138
4.6.7.4	(a) ATTITUDE TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION OF POST 1994 CURRICULA.....	138
4.6.7.4	(b)ATTITUDE TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION OF POST 1994 CURRICULA .....	139
4.6.7.5	HOW TO BEST PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTATION .....	139
4.6.7.6	HOW TO ENSURE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION.....	139

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 5.1 Three-stages implementation model (Adopted and developed from Cho, 1998).....	155
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## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Application to conduct research .....	177
Appendix B: Ethical requirements .....	185
Appendix C: Approval to conduct research .....	186
Appendix D: Letter of request to schools .....	187
Appendix E: Interview questions.....	189
Appendix F: Interview transcripts .....	190

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Between 1997 and 2010 three curriculum changes were introduced to the South African education system. This study intended to investigate the post-1994 curriculum changes and the history teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of Motheo district in the Free State Province. The intention to conduct the study emanates from the view that assessment informs teaching and learning (Brown, 2004; Kitiashvili, 2014; Sethusha, 2012; Uiseb, 2007, 2009; Vandeyer & Killen, 2003), and that it is also viewed as one of the most difficult aspects in terms of curriculum change (Ndjabili, 2004:38). The first democratic government curriculum, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), was introduced to redress the curricular divisions of the past caused by "... the fractured and unequal education system ..." of apartheid (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2003:47; Moodley, 2013:19). Under the apartheid system, South Africa had different education departments with different curricula for the different population groups (Black, Whites, Coloureds and Indians). For this reason, many specialists argued that the apartheid education system and its curricula needed urgent transformation (Rakometsi, 2008:107; Booyse, Le Roux, Seroto & Wolhuter, 2011:248; Liebenberg and Spies, 1993:506). For example, education for the Indians was administered in terms of the Indian Education Act of 1965, while Coloured education was administered in accordance with the Coloured Persons Education Act of 1963. In addition, education for Blacks was further subdivided into ethnic groups under the authority of the so-called homeland governments of the Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (Rakometsi, 2008:107). Rakometsi (2008:107) further asserts that the division was created because of the government's claim that they would ensure the maintenance of cultural and social integrity and, moreover, the government believed that the divisions were in accordance with the divine will of God. It means that the government's division of the people into different races was largely religiously based. In 1979 the Department of Education and Training was established to replace the then Department of Bantu Education. This Department continued to manage the system of a limited number of schools which accommodated only a small percentage of the Black population, and followed a separate and inferior syllabus (Rakometsi, 2008:137). In other words, the quality of Black education was poor.

Rakometsi (2008:3) makes the following assertion: "... Education became the most disputed terrain in South Africa." By "disputed terrain" he refers to the situation where people had different opinions. He further describes the then educational provision in South Africa as fraught with intense debates, a subject of conflict in a fragmented society, and that the South African schooling system reflected a microcosm of the tensions and discord of a society at odds with itself.

Given the aforementioned situation in the country at the time, it is clear that South Africa was a society divided on the basis of race. It is also clear that the racial divisions were most likely to manifest themselves in the education system and attracted major criticism from the different political and civil organisations. The racial divisions in society were particularly significant because they affected education, thereby opening it up for endless and robust debates and contestations. Education, therefore, took centre stage in the struggle against the apartheid system and schools became the battle ground for political organisations such as conflicts between the school leadership and student movements, student movements and departmental officials, and civic organisations and political parties. It was the apartheid system itself that was the source of the dissatisfaction (Booyse, Le Roux, Seroto & Wolhuter, 2011:248; Liebenberg and Spies, 1993:506).

In the next section, the political and educational conditions in South Africa leading to the introduction of the new national curricula from 1998 to 2011 will be explained. The rationale for the new educational dispensation will also be highlighted. The frequency of the introduction of the curricula will be put into perspective before outlining the possible impact of the new curricula on the assessment practices of the secondary schools history teachers in the Motheo district. The significance of assessment in teaching and learning with special emphasis on the history learners in the Motheo district will then be explained. The factors that motivated the study will also be elucidated, followed by the problem statement in which the possible failures of teachers to apply the appropriate assessment strategies of the new curricula will be identified. The possible impact of the latter on the learners will also be listed. Then the problem statement will precede the research questions which will explain the questions that the study wants to answer. It will be followed by the research aims and objectives the study wants to achieve. The thesis statement which clarifies exactly what the study is going to investigate, will be followed by an elaboration of the delineations and limitations of the study. The most important concepts and definitions will be revealed followed by the assumptions of the study. Under the

significance of the study section an explanation of the reasons the study is worth doing will be provided.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Benie and Newstead (1999:1) cautioned that the introduction of new curricula in South Africa posed a range of challenges to teachers and schools alike. They posed challenges to teachers such as the underlying assumptions and goals, the subject demarcations, the content, the teaching approach and assessment methods. When the new curricula were introduced, South African teachers were expected to change their teaching methods. For example, the teacher-centred and content-based teaching methods had to be replaced with learner-centred and outcomes-driven methods. The teaching content was reviewed, and the outdated and irrelevant teaching content was removed from the syllabus. The syllabus was cleansed of the previously offensive and divisive content in history as a school subject (Chisholm & Ramon, 2004:17). Consequently, the assessment practices were also affected as the teaching methods that were not compatible with the demands of the new curricula made way for ones which were compatible.

The problem that motivated the current study was that when the new curricula were introduced, many teachers did not adjust their assessment practices in line with the changes in the curricula (Personal experience). There were reports that during the curriculum implementation process in South Africa, in some of the schools, the teachers struggled to implement the new assessment system as per the compulsory curriculum changes and traditional assessment procedures continued to play an important role in these schools (Jansen, 1997:8). The researcher is of the opinion that the learners in these schools missed the opportunity to adapt to the new national assessment forms, types and strategies on which the external examinations were based (Personal experience, 2010). The researcher noted the argument of authors such as Uiseb (2009) that the introduction of the new curricula in South Africa did not mean a change in assessment practices but an emphasis on assessment for learning. To support this view, Vandeyer and Killen (2003:15) pointed out that, with the introduction of OBE in South Africa, the paradigm shift would have brought with it many suggestions for changes to assessment practices. They further explained that teachers who followed the principles of high-quality assessment prior to the introduction of OBE were required to make procedural, but few substantial changes to their assessment practices. Another assertion made by Vandeyer and

Killen (2003:7) was that the assessment practices in Curriculum 2005 certainly represented significant changes from those that were common in the pre-1994 schools in South Africa. The argument here was that consideration was given to the assessment practices that already existed. In other words, no new assessment practices were introduced. The teachers were simply encouraged to put more emphasis on formative assessment. They further alluded to the fact that the confusion about whether to change the assessment practices or not, were caused by reports of a paradigm shift which implied that teachers were forced to abandon or adjust their traditional methods of learning assessment. On the other hand, the researcher also noted the assertions of Jansen (1999:8) that the implementation of the OBE curriculum led to fundamental changes in many respects, including assessment. Be that as it may, for Sethusha (2012:37) the emphasis on formative assessment or the adaptation of alternative assessment practices affected the assessment procedures such as the assessment techniques, styles, types, forms and frequency. This study aimed to analyse the extent to which the curriculum changes in South Africa have affected the assessment practices of the Grades 10, 11 and 12 history teachers.

The significance of assessment in teaching and learning cannot be overemphasised. Ndjabili (2004:38) cautions that the most sensitive part of curriculum change is change in the assessment and examination systems, because poor performance in public examinations to the public at large is often taken as an indication of poor teaching and learning. An examination is a formal assessment given at the end of the year which is comprehensive and relative to the competencies covered during the year (Uiseb, 2009:9). The public judges the success of teaching and learning by the learners' performance which is assessed by means of public examinations. If the learners fail public examinations, then it means that the teaching and learning were not successful. This view highlights the importance of examinations and assessment in the curriculum. However, the researcher argues that the above view may be controversial because, although the main aim of the public examinations is to assess the achievement of the learning goals, the curriculum is viewed in a broader perspective by educationists who believe that it also includes among others the hidden curriculum, skills, values and attitudes which may change as a result of teaching and learning but cannot be measured through examinations, though the view held by the public is that public examinations are essential in assessing teaching and learning. For this reason, the researcher argues that assessment becomes the epicentre around which teaching, and learning revolve. This, for the researcher, leads to the adoption of the traditional teaching methods such as process, product



and direct teaching. To prepare the learners for the public examinations the teachers usually use positivist teaching approaches because in this way the curriculum objectives can be best achieved, and the examinations and assessment can serve the curriculum. For Ndjabili (2004:9), the curriculum has been the servant of examinations. It means that the main reason for teaching and learning is to prepare the learners for examinations. Teaching and learning activities are carried out in order to get the learners ready for the public examination. Therefore, assessment is linked to the examination which in turn is the ultimate objective of teaching and learning according to this view. “In a situation like that ...” Ndjabili (2004:9) concludes, “... the content of the curriculum and emphasis in teaching is determined by the examination demands .... ” Teachers work on and emphasise the content that is going to be assessed in the examination. Learners also become more concerned about the possible examination questions. Additionally, all stakeholders then have a common objective, which is to prepare the learners for summative assessment in the form of written public examinations. Contrary to this view, Ndjabili (2004:9) believes that assessment and examinations should support learning. He believes that learners should write examinations to further their learning. From the researcher’s experience it became clear that learning prepares learners for examinations.

According to Stiggins and Chappuis (2005:2) assessment in teaching and learning has two processes, namely assessment of learning and assessment for learning. The former refers to the strategies applied to inform the teacher about how to assist the learners to learn more, and to inform the learners themselves about how to maximize success (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005:2). It is done during the learning process and is part and parcel of every lesson (DoE, 2005:1). It also prepares the learners for assessment of learning, namely formal assessment. Assessment of learning or formal assessment is used for summative purposes and is planned carefully to determine whether the learners have achieved the desired goals or met the standards. It gives a picture of what the learner has learned (Edmunds, 2006:14). In this type of assessment, the learners write provincial or national examinations to obtain a grade.

The contribution of this study to curriculum transformation and implementation is that it will investigate the following problem: The extent to which the post 1998 curriculum changes have affected the assessment practices in the teaching of History in the Motheo secondary schools. It will then highlight the authentic/personal assessment experiences of the Motheo FET history teachers during the curriculum transformation process (1998 to 2010), and will develop a model that can be used to ensure smooth transitions during curriculum changes in terms of assessment with special reference to school history. The experiences of the Motheo secondary

schools of the Free State Province will be a springboard to or form the foundation of the design of the model. It is endeavoured that the model will contribute to improve the academic engagement and performance of the learners.

### **1.3 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY**

The study was motivated by four factors. Common sense was the first factor, which presents two scenarios. The first one was where teachers are well-equipped and ready to implement the new policy documents and curricula and acknowledge the benefits for the learners. The second one was where the teachers are not well-prepared to implement the new curriculum and its assessment approaches. This will result in learners losing out and performing adversely. It was the second scenario that firstly motivated this study. The second factor was part of the researcher's personal experiences which he gained from many years of teaching and learning in the Motheo district, and from conversations with fellow history teachers in meetings and workshops, where discussions ranged from the content framework, teaching methodologies, assessment with the use of rubrics and matrixes, and the global marking of essays to issues of analytic questions and alternating case studies. It was clear from these interactions that consistency regarding assessment was a matter of great concern. Some of the teachers complained that they were not sure if they were doing the "... right thing ..." in terms of assessment. The third factor according to Moreeng (2009:26), was that History as a subject taught in secondary schools faces problems in terms of two categories: the content and methodologies. In this study, it is argued that assessment may also be added as one of the challenging issues. The fourth factor is that since the implementation of the OBE curriculum in 1997, history teachers have been trained and retrained in content, methodologies and assessment. The curriculum training workshops which were conducted throughout the country were criticized by teachers and observers alike (Maphalala, 2006:65). Maphalala (2006:65) also maintains that assessment was a major problem arising from the fact that educators were not really equipped for the procedure and requirements of OBE assessment. Finally, Moreeng (2010:v) cautions that history teachers need to be empowered to use constructivist methodologies that will not only ensure the development of appropriate historical skills and the acquisition of historical content but will also improve the interaction within the class, and ultimately enhance the assessment practices.

The problem of this study particularly focuses on the fact that the teachers of the Motheo district secondary schools were accustomed to the generic and long standing assessment procedures of the old Report 550 syllabus, and that they continued to use these prescribed assessment procedures to prepare the learners for internal and external examinations. However, the new educational dispensations implemented since 1998 brought with them successive and rapid changes in terms of various teaching and learning aspects, including the aspect of assessment. Given the first curriculum reform, the teachers attended workshops organised by the Department of Education where they were trained in the new curriculum and prepared for its implementation. Upon their return to the schools the teachers faced the difficult task of curriculum implementation as the new curriculum encouraged new teaching and assessment methods. Contrary to the expectation many teachers experienced the training as ineffective. "... they are confusing us...". In addition, it was also clear that many teachers did not implement the new curriculum. The reasons were that some of the teachers did not implement the new curriculum simply because they were not in favour of it, and/or others did not implement the curriculum because there existed a mismatch between the fundamental paradigm change and their teaching convictions. In other words, the researcher observed that the teachers did not believe that the new curricula were appropriate for the South African context (Personal experience, 2010).

Apart from the above, the South African public began to evaluate the learners' performance based on expectations. The results were disillusionment on the part of the teachers and illiteracy on the part of the learners. This led to a nation whose learners could read and write, but with poor math skills; as Moodley (2013:19) puts it, the policy changes driven by the government to "... redress past injustices in educational provision have not necessarily resulted in major changes at classroom level since some teachers still applied the same pedagogical practices they used a decade ago ..." (Vandeyar & Killen, 2003:1). This was largely due to logistical problems experienced with the implementation of the new curriculum, namely the ineffective training provided by the Department of Education, a lack of resources, the large numbers of learners in classes, and the minimal support for educators (Moodley, 2013:19). Jansen (as cited in Maphalala, 2006:62) found that most presenters and teachers felt that the assessment training sessions were extremely poor, and that they created a lot of anxiety and confusion. Not all teachers received training and some of the teachers who underwent the training were overwhelmed by the requirements and expectations. As it was mentioned previously, it was

later discovered that some teachers never implemented the new assessment policies. It was also reported that once the curriculum changes were in place, educators simply disregarded the lecture method, textbook method and talk and chat and did teaching that was not sequential and which lacked progression (Moodley, 2013:19). This resulted in widespread assessment inconsistencies.

The situation was exacerbated by utterances of the then Minister of Education, who said that, "... curriculum development is the task of teachers at the site of delivery ...". Vermeulen, (2003:45) contrary to Potenza's view (as cited in Vermeulen, 2003:46), demonstrated that most teachers did not want to be burdened by being responsible for this difficult task. They became disillusioned with the new outcomes-based education system and they wanted to return to the previous traditional education system which relied on textbooks and examinations. Hence, the then Minister of Education, Naledi Pando, admitted that the implementation and training of the new system had not been smooth (The Star, 2008:9).

Nonetheless, two more revised curricula were introduced in 2006 and 2010 respectively, the National Curriculum Statement (2004) and the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (2010). The researcher believes that the secondary schools in Motheo need progress and effective education practices. There are 45 schools in the district that teach History as an independent school subject. The researcher's preliminary research experiences revealed that most schools have subjects falling under three main categories or streams, namely natural sciences stream, commerce and social sciences, and that most of the learners are enrolled for the social sciences stream which includes History. The high numbers in the social sciences are due to the number of learners who drop out of the natural and commercial sciences classes. Some of these learners choose the social sciences stream, while others are channelled to the stream by the school because they cannot cope in the other two streams. In this way many learners put their hope on the presumably easier subject History to pass matric. A good matric pass will provide these learners with the most needed opportunities, such as bursaries and scholarships. Admission to institutions of higher learning will then provide them with a good education and skills which in turn will be a good investment for the communities in the district.

Given the above, the secondary schools in the Motheo district need effective teaching, learning and assessment practices. As indicated previously, with about 45 history teaching secondary schools, the Motheo district is located in the Free State Province, and includes areas such as Bloemfontein, that has a population of about 364,348 inhabitants, and Botshabelo that is

classified as an urban area with a population of approximately 175, 233 people (Statistics SA, 2011:3). There are approximately 2.7 million people living in the Free State Province (Census, 2011:4). Given the level of poverty and unemployment in the country, the Motheo district did not escape the poverty that is plaguing the other populous provinces of South Africa such as Kwazulu-Natal, the Eastern Cape and Limpopo. The district is not only plagued by poverty, but also unemployment, violent crimes, xenophobic attacks, and gangsterism, especially in the Botshabelo area. Therefore, the role that quality education can play in the improvement of the current situation in the Province cannot be underestimated.

It is clear from the above discussion that quality education is needed in South Africa and that any curriculum transformation to improve education is generally accompanied by challenges. The curriculum changes in South Africa between 1998 and 2011 have to be scrutinized within local contexts of how they affected, among others, the assessment practices in the country. According to Woyessa, Van Tonder and Van Jaarsveldt (2013:102) assessment is one of the most important tasks that teachers have to perform to facilitate meaningful classroom learning. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the challenges that are faced by the history teaching fraternity in the secondary schools of the Motheo district in the Free State Province after the introduction of the post-1994 curriculum and assessment changes. The focus of the study was determined by a few problematic issues. The difficulties and experiences of the teachers during the curricula transformation and implementation since 1998 raised a few questions. How were the history teachers' assessment practices in South Africa affected by the curriculum changes in general? What were the assessment experiences of the history teachers in the Motheo district's secondary schools? How could a smooth and effective transition of the history assessment practices in the Motheo district's secondary schools be facilitated?

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study intended to answer the main research question, namely: What was the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on history teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of Motheo district in the Free State Province?

The following questions were the research sub-questions:

- What effect did the curriculum transformation have on assessment practices among history teachers of secondary schools in Motheo district?
- What are the teachers' views on assessment practices in History as a school subject?
- What assessment strategies can be implemented to improve learners' performance in History?

## **1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

- To determine the extent to which curriculum transformation affected the assessment practices of the history teachers in the secondary schools of the Motheo district.
- To capture the views of teachers on assessment practices in History as a school subject.
- To suggest the strategies that can be implemented to improve learners' performance in History.

## **1.6 THESIS STATEMENT**

The thesis statement is a central argument of the study. It is the researcher's stand on the problem. By naming or delineating the thesis it becomes possible to focus on the problem and develop a way to address it. The thesis statement of this study reads as follows: A study of the experiences of the secondary schools history teachers in the Motheo district with the curriculum changes in terms of assessment practices since 1998 will result in the improved academic engagement and performance of Grade 10 to 12 history learners.

## **1,7 DELINEATIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

In this section the delineations and limitations of the study are explained. Delineations refer to what the researcher is responsible for and what he is not responsible for and why. Limitations are the flip side of the same coin. Limitations will affect the extent to which the researcher will be able to generalize his conclusions and the reliability of the conclusions. The delineations and limitations of this study are the following:

- The findings of this study cannot be generalized to all history teachers including Motheo district since they are subjective perspectives of the participants.
- It does not accommodate the assessment experiences of the history teachers who teach History in combination with Geography in the subject Social Sciences previously known as Human and Social Sciences in the General and Training Band.
- The researcher focused on History as an independent subject which is taught in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in secondary schools only.
- The researcher will also not distinguish between teachers who taught before, during or after the introduction of the new curricula.
- The researcher will not be responsible for any deviations as a result of the teachers in the previously advantaged or disadvantaged schools of the Motheo district. It means that the study will not differentiate between well-resourced and under-resourced schools.
- Although there are 45 history teaching secondary schools in the Motheo district, the study is limited to five secondary schools due to the vastness of the district, financial constraints and limited time.
- The researcher will be responsible for validating the research measuring instruments to determine the impact of the recent policy transformation on the assessment practices of the history teachers in secondary schools.
- The researcher will take responsibility for unreliable research findings emanating from inappropriate measuring instruments.

## **1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS**

The literature review enabled the researcher to identify and understand the key terms and concepts under investigation in this study much better, and he consequently defined the following concepts and terms: curriculum, curriculum change, assessment forms and assessment practices. The concepts of curriculum change and assessment represent the independent and the dependent variables of the study respectively. Apart from the above key concepts, the researcher will also clarify the terms: history, history teachers, secondary schools, the Motheo district and the Free State Province.

### **1.8.1 Curriculum**

Curriculum consists of the courses that are taught at school, college, or university (Oxford Study Dictionary). ACARA (2009:4) defined the concept curriculum as the detailing of what teachers are expected to teach and learners are expected to learn during each year of schooling. At this juncture the obvious meaning that one can attach to the concept curriculum relates to what is learned, taught and how. Hamstra (1996:16) explains that the concept curriculum comes from the Latin word *curere* meaning to run a racecourse. This explanation compares the concept curriculum to a race that must be run within a set time to a particular destination. In this instance, the destination is arrived at when the learners have passed the test, examination, or a grade. The hurdles that the learners must deal with, or subjects that the learners must pass, are like a race that the runners must complete (Marsh, 2009: ix).

The Department of Education (DoE) (1997:31) defines the concept curriculum as an inclusive way of teaching and learning; all teaching and learning opportunities that take place in learning institutions, including aims and objectives, content, skills, strategies, forms of assessment and evaluation; and how it is served and resourced, and reflects the needs and interests of those it serves, including the learners. It is concerned with what institutions teach, and with what, how, and under what conditions learners acquire the required knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. The latter definition is viewed as the most appropriate for this study.

### **1.8.2 Curriculum change**

Curriculum change is a shift away from the previous curriculum to the new one (Du Plessis, 2005:14). Du Plessis, Conley and Du Plessis (2007: 47) add that the concept of curriculum change is about change in the approach to teaching and learning. In the South African context, curriculum change is viewed as a shift from the previously used education (teacher) centred paradigm to a (learner-centred) new paradigm (Mokua, 2010:12).

### **1.8.3 Assessment**

The concept of assessment is defined as estimating a person's abilities and achievements by considering them in some detail and making a judgement about them (South African Students' Dictionary). In terms of the review of the related literature, the concept assessment is defined as a



process of teachers collecting evidence from learners for the purpose of making decisions about the learners' knowledge and skills, as well as to guide their own instructional activities with learners and to control their behavior. (Asia University:2013;256). It also informs both learners and teachers on the levels of knowledge and skills achieved by the learners (Kitiashvili, 2014:164). In this study, assessment refers to a process of teachers collecting evidence from learners for the purpose of making decisions about the learners' knowledge and skills.

#### **1.8.4 Assessment practices**

The concept of assessment practices refers to methods and strategies applied in educational contexts by the teachers to "... evaluate the learning process ..." (Kitiashvili, 2014:165). The former include types, forms, and styles such as oral questions, class tests, assignments and examinations. It means that the teachers apply different methods to collect the necessary information which will assist them to understand how the learning is progressing. In other words, assessment practices are the manner in which an assessment approach is done (Uiseb, 2009:9). For example, the teacher can use methods such as observations, practical work, oral presentations, creative projects, composition writing, experiments and discussions, but they can also apply strategies such as peer-assessment or self-assessment (Kitiashvili, 2014:169; Sethusha, 2014:156). The underlying factor about assessment is that it should inform both teaching and learning by capturing the knowledge and skills that learners possess (Uiseb, 2009:25).

#### **1.8.5 History**

History is defined as the study of the past events especially of human affairs (Oxford Study Dictionary). History as a subject can be taught at different levels and in different forms. For example, it can be taught in primary schools, secondary schools and tertiary institutions, and in combination with other subjects like Geography, Philosophy, Sociology, and Politics as part of a larger discipline social sciences or social studies. The subject involves the study of change and development in society over time (DoE, 2011:8). The history curriculum includes the teaching of local, regional, national or world history. The subject can also be studied to understand the following: why the world and its people came to be what they are today, to reveal human experience, and to understand past lives and societies by exploring every conceivable aspect of their reality (University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2014np). Alternatively, History can be defined from a biblical or historical perspective. From a biblical perspective, history as the story of humankind is about how man was alienated from his creator and should therefore be judged in the light of the antithesis between the earthly state and the Godly state

from the beginning of time until today (Van Oort, 1991:93 as cited in Duncan and Buqa 2007:3). Historically, the history of man can be viewed as man's struggle, activity and survival over time. In this study, the concept history does not refer to the story of mankind *per se* but to an independent school subject.

### **1.8.6 Secondary schools**

Secondary schools refer to schools for people who have received primary education but not yet proceeded to a university or occupation (Oxford Study Dictionary). It is provided after the primary school education, but before higher education (Moe, 1994:13, as cited in Abreha, 2014:9). They provide secondary education to learners who are typically between the age of 15 and 17. According to the South African Schools Act, 86 of 1996, secondary schools offer education from grades 8 to 12, and are usually classified into small, medium, large and mega secondary schools (Government Gazette, 12 September 2013:6).

## **1.9 ASSUMPTIONS**

Assumptions are the aspects that the researcher takes to be true without checking whether or not they are true. Listed below are the assumptions of this study:

- Assessment practices affect the successful teaching and learning in the history classroom.
- The academic engagement and performance of the learners in the Free State Province are/were affected negatively by the newly implemented assessment system.
- All the history teachers in the sampled schools experienced the curriculum changes in terms of assessment.
- The history teachers' assessment practices were negatively affected by the changes in the curriculum.
- This newly implemented assessment system did not occur only in the Free State Province, but in all the provinces of South Africa.
- The post-1998 teacher education programme did not lead to an improvement in the assessment practices of teachers in all school subjects, including History.
- An effective teacher education programme in this regard is needed.

## **1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

In this section, the researcher is going to explain why his work is worth doing. The significance of the study is the following: firstly, the study might contribute to the existing literature on how secondary school history teachers view, perceive, understood, and responded to the successive curriculum changes in their classrooms. Secondly, the information in this study might assist the stakeholders in the history teaching fraternity to understand the Grade 10 to 12 teachers' experiences and views about curriculum change and their impact on their assessment practices. The study will also describe how the history teachers were and are dealing with the challenges relating to assessment practices. The stakeholders can then empower the teachers to adopt and perform constructivist assessment practices with confidence. This may then result in the improved academic engagement and performance of the Grade 10 to 12 history learners in the Motheo district schools, and eventually the whole of South Africa. Thirdly, the findings of the study might also assist the policymakers to successfully facilitate any future resistance to assessment policies. Fourthly, the outcomes of the study may also prompt future research into the topic and encourage academic debate in this regard.

## **1.11 CHAPTER OVERVIEW**

Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter that deals with the background information of the study. Chapter 2 is the literature review chapter which is dealing with an overview of the related literature. Chapter 2 will focus on curriculum development and implementation, with special reference to South Africa between 1998 and 2011. The focus will also be on a survey of assessment theories and practices. A section will also be devoted to the assessment theories and practice in History as a school subject. In chapter 3 the research methodology will be discussed. In chapter 4 the results of the study will be provided. The discussion of the results of the study will also be included in this chapter. With regard to chapter 5, the findings, conclusion(s) and recommendations of the study will be discussed.

**CHAPTER 2**  
**A SURVEY OF THE POST-1994 CURRICULUM CHANGES AND ASSESSMENT**  
**PRACTICES IN HISTORY AS A SUBJECT**

**2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, the concept ‘curriculum’ was defined as all the activities in a school to achieve the educational objectives. In particular, it is learning that is expected to take place in a subject or study programme in terms of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes (McKimm, 2003:2). According to Harden (1986:1), the purpose of the curriculum is to bring order, coherence and intellectual discipline to the transmission of human experience. It specifies the main aims of teaching, learning and assessment, and provides an outline of the teaching and learning resources to support the successful delivery of the subject. With the above in mind, the curriculum is viewed as the cornerstone of an institution’s teaching and learning activities (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:194).

It was also demonstrated that the first of the three post-apartheid curricula in South Africa, Curriculum 2005 (1998), was “... launched with great fanfare ...” in 1997 (Jansen, 1998:1). The significance of this was that the new curriculum was viewed as a good curriculum. At that stage, the curriculum developers believed that it could result in a society that meets the needs of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Maphalala, 2006:10). The latter was consistent with the rationale of the curriculum, namely to provide learners and teachers with lived experiences to foster deep understanding, sophisticated skills, appropriate attitudes, and socially constructive values (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:194). On the contrary, Gultig, Hoadley and Jansen (2008:172) pointed out that Curriculum 2005 (1998) failed because of a number of reasons: a top-down curriculum implementation, poor planning, over-hasty introduction, and insufficiently prepared teachers. This led to two important questions. The first question was, What constitutes a good curriculum? The second question was, How can a new curriculum be implemented successfully? In order to answer these two questions, in the first section of this chapter the focus will be on the principles of curriculum. After that, a discussion of the principles of curriculum with special reference to South Africa between 1998 and 2011 will follow. The latter will be followed by different forms of assessment in History, and some concluding

remarks. In the third section, the assessment practices of History as a school subject are described.

## **2.2 CURRICULUM DESIGN**

The principles of curriculum are discussed in this section of the chapter, namely curriculum design, development, and implementation. This section confirms four assumptions. Firstly, curriculum design refers to the arrangement of the four basic elements of a curriculum (objectives, content, methods and evaluation) into a substantive entity which follows logical steps to guide the curriculum development process (Jacobs & Gawe, in Ndlovu, 1997:18). Secondly, curriculum design is influenced by the philosophical orientations of the curriculum developer (Hasegawa, 2014:1). Thirdly, although Morton (1970:1) refers to the subject, individual, and society as the sources of curriculum design, curriculum designs are grounded in four sources of ideas, namely science, society, knowledge and the learner (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:237). Fourthly, curriculum designers and developers have many curriculum design options, known as the curriculum design models, which they can choose from (Personal experience, 2017). Given the first assumption, Ndlovu (1997:18) states that the elements that are involved in curriculum design are the situation analysis, objectives, subject matter or learning content, teaching and learning activities, and evaluation procedures. Denham (2002:9) and Howard (2007:1) concur that these elements emanate from four questions, namely: What educational purposes should the educational establishment seek to attain? What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? How can educational experiences be effectively organised? and How can it be determined whether these purposes are attained? (Ndlovu, 1997:18). Given the latter, the curriculum design is a complete plan that shows the activities aimed to achieve the educational objectives (Personal view, 2017).

In the next subsections, the concept ‘curriculum design’ will be discussed with reference to its philosophical orientations and the factors that influence the latter. After that, the interpretation of the three basic designs will follow. The discussion will then turn to curriculum development and implementation, with special reference to the post-1994 three South African curricula, namely: Curriculum 2005 (C2005) of 1998, the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002, and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011.

### 2.2.1 Philosophical orientations

With regard to the philosophical orientations of curriculum design, Ekanem and Ekefre (2014:1) explained that philosophical issues, past and present, have an impact on schools and society at large, and that philosophical orientations (philosophies) influence educational decisions, choices and alternatives. The various philosophical orientations that influence curriculum development are idealism, realism, essentialism, pragmatism, existentialism, and reconstructionism (Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014:1). A brief elaboration of each follows.

- Idealism is a philosophy associated with ideas. The advocates of this philosophy argue that ideas are more important than experiences, and that ideas existed prior to experience (McGraw-Jordan, 2008:2). According to Alshahrani and Mohamad (2018:1), individuals are born with immense potential, and each learner is equipped with the possibility of knowledge and wisdom. The teacher acts as a facilitator who guides, directs and leads the learner on the path of truth by asking questions that lead him/her to higher knowledge. The implication of this for the curriculum is that theoretical subjects are valued more than practical ones (McGraw-Jordan, 2008:4).
- Realism views the world in terms of objects, and humans can come to know the world through their senses and reason. In realism, a phenomenon is derived from nature and is subject to natural laws. Hence, the curriculum consists of organised and separate subject matter, content, and knowledge that classify the objects. Education is seen as a matter of reality which has to be transmitted from one generation to the next, and that the value of knowledge should be transferred. The teacher is to teach the learners the knowledge of the world that they live in (Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014:267).
- Essentialism is rooted in idealism and realism and instils in learners the essentials of academic knowledge and character development (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:40). According to Diehl (2006:01), proponents of essentialism argue that common core knowledge needs to be taught to learners in a systematic way, and that the core curriculum has to contain essential knowledge and skills. Link (2008:1) added that teaching is information delivery to learners who have to apply it, and that the goal of education is to instil in learners the basic skills and a body of knowledge to

cultivate disciplined and pragmatic minds that can contribute to the enhancement of a democratic society (Link, 2008:1).

- For pragmatists, learning occurs when a learner interacts with his/her environment. The emphasis is on the interaction of individuals with an ever-changing environment. Knowledge is based on both experience and scientific methods. Hence, the role of the teacher is to teach learners how to think, and whatever values and knowledge are taught or observed will be tentative because of further development (Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014:267).
- For existentialism reality is subjective. This philosophy advocates that the creation of knowledge is personal and that values are chosen according to an individual's perspective (Diehl, 2005:3). Individualism is part of classroom teaching and learners are educated to understand and appreciate themselves as unique individuals who have to accept responsibility for their thoughts and actions. The role of the teacher is to expose them to various ways of living, and it is up to them to choose their own preferred way of life (Diehl, 2005:4; Ekanem & Ekefre, 2014: 216).
- Reconstructionism is based on pragmatism and social ideas, and endeavours to improve and reconstruct society. Hence, the purpose of education is social change and reform (Diehl, 2006:5). Learning is active and related to the present and future skills to address the problems of society. The role of the teacher is to be an agent of change, and to assist learners to be aware of the social, economic and political problems of society (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:55).

### **2.2.2 Science, society, knowledge, religious sources and learners**

When designing a curriculum, curriculum designers are also influenced by science, the society, knowledge, religious sources, and learners (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:237). Firstly, curriculum designers who rely on science as a source of their designs focus on quantitatively identified and measured elements. The emphasis is on scientific and procedural knowledge, and the public interest that needs to be addressed. Secondly, for those who rely on society for curriculum design, a study of contemporary society is compulsory (Zais, 1975:301). They have to use social problems to formulate appropriate curriculum aims, goals and objectives. Thirdly, knowledge as a source of curriculum design is when the focus is on what knowledge is most valuable to be structured as subject matter. Fourthly, the designers who base their curriculum

design on religious sources use, for example, the Bible, Torah and Quran as guides to select appropriate educational content (Educational Research Technique, 2014:1). Fifthly, curriculum designers who argue that learners are a source for curriculum design are interested in how the learners learn, form attitudes, generate interest, and develop values (Zais, 1975:302).

### **2.2.3 Interpretations of three basic designs**

Zais (1975:396) concluded that most curriculum designs can be classified as modifications and/or combinations of three basic categories from which designers can choose. The three basic designs are the subject-centred, learner-centred, and problem-centred designs. The combinations of the three research basic designs are the following:

- A subject-centred design is the most widely employed form of curriculum organisation (Zais, 1975:397). According to Saunders (2013:1), the above curriculum design is organised around the content and the sequence of what is taught, and follows the logic of the subject matter. The teacher uses a variety of teaching strategies, plays an active role in discussions, and teaches from simple to complex ideas. Assessment takes the form of formal examinations and standards-based assessment. The design includes discipline, broad-fields and process designs.
- The discipline-based design provides each subject with its own teaching time, and forms part of a course. It focuses on the conceptual structures of the discipline, and reflects the theories of scholars and discipline specialists (Harden, Sowden & Dunn, 1984:288). According to Gillespie (2014:1), it engages the learners to analyse and master the content, and promotes independent thinking.
- The broad-fields design is an interdisciplinary approach that attempts to prevent the compartmentalisation of subjects (Salim, 2011:13). It combines two or more related school subjects into a single broad field of study, and allows the learners to distinguish the relationships among the various curriculum aspects. Learners participate by means of the construction of meaning, and the understanding of the meaning of the whole (Zais, 1975:407). The subjects are related to one another, but retain their individual identities (Salim, 2011:14).
- The process design is a learner-centred approach in which the key focus is not on the content or learning outcomes, but on the learners (O'Neill, 2010:1). It advances the



general processes that are applicable to all subjects. The process of how learners learn, and the application of the process to the subject matter are presented. It also focuses on critical thinking procedures and dispositions that will enable the learners to analyse their everyday contexts, and create frameworks to organise knowledge (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:252).

- A learner-centred design is used to enable the learners to make informed decisions. The above includes various designs, namely the child-centred design, such as experience-centred, romantic, and humanistic designs (O'Neill, 2010:1).
- In the child-centred design, the emphasis is on the learners, and what and how they learn. This approach is based on the interests and lives of the learners who, under the guidance of the teacher, determine the learning objectives and resources to achieve the objectives (Harden, Sowden & Dunn, 1984:4).
- The experience-centred design focuses on the experiences and behaviour of the learners, which should be the starting point of learning inside and outside of the classroom (Wolsk, 2005:1). The teacher also commences the lesson with the learners' prior knowledge, and assumes the role of a facilitator. The advantage of the design is that it develops critical thinking (Manganye, 2001:133).
- The romantic design promotes the view that schools need to be changed to avoid indoctrination, and limit authority. Power should be shared among teachers, parents, pupils, curriculum specialists and inspectors (McKerman, 1983:1). Hence, the purpose of education is to inform the masses about their rights. Critical theory is used for their emancipation and the achievement of the educational goal. It challenges and promotes different views of the content and the purpose of education. The aim of the above design is to foster democratic empowerment, social justice and respect for diversity (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:257).
- Humanistic designs are connected to existentialism, and the focus is on the notion that a child learns through the sense of achievement. Hence, teachers develop the learners' self-esteem and self-efficacy by encouraging them to feel good about themselves, and to believe that they can achieve the proposed goals. The teacher is a facilitator (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:257).

The problem-centred curriculum design focuses on the individual and social problems of life (Zais, 1975:413). Proponents of this curriculum promote life situations, core and social

problems, and reconstructionist designs. The problem-centred curriculum design emphasises activities that sustain and enhance life. It also focuses on problem-solving procedures for learning, subject matter that is linked to real-life situations, and the increase of the relevance of the curriculum.

- The core curriculum design unifies the core subjects to achieve coherence of the total curriculum. It provides general education for all, and is based on problems arising from common human activities. The content is unified, presents subject matter that is relevant to the learners, and encourages them to actively process information (Zais, 1975:420). Both problems-centred and reconstructionist designs focus on social problems and society needs that reconstruction which can be achieved through education (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:264). The primary purpose of the curriculum is to engage the learners in the analysis of the major problems that humankind is faced with, and the school plays a major role in the creation of a new order by addressing contemporary social problems towards the reconstruction of society. By engaging learners in a critical analysis of the local, national and global communities, they will then take note of the practices of business and government groups, and their impact on the economic realities of the learners (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:264).

### **2.3 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

The concept of curriculum development is defined as a planned, purposeful, progressive and systematic process that facilitates positive improvements in the educational system. For Print (as cited in Ndlovu, 1997:20), curriculum development is the process of planning, implementing and evaluating learning opportunities intended to produce the desired changes in learners. McGowan (2003:1) agrees that the four important questions that the curriculum developer should answer are: What educational purposes should the school achieve? What educational experiences can be provided? How can the educational experiences be effectively organised? and How can they determine whether the purposes are being attained? The latter refers to the process of how to decide what to teach and learn, with all the considerations that are needed to take the decisions (Aliyewa, 2015:16). As a result, curriculum development involves the selection and coordination of four elements, namely: the purpose or educational objectives, learning content, teaching methods, and assessment procedures.

### **2.3.1 Perspectives related to curriculum development**

According to Mitchell (2016:48), curriculum developers focus either on the learners and learning goals, or on the influence of the teacher and his/her actions on the teaching and learning process. This dichotomy forms the basis of the distinction between the technical and nontechnical approaches to curriculum development (Rulloda, 2010:2). An elaboration of each follows.

### **2.3.2 Technical-scientific perspective to curriculum development**

From the technical-scientific approach, curriculum development refers to a plan or blueprint in which the focus is on knowledge acquisition, and what knowledge is the most important for learners (Mitchell, 2016:48). The learning environment is structured using well-integrated elements such as the personnel, materials and equipment. In the technical-scientific approach to curriculum development and planning, a rational and linear process is followed, and every lesson, goal and objective has to conform to the predetermined principles, cultural aspects, social structures, and curricular guides (Slattery, 1953:274). The teaching and learning procedures are systematically outlined to facilitate the curriculum process. The teacher has to design and facilitate activities that will inform the teaching and learning process which are derived from the educational objectives. The curriculum designer then prioritizes what the learner will be learning from the specific subject matter, and the goals and objectives that the learner has to achieve (Rulloda, 2010:2). The objectives are the point of departure; and the curriculum developer determines the outcomes that need to be attained, the content that should be taught, the approach that will be followed, and the assessment methods that will be applied.

The subject matter analysis is another important aspect of the technical-scientific perspective of curriculum development and focuses on subject content. The subject content should be broken down into teaching-learning units for the learners to construct their own meaning (Lunenburg, 2011:4). According to Lunenburg (2011:4), each unit consists of key concepts, main ideas and specific facts. Ornstein & Hunkins (2004:205) explain that the learners' understanding of the concepts and facts is better achieved through a master design chart, i.e. a summary of information from the subject matter experts. The learning content is then organised in a chronological manner so that the relationships between the concepts, topics and

generalisations of the topics can be identified. The teacher then analyses the activities and decides on which activities the learners might engage in to learn the selected content. After the information regarding the content and the methods of teaching has been obtained, the master plan is created, which indicates the teaching and learning materials, and how learning will be evaluated. The objectives are then linked to the content to address the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of Bloom's taxonomy (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:206).

### **2.3.3 Non-technical perspective to curriculum development**

According to Neill (2010:10), the non-technical approaches to curriculum development are subjective, personal, aesthetic and learner focused. This is supported by Rulloda (2010:2) who asserts that, in the non-technical approach to curriculum development, the curriculum developer takes into consideration the types of learners that would benefit from the learning process. Magboro (2012:4) explains that these approaches emphasise the learner, rather than the output. The curriculum is transposed to the learner, but still retains the basic components, namely the subject matter, objectives, learning experiences and evaluation. The curriculum evolves, rather than being planned. Offorma (2014:86) concurs that a revolving curriculum means that the feedback obtained takes the entire process back for improvement. In this way, the curriculum becomes a cyclic activity. Once the cycle has been followed, it begins at step one and continues onward to continuously improve the curriculum in terms of any changes that may have been imposed, or evolved naturally (Hyera, 2015:1). Non-technical approaches are activity-orientated, and emphasise the use of activities as major learning experience for the learners. The important concept is that learners are actually creating and participating in their own learning (Rulloda, 2010:3). In this way, the non-technical approach to curriculum development employs contemporary educational philosophies with a holistic view of learning (Mitchell, 2016:50). Activity-orientated learning is consistent. According to Pasigu (2012:1), the progressive curriculum developers view the curriculum as flexible, based on areas of interest, and using a life-experiences approach for future social development.

The most recognised non-technical models of curriculum development include the deliberate and post-positivist models (Magboro, 2012:4). According to Hannay (1989:194), in the deliberative model practical problems are properly addressed through a process of deliberation. It presents opportunities for individuals to reflect upon their past practices, and to formulate

new conceptions of practice. The implication for the curriculum development process is that the teachers, together with the learners, engage in problem identification and framing as point of departure. The problems include authentic issues that they are confronted with, such as problems with subject matter, failure to achieve, and lack of interest.

The post-positivist perspective is a move away from the dogmatic view of positivism, and is a research-oriented approach which views knowledge as dynamic and socially constructed (Dancy, 2006:6). The teaching approach focuses on the process, and not the teaching content. The role of the teacher is that of collaborator, using constructivist methods of inquiry to foster knowledge construction, and encourage independent thinking (Dancy, 2006:6).

Hence, the non-technical approaches are different from the technical approaches that are viewed as rigid and book centred. However, Offorma (2014:87) cautions that, although there is no perfect approach, for a curriculum development approach to be effective it must be accepted by teachers and the other education stakeholders.

#### **2.3.4 Models of curriculum development**

Mishra (2013:6) asserted that a curriculum model is a curriculum design format developed to meet the unique needs, context, and/or purpose of the curriculum. In order to identify the curriculum goals, curriculum developers often adopt one or more curriculum model(s). A curriculum model is adapted by designing and/or rearranging the curriculum components, namely the content, resources and assessment (Mishra, 2013:7). In terms of the components, content refers to the teaching and learning material which is selected and properly organised, while resources are about the selection of appropriate materials to incorporate into teaching methods. Assessment involves the determination of the achievement of the objectives. A discussion of some of the curriculum models relevant to this study follows.

The deliberate curriculum development model contains a deliberative process whereby the teachers reveal their ideas to the learners, and together they plan an educational journey with constant feedback and adjustments (O'Neill, 2010:6). This model focuses on the content selection, procedures and questions. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:210), determining the curriculum content comprises six stages, namely highlighting the agreements,

explaining the positions, identifying the position changes, negotiating the points of agreement, and adopting the decisions. In the final stage, the role-players agree on the nature and purpose of the curriculum, and the curricular topics are then specified; and the pedagogy, educational materials, the school environment, implementation strategies, and assessment procedures are outlined. In this regard, Alvior (2015:1) explains that the curriculum content should assist the learners to attain maximum self-sufficiency by giving them the chance to observe and experience. According to Alvior (2015:1), the learner-centred curriculum content focuses on interest, learnability and feasibility. It means that the content selected should be meaningful, appropriate to the learners' schema and experiences, and be achieved within the given time.

The conversational model of curriculum development creates knowledge by means of consultation and conversation (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:212). The opportunities for conversation comprise of five phases, namely reflecting on the interests; clustering of interests; deciding on essential questions; sequencing of the questions and decisions about the problem questions; and finally, the construction of the contexts (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:210). Designers who follow this model identify what the learners ought to learn and know, how they must behave, and how the curriculum should be used to create opportunities for conversation. The importance of the communication between the teachers and the learners is also highlighted in the educational setting. According to Bramer (2003:1), the social context and human interaction often provide resources for teaching and learning.

The positivist postmodernist model is an intentional departure from the previously dominant modernist approaches to curriculum development, such as scientific positivism, empiricism, rationalism, realism, constructivism, formalism and metaphysics (Mumby, 1997:5; Rajshree, 2012:1). According to Mumby (1997:5), the modernist tradition of curriculum development is an approach in which knowledge and truth are equated with the scientific method. It postulates that reality exists, and that there is an inherent truth behind the phenomenon. The postmodern curriculum perspective, on the other hand, represents a shift in focus from the discrete to the complex, from the predictive to the relational, and from the linear and determinant to the self-generating and indeterminate (Doll, 1993:3). In this approach, the contextually-bound socially constructed nature of reality is used as a starting point, and individuals (teachers, learners and parents) take part in the open process. Therefore, it is viewed as a dynamic means of curriculum creation (McKenna, 2004:217).

## 2.4 CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

According to UNESCO (United Nations Education Science and Cultural Organisation, 2016:1), the concept ‘curriculum’ refers to “... the systematic and intended packaging of competencies (i.e. knowledge, skills and attitudes that are underpinned by values) that learners should acquire through organised learning experiences both in formal and non-formal settings...” Obilo and Sangoleye (2010:1) confirmed that the concept ‘curriculum implementation’ implies an act of the teacher who is translating the curriculum document into classroom action. The teacher then implements the planned learning programmes, while the learner engages with the planned learning opportunities. For them (Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010: 1), curriculum implementation is the stage in the curriculum process where the learners, through the guidance of a teacher, interact with the learning activities to maximize learning in terms of his/her new behaviour. It is the stage during which the planned learning programmes are conducted by the teacher so that the learners can achieve the educational objectives.

The four important phases in the curriculum implementation process are the following:

- addressing the needs and resources required for the achievement of the intended outcomes
- careful planning, communication with and support to the teachers
- allowing sufficient time for the teachers to introduce the new curriculum; and
- introducing modifications and new processes in small and gradual steps

The above mean that teachers should have access to the communication between the role-players in and out of the school; support should be given to assist the teachers to understand the concept of curriculum, and how it was developed and implemented with the support of the principal and other teachers, and an approved budget and funding for teaching and learning support material should be made available (Bojanic, 2004:01; Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010:1; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:303; Yusof *et al.* 2014:7).

In the next section, the following aspects related to curriculum development are going to be outlined, namely the implementation models, the stages in curriculum implementation, the implementation strategies, and the curriculum implementation as a change process.

### 2.4.1 Curriculum implementation models

According to Mitchell (2016:45) and Yusof *et al.* (2014: 7), the implementation of a curriculum is more than the provision of new materials for the prescribed subjects. It requires an understanding of the purpose of the programme, and the functions of the various role-players, and the beneficiaries of the new curriculum. Any curriculum implementation needs planning and continuous improvements. The planning and implementation of a curriculum can occur according to different models:

- The first curriculum implementation model is the overcoming resistance to change model. According to Yusof *et al.* (2014:13) the success or failure of the model depends on the leaders who have to address the resistance to change. They argued that change may be facilitated by guidelines to address the role-players' fears and doubts; take their values and perspectives into account; and provide the school administrators and teachers with equal power in terms of the discussions and decisions. The following notions are of prime importance in the above process: equal power between the management and teachers; involvement of the teaching staff in the deliberations related to creation of the programme; and shared power between the curriculum developers and the "subordinates" by allowing the latter to participate in the decisions, and to address their unrelated, personal and task-and impact-related concerns (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:300; Yusof *et al.* 2014:13).
- The second implementation model is the organisational development model that emphasises teamwork and the organisational culture (Young, 1990:132). The organisational development model focuses on the notion of control over the role-players using a clear set of policy statement instructions. This approach focuses on action research and consultants and is an ongoing interactive process. The key assumption in this model is that individuals care about their future, and want to be actively engaged in the design, development, implementation and evaluation of the educational system (Gundy & Berger, 2016:1).
- The concern-based adoption model is the third implementation model and is closely related to the organisational development model (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:315). However, in this model all changes are personal and occur within the individual. For it to be successful, individuals must accept ownership of the process. The model



focuses on the adoption and implementation phases. The curriculum is not successfully implemented until the teachers' concerns have been addressed, they are involved where applicable, and the curriculum was adapted to the needs of the learners (Yusof, Sidin & Sihes, 2014:15).

- The fourth implementation model consists of the organisational parts, units and loops model which involves individuals who assume co-responsibility within the organisation. Those in the “higher” teams work with those in the “lower” teams for teachers to realize that the school is an organisation of loosely functioning units, departments, classrooms and individuals. The main assumptions of this model are that individuals are responsible for a major part of the innovation, and the other team members are their equals and should be treated with respect, support and trust. The minor team members will also respect, support and trust their superiors (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:317).
- According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:317), in the fifth model, the educational change model, factors such as the need for change should be known, and the goals and means of the change have to be conveyed to all role-players. The latter should understand the rationale for the change, and how the goals will be achieved. Change should occur swiftly, and the role-players should understand the quality, worth and practicality of the innovation (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:318). If the innovation does not result in the intended outcomes, an information dissemination of the process should determine whether poor plans were implemented, or whether the teachers were unable to implement the scientifically-sound ideas (Fullan, 1994 as cited in Brummelhuis, 1995:3). For the purpose of this study the educational change model was used.

#### **2.4.2 Stages in curriculum implementation**

Curriculum implementation refers to the integration of the instructional content, arrangement, interactions, management, and assessment in the classroom (Lim in Mufanechiya, 2015:16). This occurs after the teachers have been prepared for the changes, and it comprises three stages: the initiation, implementation, and maintenance stages. The initiation stage refers to the processes that eventually led to the decision to accept a specific innovative proposal. It is the “setting of the stage” for the implementation process (Altrichter, 2005:1). At this stage, the

curriculum developers decide who will be involved, and what level of support is needed. The second stage is the actual curriculum implementation stage. According to Nieveen and Plomp (2017:4), it is the stage to put the ideas or reforms into practice. During this stage, the innovation is presented to the role-players, and they are motivated to apply it in their classrooms. This is known as the doing stage. The final stage is known as the institutionalising or incorporation stage. Change is constructed as an ongoing part of the implementation. (Nieveen & Plomp, 2017:4).

### **2.4.3 Implementation strategies**

Cho (1998:4) distinguishes between three implementation strategies based on the positivist, post-positivist and constructivist paradigms. In terms of the positivist paradigm, the curriculum implementation strategy is based on behaviourism and focuses on the behaviour of the teacher, measured by means of a prescribed instrument. The fidelity implementation strategy is an example of this paradigm. According to Bodhanya (2014:130), it is generally considered to be fixed, tangible and unchanging. The change process happens in a technical and linear manner, and reality is viewed as static and transmissional. It means that the curriculum has to be used as originally intended by the developers (Cho, 1988:4). The second implementation strategy is the adaptive strategy, which is grounded in post-positivism. From this perspective, the innovation is constantly modified, redefined and revised during the implementation within the institution (Altrichter, 2005:2; Karip, 1996:4). The third and final implementation strategy is based on constructivism, also known as enactment. According to Bodhanya (2014:130), enactment is based on the constructivist approach in which there is no objective reality. The implication of this is that since all that exist are symbolic the teachers and the learners jointly and individually enact the curriculum to create knowledge (Bodhanya, 2014:130). It also entails the interaction of the teacher and the learners to make meaning in the classroom using educational experiences shaped by the ever-changing “construct” (Remilard & Heck, 2014:3). Enactment is seen as a move away from the technical and linear implementation strategies. Given the above, Cho (1998:4) concludes that not only enactment, but a mix of strategies can be effective in formulating a curriculum implementation policy. For the purpose of this study the constructivist implementation strategy was used.

#### 2.4.4 Curriculum implementation as a change process

After the dawn of democracy in South Africa in 1994, the government introduced Curriculum 2005 (C2005) to redress the past racial inequalities caused by the apartheid education (Umalusi, 2014:38). Following the implementation challenges, two more curricula were implemented, namely the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R to 12, and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) Grades R to 12 in 2008 and 2011 respectively. When the new curricula were introduced to schools, they were not immediately welcomed, as implementation proved to be slower and more difficult than anticipated (Rowan and Grayson in Bantwini, 2009:83). Introducing a new curriculum was no assurance that challenges and problems would be overcome (Gutlin and Margonis, 1995; Fullan and Miles, 1992 in Bantwini, 2009:1). According to Chisholm and Leyendecker (in Bantwini, 2010:83), while there was an agreement on the aims of the reforms, there was evidence of deviation in practice. The Department of Education then launched programmes to help teachers understand the curriculum design, development and implementation; however, implementation remained slow, not because teachers were unwilling or were manipulated, but for Fullan (in Bantwini, 2009:83), change is a subjective process in which individuals construct personal meanings from the changes they experience. Thus, implementation was marred by objections and challenges, as new reform proposals were subjected to individual, collective, and institutional interpretations (Bantwini, 2009:83).

According to Barker (1989:1), curriculum implementation is about change, because it shifts the *status quo*. Hunter and Scheirer (1988:15) asserted that change may be explained from two perspectives, namely the technical and the non-technical perspectives. The technical perspective is based on the view that reality is objective, rational and logical. In this perspective, change happens in a linear process, and can be managed. The non-technical perspective, on the other hand, is based on the view that reality is subjective and related to the individual involved (Hunter & Scheirer, 1988:15). This perspective calls for mutual construction of the content and meaning by both the teachers and learners. According to Cheng (in Khumalo, 2014:25), the change process occurs in three stages. The first or unfreezing phase is where it is accepted that the *status quo* should be changed. The institution then reflects on strengths and weaknesses and prepares the human and non-human resources to adapt to the changes. The latter results in the second stage, the changing stage. During this stage, the

implementation is introduced and managed. It involves the monitoring process, i.e. the clarification, motivation and promotion of the new structures and ideas. The last stage is known as the refreezing stage that focuses on the identification of the positive outcomes of the change, and the removal of the negative effects (Cheng in Khumalo, 2014:25).

Therefore, those who are responsible for the curriculum implementation process need a good understanding of the purpose of the process and functions of the role-players and those who were affected by the process (Yusof *et al.* 2014:15). Knowledge of the above processes will enable the developers to implement actions which are not in conflict with the organisation (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:307).

## **2.5 CHANGE AND RESISTANCE**

Brummelhuis (1995:1) argues that "... people do not resist change; they just don't know how to deal with it." Beitler (2005:1), on the other hand, also confirms that many organisations do not follow a systematic approach in the planning and implementation of change. Failing to follow the systematic approach may result in change resistance. Given the latter, teachers may resist the change due to a number of reasons. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:310) argued that the lack of the necessary funding for the creation of the curriculum and its delivery within the classroom is one of the reasons for resistance. Some of the other reasons are, according to Yusof *et al.* (2014:3), a lack of ownership, administrative support and benefits, and the increased burden, and reduced security due to the sudden and often major changes. The teachers may also be "comfortable" with the traditional teaching contexts, and view the changes as a challenge to their teaching beliefs and methods. Hence, for them the changes can be a negative experience, and they may be reluctant to accept the changes for fear that they may be followed by more changes.

To avoid resistance to change, Beitler (2005:1) suggests seven points to be considered in the planning of curriculum change. These points are: the involvement of the people who will be affected by the change; the provision of a good rationale for the change; the appointment of a champion for change; the creation of a transition management team; the provision of training in new values, skills and behaviour; the bringing in of outside assistance; and the rewarding of the role-players involved in the changes (Beitler, 2005:4). Cho (2005:4) confirms that

comprehensive implementation guidelines are important for any successful curriculum implementation. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008:7) suggested the following methods to manage the resistance. These include education, participation, skills training, emotional support, and negotiations, and coercion. For them, the value of the latter is to provide comprehensive information to the role-players. The participation should focus on strategies to improve the role-players' commitment, skills training, and emotional support and strategies. According to Kotter and Schlesinger (2008:7), negotiations have to take place when the resistance is experienced by a particular group such as people who are powerful and will be negatively affected by the change.

## **2.6 HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS IN SOUTH AFRICA BETWEEN 1998 AND 2011**

### **2.6.1 Introduction**

Before explaining the nature, origins and character of the new democratic education system of 1994, it is necessary to look at the education that was offered prior to 1994 (Makhoba, 2004:24). According to Dakude-Magaqa (2003:33), education in South Africa before 1994 was characterised by a uniform and autocratic curriculum policy context managed by the apartheid government under the leadership of the National Party. Mde and Mothatha (in Adu & Ngibe, 2014:33) explained that the formal and legal separation of schools according to race and ethnic groups started when the National Party came to power in 1948. Mokhoba (2000:24) added that, shortly after coming to power, the National Party appointed a commission of enquiry under the chairmanship of Dr W.W.M. Eiselen to investigate the Bantu education system. In 1951 the commission published a report which was a blueprint for Bantu education in the next decades. Bantu education was introduced in terms of the Bantu Education Act of 1953. The administration of Bantu education was moved from the missionaries to the Department of Bantu Affairs. It was under the management of the Department of Bantu Affairs that the quality of the education for the Africans, Coloured and Indians declined. This was as a result of the lack of adequate funding. The amount of money spent by the government on quality education for Africans, Coloured and Indian learners declined. According to De Waal (2004:14), the National Party based its rationale for its educational policies on the Christian National

Education (CNE) philosophy, which was based on the principles of Calvinism and Afrikaner Nationalism. Calvinism is a philosophy based on Calvin's teachings, and the interpretations of theology by his followers (Lebeloane & Madise, 2009:1). According to Dennis Francis, it entailed fundamental pedagogics which emphasised diversity in terms of race and ethnicity within an unquestioned Christian commitment. Afrikaner nationalism on the other hand is a nationalist movement that believed in the freedom and independence of Afrikaans-speaking people (Slabbert, 1974:4; Blaser, 2007:1). For Omeara (2007:1), the movement believed in the separate Protestant-Christian language and cultural community. It is viewed as a massive, political, social and ideological phenomenon that mobilised unity among Afrikaans-speaking communities through language, culture, religion, historiography, and social and ethnic dimensions (Blaser, 2007:17). Lebeloane and Madise (2009:1) explained that both Afrikaner nationalism and Calvinism were used to justify the superiority of one ethnic group over the others through the education system. According to Ngibe (2014:33) between 1948 and 1980 several legislations were passed to align the education system with the Calvinist and Afrikaner nationalist ideology. They included the Bantu Education Act (1953), the Extension of Universities Act (1963), the Coloured Persons Education Act (1963), the Indian Education Act 1965, and the National Education Policy Act (1967). These legislations made provision for the creation of education departments for Blacks, Coloureds, Indians and Whites. According to Prinsloo (1999:10), the new system led to racial fragmentation of education with different curricula. Thus, the CNE system was based on a non-democratic, centralised and racist policy, with a focus on euro-centric, sexist, authoritative, prescriptive, non-negotiable, neutral and discriminatory principles (Mde & Mthatha in Adu & Ngibe, 2014:33).

In 1984, a tricameral parliament (parliament of three chambers) was formed in terms of the South African Constitution of 1983. In terms of the latter, a new parliament was formed which included the three chambers for the country's Coloured, Indian and White communities. With limited political power, the Coloureds and Indians could run their own education, but Black education was separated from the latter under the auspices of the Department of Education and Training (Dukada-Magaqa, 2003:34). In this way, the education system remained segregated with poor funding for the black majority. Mailula (2004:12) concludes that there was a need to close the gap between "... the state sanctioned and funded quality education for the minority and gutter education for the majority...". Following the dawn of democracy in 1994, the new government introduced an appropriate national education system (Mokhoba, 2004:25). The

newly established Republic of South Africa, established by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), resulted in the design of an inclusive education for all races (Mokhoba, 2004:25).

In 1997, Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was implemented in South Africa (Chisholm, 2015:10; Jansen, 1998:1). The rationale for the new curriculum and the subsequent curriculum changes were explained by Pretorius and Lemmer (in Mataboli, 2008:24) as, "... transforming the South African society into a democratic, equitable and highly productive society." One way of achieving the societal transformation was through the education system (Palmer & De Klerk, 2011:61). The change was necessary to address the legacy of the racially and ethnically fragmented dysfunctional and unequal education system inherited from the apartheid era. Van Eden (2008:107) confirmed that the post-1994 the education system resulted in the changing of the core curricula, and that it was a move away from the apartheid education system. De Waal (2004:3) concurred that C2005 was viewed as a planned framework and process of innovation underpinned by factors such as redress, access, equity and development. The objective was to replace the legacy of the apartheid education, and to move South Africa into the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The change meant changes in terms of equity and equality for all South African citizens, and it (Curriculum 2005) was seen as the first statement towards a democratic dispensation in South Africa which signalled a break from the discriminative apartheid system (De Waal, 2004:4).

After the introduction of C2005, two more national curricula were introduced. The first one was the National Curriculum Statement Grade R-12 (2002). A survey of the curriculum literature revealed the problems related to the design features of C2005 (1998) and the issues pertaining to its implementation. Molepo (2014:10) explained that the review committee was appointed in 2000 by the then Minister of Education, Prof Kader Asmal. He concluded that C2005 needed improvement and recommended the streamlining of its design features. A revision panel of experts was appointed in 1998 to investigate the nature of the challenges, and problems experienced with the implementation of C2005. They recommended among others teacher orientation sessions and training workshops, the development of learning support materials, and provincial educational support to the schools. As a result of these recommendations, the new Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (RNCS) and the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (NCS) were introduced in 2002 (Du Plessis

& Marais 2015:1). The two curricula were later combined into the National Curriculum Statement Grade R-12. Badugela (2012:10) explains that the primary aim of the NCS (2002) was to benefit the South African society and to equip to the learners with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that would enable active participation in a democratic society.

In 2009, the then Minister of Education, Minister Angie Motshekga, appointed a task team to review and revise the NCS of 2002. This came after challenges were raised by teachers, the teacher unions and eminent education and curriculum scholars. Du Plessis and Marais (2015:1) pointed out that the four main concerns were: complaints about the implementation of the NCS, the overburdening of teachers with administration, the different interpretations in terms of the curriculum requirements, and the underperformance of the learners. To address the concerns, the panel recommended that there should be a clear, coherent and easily understood five-year plan to improve the teaching and learning across the schooling system. The recommendations of the panel also focused on the following: effectively communicating the five-year plan to the nation; supporting the teachers; improving the learners' performance; and monitoring the implementation of the plan through external monitoring systems to assess the outcomes. This led to the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grades R-12 CAPS in 2011 (Zulu, 2018:2).

According to Ramokgopa (2013:29), the new curriculum represented a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools. It contained policy statements which explained how teaching should be done in terms of objectives, outcomes and assessment standards. Hence, it could be used in schools as a roadmap for guidance on what teachers ought to teach learners in the specified grades. According to Umalusi (2014), CAPS (2011) was an NCS (2009) improvement in terms of the following: reduction of workload for teachers, the use of plain language, provision of clear teaching programmes, user-friendly documents, specified content and skills to be taught, greater levels of pacing and sequencing of the teaching/learning content, and clear assessment guidelines. The new curriculum was not only a shift from outcomes-based learning in the NCS (2009), which was learner-centred and activity-based, to a more teacher-centred and content driven one, but the new curriculum adopted an active and critical approach to learning (Umalusi, 2014:45). Burbach, Matkin and Fritz (2004 in Bucnell, 2004:223) explained that an active and critical approach involves instructional methods that engage the learners in the learning process by using purposeful and self-regulatory judgement,



which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation and inference. It requires the learners to do meaningful activities and think about what they are doing. Umalusi (2014:57) noted that whereas the CAPS lacked the language vitality of the NCS it was a better educational approach in the current South African context.

## **2.6.2 Curriculum 2005 and the Outcomes-Based Education system**

After the transition to democracy was finalised in 1994, the democratically elected South African government was faced with the urgent need to dismantle the deeply flawed education system that it had inherited and in 1998 a revised curriculum, Curriculum 2005 was implemented in South African public schools (Ramokgopa, 2013:20). Curriculum 2005 was informed by the principles of the outcomes-based education (OBE) system, which informed the foundation of the post-1994 school curriculum (Chisholm, 2004:1). In terms of the White Paper on Education and Training (1995), a need was identified for a shift from the traditional aims and objectives approach to an outcomes-based education approach (Lombard, 1999:6). The White Paper on Education (1995) articulated a vision of transformation driven by the need for education and training to empower South Africans to participate effectively in all the processes and institutions of a democratic society. Jansen (1998:2) explained that the most immediate origin of OBE was in the competency debates in Australia and New Zealand respectively. Competencies were rephrased as outcomes by the Department of Education. It was the backdrop of this philosophical orientation that formed the basis for the curriculum design of C2005 (also see Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:299). The curriculum design process of C2005 will be discussed in the next section, with special reference to the meaning of the concepts, philosophical orientation(s), features, and main components.

### **2.6.2.1 Meaning of the concepts**

Curriculum 2005 refers to a curriculum that was promulgated by the South African Department of Education in 1997 and grounded in the principles of the outcomes-based education system (Chisholm, 2005:195). According to Du Plessis (2012:6), the then Minister of Education, Sbusiso Bengu, announced a process whereby the new curriculum would be phased in from 1998 to 2005; hence, the name Curriculum 2005 (Mailula, 2004:13).

On the other hand, the concept of outcomes-based education (OBE) is a term representing the educational philosophy and methodology implemented in South Africa from 1996 onwards, and which was implemented in Grade 1 from January 1998 onwards (Prinsloo, 1999:21). Van der Horst (in Ramoroka, 2007:15) asserted that it was an approach which requires educators and learners to focus on the desired end result. In the OBE system, learning is directed towards the outcomes that the learners should achieve. This system was viewed as a pedagogy that would facilitate human resource development, and potentially contribute to a vibrant economy (National Curriculum Development Committee, in Jansen, 1998:4).

### **2.6.2.2 Philosophical orientation of Curriculum 2005**

The philosophical orientation of Curriculum 2005 can be viewed from two perspectives. The first one is that Curriculum 2005 was underpinned by a progressive or learner-centred education philosophy (Mbatha, 2016:14). This view was supported by De Waal (2004:42), and he confirmed that C2005 employed methodologies that were used in progressive pedagogy, such as learner centredness, the teachers as facilitators, relevance, contextualised knowledge, and cooperative learning. The learners were encouraged to work closely together in the classroom, which highlighted one of the critical outcomes of the curriculum, namely that learners should be able to successfully demonstrate their ability to work effectively as members of a team, group, organisation, and community (Ramoroka, 2007:23). The second perspective of Curriculum 2005 was that the outcomes-based education system was based on the theory of social constructivism, a philosophy that promoted social transformation (Wydeman in Ramoroka, 2007:22). It means that the teachers were expected to be social reconstructionists and provide the learners with the opportunity to play an active part in the learning activities; take responsibility for their own learning; and acknowledge that the curriculum was related to the social, political and economic development of the South African society. Hence, it can be concluded that the new curriculum was introduced in South Africa as a tool for social reconstruction (Maluleke, 2015:16).

As was demonstrated earlier (see p. 3), the curriculum designers applied a philosophical orientation that was related to science, education, knowledge and society as sources for curriculum design. Nsibande (in Maphalala, 2006:23) asserted that the assumptions of the OBE system were that the skills, knowledge and attitudes that learners would acquire from the

curriculum would enable them to participate in the knowledge society of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. It means that there was a need for knowledge in terms of a specific society; hence the learner-centred approach took into consideration the knowledge that the learner possesses, and then used this as point of departure.

### **2.6.2.3 Features of Curriculum 2005**

Multiple authors identified the most important features of Curriculum 2005 (Mtetwa, 2003:39). Some of these features applicable to this study are discussed in this section. According to Chisholm (2003:3) and the Department of Education (1997, as cited in De Waal, 2004:44), C2005 was a form of outcomes-based education that was derived from nationally-agreed critical cross-field outcomes that provided a vision for a transformed society, and the role that education had to play in creating the envisaged society. The significance of the critical outcomes in terms of the National Education Policy Act of 1996 can be presented as follows: a provision was made for curriculum design tools, such as critical cross-field outcomes, specific outcomes, range statements, assessment criteria, performance indicators, notional time, flexi-time, continuous assessment, and recording and reporting. Additional tools were the phase organisers, programme organisers, levels of performance, and learning programmes. According to Mtetwa (2003:22), "... everything that anyone did at any level of the education system should be done to achieve the critical outcomes as outlined in the Policy document ...".

Chisholm (2005:4) confirmed that Curriculum 2005 was premised on critical elements which included learning areas and outcomes-based education. In the "new" Curriculum 2005, school subjects were changed to Learning Areas (LAs). Each of the Learning Areas had Specific Outcomes specified by a number of assessment criteria, each of which was further elaborated by means of a number of range statements and performance indicators. Specific outcomes referred to outcomes that learners had to demonstrate at the end of a learning experience (Prinsloo, 1999:37). Assessment Criteria constituted the evidence that the teachers had to look for in order to decide whether a specific aspect had been achieved. For Zulu (2018:1), the three main features of Curriculum 2005 were outcomes-based education, integrated knowledge systems, and learner-centred education. Maphalala (2006:81) highlighted the three design features of the curriculum as critical and developmental outcomes, learning outcomes, and assessment standards.

#### 2.6.2.4 Main components

For Vermeulen (2003:18), the main components of the post-1994 curriculum included the context, rationale, content, instructional methods and assessment. A brief discussion of the above components follows. According to Mofokeng (2005:10), the first component, the context, refers to the needs of the learner, and the nature and needs of the society in which the learners were learning, and the one in which they will live as adults. The second component was the rationale, and it served as the philosophical basis of the curriculum. According to the Free State Department of Education (2004b:16), Curriculum 2005 propagated a learner-centred approach with inductive techniques, independent learning, solving real-life problems, and group work activities. This was a result of an urgent need to develop South Africa's human resources through the transformation of education (De Waal, 2004:37). Regarding the learning content, Gultig *et al.* (2008:17) explained that teachers were expected to generate their own teaching content. However, this raised the concern that teachers could design and implement a *laissez-faire* curriculum, given that the curriculum was not content-based. Regardless of the latter, the learning content remained "... the means to achieve the desired outcomes, which are aimed at inculcating a basis for lifelong learning..." (Malan, 2000:24). In terms of the teaching methods, Mbatha (2016:16) contended that under the OBE curriculum teachers were allowed to choose their own teaching methods as long as the learners attained positive outcomes. Mailula (2004:4) demonstrated that it was emphasised that the teaching methods had to be related to the learners' personal experiences. To prepare the teachers for the use of the outcomes-based methodologies, instructional methods were demonstrated to the teachers during empowerment workshops, including the cooperative learning methods such as jigsaw and group-work (Mofokeng, 2004:72). Finally, in terms of the evaluation process, Curriculum 2005 presented the continuous assessment paradigm to determine the extent of learning that occurred during and after the learning experience (Blignaut, 2008:107; Mailula, 2014:3). The four main types of assessment presented were formative, summative, norm-referenced and criterion-based. According to the Department of Education (2003:36), formative assessment is any form of assessment that can be used to provide feedback to the learners. It monitors and supports the learning process. Summative assessment is used to record a judgement of the competence or performance of the learner. It provides a picture of a learner's competence at any specific moment. Norm-referenced assessment uses standardised tests to compare the current assessment with the previous assessment, and focuses on the correct and incorrect

sections of the learner's answers (Kampschuur & Chatterton, 2007:3). The opposite of norm-referenced assessment is criterion-referenced assessment, which compares the learners' learning to the standards and not the other learners' performance (Kampschuur & Chatterton 2007:3).

### **2.6.3 Curriculum development for Outcomes-Based Education**

According to Prinsloo (1999:42), the outcomes-based education (OBE) system was based on pragmatic behaviourist, and the child-centred experiential approaches. The former argued for observable responses, while the latter emphasised the role of the teacher and learners, and co-operative curriculum decisions related to constructivism, for example, where knowledge does not exist independently, but is constructed. For Vermeulen (2003:72), OBE curriculum development began with a situation analysis, which basically referred to the analysis and identification of the needs of a specific class, or grade at national, regional, school and classroom levels. The results of the situation analysis then empower the teachers to carry out micro-curriculum development for their classroom instruction and learning (Vermeulen, 2003:72).

The above process locates the curriculum development in a particular context. According to Vermeulen (2003:72), curriculum development has a broad scope; however, for the purpose of this study, it is viewed as the selection and coordination of four elements of the curriculum, namely the content to be taught; a statement of goals and objectives; the ways in which the objectives will be attained; and an assessment system to determine the activities of the learners. Maphalala (2006:24) recommended that, when developing a curriculum, teachers need to consider the following issues: objectives, content, organisation, and evaluation. Hence, curriculum development is about the purpose or educational objectives, the learning content, the methods of teaching, and assessment. Given the above, in the next sub-sections the OBE curriculum development process will be discussed with reference to the key curriculum elements as listed above, namely the objectives, content, methods, and assessment.

### **2.6.3.1 Aims, goals and objectives**

Noddings (2007:8) explained the relationship between aims, goals and objectives and asserted that aims are broadly stated educational purposes used to direct the formulation of goals and objectives. According to Lunenburg (2011:1), aims and goals refer to a general statement which describes the end of a condition, and a broad demarcation in terms of the subjects respectively. However, objectives are exact descriptions of the relevant behaviour required from the learners' achievements or outcomes, which have to be realised at the end of a lesson, or certain period of time. The objectives act as a roadmap for the curriculum development and implementation process. Within the OBE system, objectives were stated in terms of the outcomes; hence, the teachers needed to state the outcomes and plan how each of the outcomes could be achieved by learners through the content or subject matter that they learned (Lunenburg, 2011:1).

### **2.6.3.2 Learning content**

According to Vermeulen (2003:77), in curriculum development teachers were expected to consider a classification of the content using the level of development, the needs of the learners, the nature of the content, and the familiarity and degree of difficulty of the content. Learning content is what must be taught and learned, what the teacher has to convey to the learners. In other words, learning content refers to the "what" of the curriculum (Lunenburg, 2011:1). Lunenburg (2011:1) stated that curriculum developers have to determine what should be included in the curriculum, and how to present and arrange what is selected. They also have to formulate behavioural objectives that deal with the content or subject matter, as well as the learning experiences. The learning content is provided in textbooks and other applicable literature, such as articles, notes and self-designed modules. It is usually included in the teachers' work schedules, which include guidelines for effective teaching and evaluation materials. According to Mofokeng (2004:1), the then Minister of Education, Sbusiso Bengu, held the view that teachers did not necessarily need textbooks, and they were encouraged to design and produce their own teaching and learning materials. Consequently, the outcomes-based education paradigm placed less emphasis on the content, and more emphasis on the skills that the learners had to acquire.

### **2.6.3.3 Teaching methods**

According to Malan (2000:24), the outcomes-based education had three main features, namely it was needs-driven, outcomes-driven and used a design-down approach. Teachers have to analyse the learners' needs and determine the learning outcomes that learners had to achieve. As a constructivist approach to teaching and learning, the outcomes-based education system offered sources for dialogue between the learners and the curriculum, in which the learners interacted with the content and took responsibility for their own learning. In this regard, Mbatha (2016:16) argued that teachers were allowed to choose their own teaching methods as long as the learners attained positive outcomes. The teachers also had to identify the appropriate teaching strategies or methods that could facilitate the teaching of the content successfully. In identifying the teaching strategies or methods, the teachers were expected to consider ways and means that would familiarize the learners with the content in such a manner that it would result in effective learning using an active process in a conducive environment.

### **2.6.3.4 Assessment**

The final stage of the curriculum development was the evaluation or assessment, which was used to determine the extent of learning by selecting the most appropriate assessment methods (Harden, 1986:5). The purpose of the latter was to determine the extent of the learners' progress in terms of the realisation of the goal(s) and any further planning of the instructional and learning processes (Lombard, 1999:50). According to Malan (2000:5), the aims of OBE assessment are to assess the competences of the learners in totality. Every assessment activity had to integrate knowledge, skills and values as the main purpose of OBE assessment was to validate the learning outcomes. Assessment was ongoing and three types of assessment were used, namely diagnostic (determine any areas for development), formative (inform the learning process), and summative assessment (determine the achievement of the objectives) (Malan, 2000:5). It was done by using one of the following assessment forms: oral examinations, short-answer questions, multiple-choice questions, or essay questions. Prinsloo (1999:4) concluded that the former South African Minister of National Education (see p.17) had opted for a grassroots or decentralised curriculum when he remarked that teachers:

*“... will no longer be passive recipients of a curriculum that is built within the walls of a distant Department of Education but will have access to the construction and production of knowledge that is meaningful for a globally competitive and successful nation. This is the first rule of outcomes-based education: curriculum development is the task of teachers at the site of delivery.”*

It meant that the teachers were the ones who developed the curriculum. The classroom context was viewed as a place for curriculum development at a micro level and was an integrated part of the curriculum development process. Mbatha (2016:16) confirmed the fact that teachers interpreted and unpacked the curriculum for the learners in the classroom and assisted them to attain the status of being curriculum developers. The outcomes-based education system transformed the role of the teacher because the successful design, dissemination, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum depended on the final analysis of the teacher. With reference to the subject History, Outcomes-based education (OBE) put a strong emphasis on assessment methods that focused on developing historical skills in learners, and teachers had to adjust their assessment practices in that regard (Betrams, 2008:172). They were expected to assess high levels of cognitive processes by engaging with the Subject Assessment Guidelines for History, which outlined in detail how assessment should be undertaken. Learners' performance was administered on a regular basis, in terms of Continuous Assessment Strategy (CASS). All tests were based on a range of sources organized around a key question and concluded with a piece of extended writing. Teachers compiled memorandums and designed rubrics used to mark the learner's written activities, which was a challenge to many teachers due to a lack of training and textbooks. With more emphasis placed on skills, teachers had little content to work with. Betrams (2008:176) indicated that teachers struggled to make transition to pedagogy and assessment methods, a matter attributed to inadequate training. There were reports of teachers ignoring calls to change to new practices (Personal experience).

#### **2.6.4 Curriculum implementation models**

Given its dynamic organisational process, the implementation of Curriculum 2005 (1998) was done using various models, namely the organisational parts, units and loops model to communicate the new programmes to the stakeholders (Gultig in Badugela, 2012:4). In this model, the role-players' responsibilities overlapped within the organisation. The manner in



which those in the higher implementation teams worked with those in the lower implementation teams were eventually transferred to the lower implementation teams. Another implementation model that was followed was the educational change model, given that the clarity resided in the goals and procedures of the new curriculum. This was confirmed by the Department of Education (2005:5) when it was stated that the complexity of the change was addressed since those who implemented the curriculum had to understand its quality, worth, and practicality.

Curriculum 2005 also followed the cascade model (Jansen, 1994:4). In this implementation model, a core group of trainers at the higher levels of the system received training and disseminated the latter at various levels of the education system until all the teachers were informed about the ABC of the new curriculum. Jansen (1998:1) demonstrated that:

*“... an explosion of curriculum activity thundered across South Africa as committees of departmental officials, curriculum developers, subject specialists, teachers, lecturers, trade unions, and business representatives from Scotland to Australia assisted to translate the OBE system into workable units of information for teaching and learning which were to be ready for implementation in 1998....”*

The involvement of the different role-players was consistent with the notion that the implementation of the curriculum could not be left in the hands of the teachers only because it was too complicated. Any curriculum implementation needs supervisors to ensure that the curriculum is implemented properly, and the content taught in a pedagogically sound way (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:319).

However, when the implementation of the OBE curriculum started, most teachers experienced difficulties with the implementation of the basic principles, policies and guidelines (Mofokeng, 2004:3). According to Jansen (in Gultig, 2008:172), most teachers felt that their preparation for the OBE implementation was inadequate and incomplete, which caused uncertainty about whether their practices were in line with the OBE paradigm. He also asserted that the new curriculum was implemented in a top-down manner that strongly resembled the imposition of the apartheid curriculum. McCarthy (2008:1) explained that when an educational system mandates change from the top it can leave teachers feeling powerless to implement the changes. Jansen (in Gultig, 2008:172) stated that some teachers were doing what they felt comfortable

with, while others were attempting to organise their work within the framework of the new curriculum; and only a few teachers understood that their implementation resulted in a constant move between new policy requirements and the established conventions and practices. Hence, in the first term of 1998, half of the primary schools in the provinces, including those in the most rural schools, had ignored the implementation of the Curriculum 2005 system. Mofokeng (2004:3) added that teachers had to deal with daunting conditions, including overcrowded classrooms, a lack of textbooks and other basic resources – an indication that the introduction was not carefully planned or properly piloted. Then, as a consequence of raising criticism against the outcomes-based education system, a new curriculum process was introduced in 2000 to determine how C2005 could be streamlined and strengthened. Subsequently, C2005 was streamlined as a much simpler and more accessible curriculum framework (Jansen, 1994:5) The review of C2005 in 1998 facilitated the development of the revised National Curriculum Statement, Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement, Grade 10-12 in 2002 (Tshiredo, 2013:11).

## **2.7 CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT, AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT (NCS) OF 2002**

### **2.7.1 Introduction**

According to Nkosi (2014:5), when C2005 was introduced in 1998, it received fierce criticism from many role-players in South Africa. Consequently, the then Minister of Education, Prof. Kader Asmal, appointed a Ministerial Committee comprising experienced academics, bureaucrats and teachers to review the curriculum (Jansen, 2003:2). The possible reasons for the review were the problems related to the design features, complexity in terms of terminology, and difficulties in its implementation. Hoadley and Jansen (in Zano, 2015:12) added that the findings of the Review Committee were related to the language in the curriculum. The complexity, discrepancies, epistemology, curriculum content, and the priority given to integration were also identified. As a result of the above, the Review Committee recommended the strengthening of the curriculum by streamlining its design features, and simplifying the language through the design of an amended National Curriculum Statement (NSC) (2002). Maphalala (2006:20) pointed out that the amended National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (2002) introduced the following changes: the design features were simplified

into critical and developmental outcomes, learning outcomes, and assessment standards. The curriculum was aligned with the assessment procedures, and the curriculum requirements were simplified and clarified at various levels. A clear description of the kind of learner who was envisaged was also provided. An elaboration of the above is provided in the following subsections.

### **2.7.2 Background**

The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) was introduced in South African schools in 2002 (Mbatha, 2016:24; Nkosi, 2015:7). It was as a result of the problems experienced with Curriculum 2005. (C2005). The then Minister of Education, Ms Naledi Pandor, announced that the new curriculum was an internationally benchmarked curriculum which would inculcate in learners the knowledge and skills to actively participate in and contribute to a democratic South African society and economy. The NCS strived to implement the values of democracy, human rights, social justice, equity, non-sexism, non-racism and Ubuntu, as put forward in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 (DoE, 2005:4). In the next section, the NCS will be discussed in terms of its meaning, history, philosophical orientations, design features, development and implementation.

### **2.7.3 Curriculum design of the National Curriculum Statement NCS (2002)**

The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002 propagated the use of constructivist teaching methods to ensure more learner-centred teaching and learning in classrooms. (Aldridge & Frazer, 2004:1). The constructivist teaching methods were consistent with the learner-centred design of the statement. The learner-centred curriculum design included designs such as the child-centred, experience-centred, romantic-centred, and humanistic-centred. O'Neill (2010:1) explained that learner-centred designs are used where teachers feel that the learners should make more informed decisions. Harden, Sowden and Dunn (1984:4) added that in the child-centred designs the curriculum was focused to benefit the learners. The experience-centred design placed emphasis on the experience and behaviour of the learners. In this approach, the teachers commenced with the experience that the learners already possessed prior to their enrolment in school. This notion was supported by the baseline assessment requirements of the NCS (2002) (DoE, 2003:36). Baseline assessment is used to establish what

the learners already know and can do. Hence, the learners were not the absorbers of knowledge, but active participants in the construction of their own knowledge.

Van Etten and Smit (2005:1) confirmed that the outcomes as stated in the NCS of 2002 encouraged a learner-centred approach to education. The curriculum envisaged the kind of learner who has access to lifelong learning, and good quality education and training; hence, a learner who acted in the interest of society, and respect for democracy, equality, human dignity, and social justice (DoE, 2003:5). According to the Department of Education (2004:5), the kind of teacher envisaged was individuals who were mediators of learning, and interpreters and designers of learning programmes and materials. In the humanistic-centred design, the teacher was a facilitator, and not a disseminator of knowledge (Manganye, 2001:133; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). Given the above, the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002 was based on learner- and problem-centred curriculum designs. The problem-centred design included the life situations, core and social problems and reconstruction-centred designs. The core curriculum design aims to provide common learning to all learners, and this was done by the adoption of an inclusive approach to curriculum design by specifying the minimum requirements for all learners (DoE, 2003:4). The social problems and reconstruction-centred curriculum designs promoted school curricula that could address contemporary social problems. This was done by engaging all learners in a critical analysis of the local, national and global contexts (Zais, 1975:304). Given the latter, the Developmental Outcomes of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002 required the learners to be able to participate as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities (DoE, 2003:2).

### **2.7.3.1 Philosophical orientation(s)**

The NCS of 2002 was based on the educational philosophy of reconstructionism, given that it was described as participatory, learner-centred and activity-based education (Grussendorf, 2014:14). According to Diehl (2006:5), reconstructionism draws on socialist and utopian ideas; and the aim of the education system is to improve and reconstruct society by identifying its problems. The reconstructionist and socialist nature of the NCS (2002) document was revealed in its design principles. The new national curriculum was based on the principles of social transformation, outcomes-based education, high knowledge and skills, integration and applied competences, progression, articulation and portability, human rights, inclusivity,

environmental and social justice, valuing of indigenous knowledge systems, and credibility, equality and efficiency. Given this, the new curriculum included knowledge from both society and the learners.

### **2.7.3.2 Features**

The three design features of the NCS Grades 10-12 of 2002 were critical and developmental outcomes, learning area outcomes, and assessment standards (Vermeulen, 2005:49). According to Badugela (2012:23), the NCS Grades 10-12 (2002) comprised several documents which included the Overview document, the Qualification and Assessment Policy Framework, and the Subject Statements. The Overview document described the philosophical underpinnings of the curriculum. The Qualification and Assessment Policy Framework provided the mechanisms through which learner achievement could be recognised in terms of the FET exit level, the learning outcomes and the assessment standards, while the subject statements provided a guide to the requirements and expectations for each grade, and the key features of the subject and learning outcomes (Badugela, 2012:23).

Moodley (2013:18) explained that the NCS (2002) was clearly articulated in three policy documents, namely: the Subject and Learning Area Statement, the Learning Programme Guidelines, and the Subject Assessment Guidelines. The Subject and Learning Area Statement refers to statements that are specific to the subject and the learning outcomes, and the assessment standards that have to be achieved in the specific subjects. According to the Department of Education (2005:1), the Learning Programme Guidelines -which were developed for each of the 21 approved school subjects of the NCS (2002) – were intended to assist teachers and schools in the planning of the introduction of the NCS (2002), while the Subject Assessment Guidelines provided examples of good assessment tasks and examinations. Its purpose was to provide guidelines for assessment in Grades 10 to 12 (DoE, 2005:7). All learners in Grades 10 to 12 were required to study seven subjects from seven main fields, namely: physical, mathematical, computer and life sciences; human and social sciences; business, commerce and management studies; arts and culture; engineering and technology; agricultural science; and languages.

#### **2.7.4 Curriculum development of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of 2002**

In this section, the National Curriculum Statement (2002) is discussed in terms of its curriculum development. Firstly, the researcher will confirm the notion discussed earlier, namely that curriculum development is about the selection and coordination of the objectives, content, teaching methods and evaluation procedures. Secondly, curriculum development may be explained from a technical-scientific or non-technical non-scientific perspective. Like its predecessor, Curriculum 2005, the NCS of 2002 was outcomes-oriented (Nakedi, Taylor, Mundalamo, Rollnick & Mokeleche, 2012:9). All subjects, except for mathematics, had three learning outcomes. Learning outcomes were the objectives that had to be achieved at the end of every lesson. Wise (1975:1) suggested that better curriculum planning would be achieved if educators identified specified educational objectives before designing the activities. For that reason, teachers were encouraged to identify have learning outcomes (objectives) for every lesson (Noddings, 2007:1).

In terms of the learning content, the NCS (2002) included knowledge content that was not prescribed in C2005. The NCS of 2002 included clear specifications on what had to be taught and learned on a term-by-term basis (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015:7). It also gave teachers the advantage of planning their classroom activities and taking time to teach a specific theme until they were satisfied that all the learners had mastered the content. The content was specified for each grade and term. Thus, the curriculum made explicit what the teachers should be teaching the learners in each grade. The disadvantage of the NCS document (2002) was that the content was too broad, and that no clear curriculum structure existed.

About the teaching methods, teachers were encouraged to use teaching strategies that were based on constructivism (Mosala, 2011:24). Constructivism is a learner-centred approach to teaching in which the learners are engaged with the learning material to learn with understanding (Mbatha, 2016:19). It was a process in which a variety of learning opportunities were provided to the learners to construct knowledge. Although Du Plessis and Marais (2017:8) stated that the assessment methods were broad, and that the teachers had the opportunity to choose certain assessment standards and outcomes themselves, Moodley (2013:36) demonstrated that one of the issues contributing to the difficulties in the implementation of the

NCS (2002) was the question of whether there was clarity in terms of the effective use of assessment. There were no clear assessment policy guidelines, which resulted in confusion during the implementation process.

With regard to the curriculum development approach, it was clear that the NCS of 2002, was a combination of the technical and non-technical approaches to curriculum development. The NCS was a learner-centred approach based on the outcomes-based education paradigm. It was where the teaching and learning processes were planned to achieve prescribed certain learning outcomes. The new curriculum had clear critical, developmental, and learning outcomes, as well as assessment principles and standards (Zano, 2015:37). For this reason, the researcher concluded that the NCS document of 2002 was based on a technical approach to curriculum development. However, Zano (2015:39) disagreed and argued that the NCS (2002) was based on the discovery-learning approach. Given the latter, the curriculum development process was non-scientific and non-technical. Ramokgopa (2013:28) explained that the NCS (2002) encouraged the learners to work together and take responsibility for their own learning. This was typical of the learner-centred approaches. Hence, the development of the NCS (2002) followed a non-scientific, and non-technical approach. Hence, the teaching of the subjects did not follow a linear approach, but the teacher was free to apply and follow strategies that assisted the learners to construct their own new knowledge. It means that the teacher was not bound to rigidly follow prescribed teaching and learning procedures. Hence, the focus was not only on the delivery of the content, but also on the learner activities. It emphasised not only how the learners have to learn, but also what they have to learn.

### **2.7.5 Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (2002)**

Curriculum implementation is the process of how the planned or officially designed course of study and syllabus is translated by the teacher into schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to the learners in the classroom (Badugela, 2012:20). Mailula (2004) added that the curriculum implementation process was that phase during which the relevant curriculum design was applied to practice. For Ramokgopa (2013:15), in the classroom, the concept ‘implementation’ means getting teachers to shift from one programme to another. In this section, the curriculum implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (2002) is discussed with special reference to the curriculum models, curriculum implementation guidelines and strategies,

teacher orientation, provincial and school support system for the teachers, and the implementation timeframes.

It is the view of the researcher that the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (2002) followed the organisational parts, units and loops model in which the role-players in the schools worked as a unit to develop the school as an organisation. The concerns-based implementation model of C2005 was disregarded, because the teachers and critics of the latter curriculum raised concerns about the readiness of the teachers and schools to implement the curriculum. However, the latter concerns were ignored during the implementation process, because of the fact that the Department of National Education failed to prepare for the implementation of the planned innovation (Altrichter, 2005:1). The pre- and in-service teacher education programme of this time were also inadequate, given that they could not cover the content timely and comprehensively (Moodley, 2013:34).

The researcher concluded that C2005 (1998) and the NCS (2002) were introduced according to the enactment implementation strategy. Enactment is a constructivist implementation strategy in which the teachers and learners are given the opportunities to make meaning in the classroom (Nkosi, 2015:6). Although the NCS (2002) provided the kind of learners and teachers envisaged in the government documentation, Badugela (2012:12) explained that the implementation of the NCS (2002) did not involve a direct and straightforward application process. His view (Badugela, 2012:12) was that the teachers still used traditional teaching methods and the positivist perspective for the implementation of the curriculum. In terms of the latter, the teacher was still the only source of information, and the learners were the vessels that needed to be filled with knowledge, or the prescribed learning material. The positivist approaches to teaching and learning, such as rote-learning and the lecture method, were inconsistent with the newly reconstructionist outcomes-based education paradigm and system (Badugela, 2012:12). In the prescribed reconstructionist paradigm, the teachers were expected to apply the new approach, and select appropriate teaching content and strategies to enhance the learners' construction of knowledge in the classroom. On the contrary, in practice, the majority of teachers found it difficult to know what and how to teach due to a lack of training and resources (Badugela, 2012:51).

According to scholars such as Du Plessis and Marais (2015:2), Magongoa (2011:33) and Moodley (2013:36), the overall identified complaints and challenges that were encountered since 2002 with the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement document of 2002



were related to, among others, the curriculum policy and guideline documents, assessment practices, learning and teaching support materials, and teacher support and the education system per se. These were the main issues identified by a task team appointed by the Minister of Education to review the NCS (2002), with special reference to its contribution to teacher work-overload, and the lack of teacher support, and unavailability of appropriate teaching and learning materials. With regard to teacher work-overload, the NCS (2002) introduced a number of different assessment forms which increased the workload of the teachers. As a consequence, Du Plessis and Marais (2015:8) confirmed that one of the negative experiences of the teachers with the NCS document (2002) was the heavy workload. It is the view of the researcher (as a practising teacher) that the heavy workload negatively impacted the implementation of the curriculum. In terms of the NCS document (2002), the teachers had to develop their own work-schedules and learning programmes. Given the above situation, the situation was exacerbated by the multiple learning and teaching support materials that had to be obtained for school projects and class work for the many compulsory subjects (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015:7). The many additional teacher responsibilities were also time consuming, and included, among others, administrative responsibilities, especially the keeping of the learner portfolio files. Many of the teachers also felt that they did not get adequate support to cope with the heavy workload (Personal experience as practising teacher, 2011). In order to address the problem of inadequate support, the task team recommended that the nature of the classroom responsibilities of the teachers provided by the subject advisors should be comprehensively revisited and be specified in detail. With regard to the learning and teaching support material, the task team suggested that the role of the textbook in the classroom should be reasserted (Moodley, 2013:36). In terms of the timeframes, the Department of Education announced that the new curriculum would be introduced in Grade 10 in 2006, Grade 11 in 2007, and Grade 12 in 2008 (Moodley, 2013:36). The implication of the above for History was that the 2002 Revised National Curriculum Statement was an improvement of the previous curriculum in terms of outlining the content to be taught and assessment to be administered. History-teachers assessed integrated teaching and learning based on the principles of fairness, reliability and validity and flexibility, using a variety of instruments and methods (DoE, 2003:37). Continuous Assessment (CASS) covered a range of different assessment activities and events throughout the year using various kinds of assessment instruments and methods including observation, test and task-based assessment, and marking tools such as provided rating scales,

task lists and rubrics, of which the use remained a challenge to many history-teachers. Some teachers continued to use old assessment practices.

## **2.8 CURRICULUM DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT GRADES R-12 – THE CAPS DOCUMENT OF 2011**

### **2.8.1 Introduction and background**

The National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was introduced in South African public schools in 2012 as a continued effort to redress the educational imbalances of the past (Fru, 2015:1). Moodley (2009:1) added that the introduction of the new curriculum followed the review of the NCS in 2009. The first part of this section deals with the meaning, history, evolution, characteristics, nature, and the pros and cons of the CAPS document of 2011. In the second part, the design, development, and implementation of the CAPS document (2011) are discussed.

According to the Department of Basic Education (2011:viii), the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement of 2011 refers to the policy documents that stipulate the aim, scope, content and assessment for each of the subjects listed in the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (2002). An outline of the history and evolution of the CAPS curriculum document is provided in the paragraphs to follow. In July 2009, the then Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, appointed a task team to review the NCS of 2002. This followed the many concerns raised by the teachers about the challenges that they were facing with the implementation of the curriculum (Department of Education, 2011:7). The task team had to identify the challenges that negatively impacted the quality of teaching and learning in the schools and then propose mechanisms to address challenges. Their findings were as follows: the teachers were confused, overloaded, stressed and demotivated. In particular, the team identified four main concerns about the NCS document (2002), namely: complaints about the implementation of the NCS; teachers who were overburdened with administration; different interpretations of the curriculum requirements; and the underperformance of the learners (Du Plessis, 2013:1). To address the situation, the following recommendations were put forward: one clear and easily accessible policy document should be provided; a more streamlined curriculum should be

compiled; the focus should be on subjects and the essential subject knowledge; progression and continuity across the grades should be ensured; and assessment procedures and practices should be standardised (DBE, 2011:14). Additional recommendations were reducing the amount of teachers' administrative work; discontinue the learners' portfolios; give priority to English as a first language; reassert the importance of textbooks and their use in the curriculum; focus on curriculum training for teachers; and develop a coherent, clear and simple five-year plan to improve the practitioners' understanding of the NCS education system of 2002.

Consequently, in January 2010, various teams were appointed to develop Curriculum Assessment Policy statements for all the approved subjects for each of the grades (DBE, 2013:6). The outcome was a single, comprehensive and detail policy document that replaced the NCS of 2002, namely, the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, that was supported by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 (DBE, 2013:6). According to Molepo (2014:32), the rationale behind the introduction of the new curriculum was twofold, reduce the workload of the learners and educators, and the many learning areas.

### **2.8.2 Philosophical orientation of the CAPS document (2011)**

The purpose of the CAPS curriculum document of 2011 was to equip the learners with the essential knowledge, skills, values and attitudes for self-fulfilment (Palmer & de Klerk, 2011:61). According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:34), essentialism is a philosophy rooted in idealism and realism. Essentialists are concerned with the facts and knowledge, and an education system that emphasises the mastery of essential skills, facts and concepts as basis of the subject matter. This notion was captured in the recommendations of the task team that emphasised the importance of the curriculum content (Moodley, 2013:28). Grussendorff (2014:47) also argued that, given the theoretical framework, approach and organising principles of the CAPS curriculum, what was needed was a complete re-curriculation focused on a syllabus-type curriculum, embedded in an instrumental theoretical framework, within a teacher-centred approach. Hence, it was a shift from discovery-based learning to a more content-driven approach. According to Grussendorff (2014:18), this resulted in a shift in the status of the learner from being a participant in the learning process and a negotiator of meaning to a recipient of a body of predetermined knowledge. Therefore, there has been less emphasis on the development of critical thinking related to knowledge, validity and bias, as was

prescribed in some of the learning outcomes of the NCS (2002) (Grussendorff, 2014:18). However, the Department of Basic Education stated that the CAPS document (2011) did not contain a new curriculum but was an amendment of the NCS of 2002 (DBE, 2011:1). Furthermore, Du Plessis (2014:1) demonstrated that the debate about whether the new CAPS document (2011) was an amendment, a repackaging, or a re-curriculation is still going on.

### **2.8.3 Design features of the CAPS (2011)**

In view of its emphasis on the content, the new curriculum followed the subject-centred design (Grussendorf, 2014:21). In the subject-centred design, the curriculum is organised in terms of the content and sequence. The teacher uses a variety of teaching strategies to teach the required skills. The curriculum also emphasised the teacher education in terms of textbook use as a teaching and learning aid. Furthermore, the learning areas were referred to as subjects, and the number of subjects per grade was reduced from eight to six (DBE, 2011:34). For Grades 10 to 12, the approved subjects were organised into two main groupings: Group A the official languages at home and first additional levels, mathematical sciences, and human and social studies; and Group B agriculture, culture and arts and business, commerce and management sciences (DBE, 2011:34). In addition, the learning outcomes and assessment standards were renamed as topics and content respectively. In this regard, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (2011) was a return to the traditional understanding of subjects, and the reinsertion of clear discipline-boundaries (Grussendorff, 2014:18).

### **2.8.4 Characteristics**

The nature of the CAPS curriculum (2011) was set out as follows in an information booklet published by the Department of Basic Education:

“... the National Curriculum Statement is being strengthened in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in our schools. The National Curriculum Statement will focus on the content that must be taught per term, and the required number and type of assessment tasks each term for each subject. This will ensure that all teachers and learners have a clear understanding of the topics that must be covered in each subject ...” (DoE, 2013:6)

According to the Department of Education (DBE, 2011ii), the NCS Grades R-12 (2011) remains the policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools, and comprises the following: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS), National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and the National Protocol for Assessment (POA). It replaced the Subject and Learning Area Statements, Learning Guidelines and Assessment Guidelines for all the subjects listed in the NCS Grades R-12, and was intended to improve the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (Sethusha, 2012:11).

### **2.8.5 Curriculum development and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grades R-12 of 2011**

In this section, the curriculum development in terms of the related Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement document (CAPS) of 2011 is discussed from two perspectives. The first perspective is CAPS in terms of its objectives, learning content, methods of teaching and learning, and assessment in the classroom. The second-perspective relates to the curriculum development involved in the CAPS curriculum document as a technical scientific or non-technical scientific approach. When the CAPS document was introduced in 2012, the changes affected the existing concepts of curriculum outcomes and assessment standards. The latter was changed into the general aims of the South African curriculum (DoE, 2013:6). The changes clarified the specific aims of each subject, the delineated topics to be covered per term were listed, and the required number and type of assessments per term were listed to make it more accessible to the teachers (DBE, 2013:6).

About the learning content, Harden (1986:5) confirmed that learning content was a building block which equips the learners with the skills and/or knowledge to respond to a later section of the subject and course. The learners' intellectual abilities of critical thinking and the understanding of all subjects of the phase were developed. To be specific, the new curriculum was aligned to subject matter analysis as an important aspect of curriculum development (Harden, 1986:5). The subject matter analysis highlighted the importance of the content, as outlined in the master document. The subtopics were tabulated and totalled for each grade, while the importance of the place of the textbooks in the achievement of quality learning and

teaching was re-emphasised. The textbooks provided structure to the curriculum. The provision of lesson plans for teachers, and textbooks for the learners made the implementation of the content easier. Hence, the clarity in terms of the topics and content was an indication that the curriculum content knowledge was very important. With the CAPS curriculum document of 2011, clear guidelines were provided related to the pacing, sequencing and coverage of the curricula (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015:8). In this way, the level of content specification was more elaborated in the CAPS document (2011) than in the NCS (2002) (Grussendorff, 2014:47). With regard to the teaching methods, CAPS (2011) left very little room for individual interpretation of how to teach (Grussendorff, 2014:23). This was confirmed by the Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, when she said that CAPS is about what and not how to teach (Du Plessis, 2013:3).

With regard to assessment, the CAPS curriculum document (2011) was simplified by reducing the complexity and administrative load of the NCS document (2002) (Grussendorff, 2014:38). Thamae and Mamabolo (in Moodley, 2013:46) stated that, under the NCS of 2002, the use of various forms of assessment resulted in too much paperwork. In order to reduce the workload on learners and teachers alike, the projects would be reduced to one per learning area, and learners' portfolios were to be discontinued (DBE, 2009:7). More emphasis was placed on controlled tests and examinations and, consequently, the continuous assessment system. The CAPS document (2011) emphasised formal and informal assessment with the collation of formative and summative assessment products. It did not refer to assessment as an aid to diagnostic or remediating barriers to learning. Hence, the CAPS document (2011) was a comprehensive assessment-orientated curriculum that provided guidance to teachers in terms of the assessment forms and procedures to guide the assessment process. It also assisted the teachers in terms of the number of formal assessment tasks (Grussendorf, 2014:38).

Moodley (2013:42) added that three levels of planning were included in the CAPS document (2011), namely an overview, annual teaching plan, and the programme of assessment (POA). The overview provided the teachers with the scope of their subjects and grades, while the annual teaching plan provided topics per term. The assessment plan consisted of all assessment tasks for each grade and the number of assessment forms for each subject. Grussendorff (2014:37) pointed out that the NCS of 2002 comprised baseline, diagnostic, formative and summative assessment, with a distinction between formal and informal assessment. Under the

NCS document of 2002, the teachers were required to have a related school assessment plan, a teacher assessment plan, a teacher portfolio, a continuous assessment mark (CASS), a mark schedule and learner portfolio. This resulted in a heavy work load for the teachers. In terms of the CAPS document of 2011, the teachers were no longer required to design learning programmes, work schedules and lesson plans. The methods of recording included rating scales, task lists or checklists, and rubrics. Hence, the CAPS document of 2011 encouraged a technical-scientific perspective to curriculum planning and delivery as a result of its emphasis on teaching content, and clearly outlined teaching and learning procedures (Grussendorff, 2014:39). Regarding the history-teachers' assessment practices, informal activities such as class activities and homework were conducted on a weekly basis, and formal assessment tasks including assignments, projects, research tasks, standardized tests and examinations on a quarterly basis using a variety of assessment methods and forms and appropriate marking tools (DBE, 2011:32). Learners' performance focused on source-based and essay questions. Source-based questions assessed their ability to extract and interpret information, identify different perspectives, draw conclusions and synthesize information. Regarding essays assessed skills included the ability to demonstrate thorough knowledge, plan and structure essay and develop balanced argument (DBE, 2011:40).

#### **2.8.6 Implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 in Grades R-12**

According to Maluleke (2015:16) the concept 'curriculum implementation' entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabus and subjects. It is about the teacher translating the curriculum into practice in the classroom (Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010:1). Magongoa (2011:45) concluded that it was about the following of certain models, strategies and guidelines. Mbatha (2016:30) indicated that the policy-making process for CAPS (2011) was done in consultation with various key stakeholders, among others the parents and teacher unions. The CAPS (2011) came into effect in January 2012 (Du Plessis & Marais, 2015:6). The question asked was whether the stakeholders were given the opportunity to have a say in terms of the implementation models, teacher orientation programmes, support systems, and time frame. Du Plessis and Marais (2015:10) concluded that the CAPS implementation process in 2012 followed a top down-approach. The Department of Basic Education used the overcoming of resistance to change the curriculum implementation model. In this model, the fears and

doubts of the role-players were addressed and their values and perspectives considered (Kobuo, 2006:205).

The Minister of Education, Ms Angie Motshekga, addressed the fears of the teachers and the public when she stated that the review of the curriculum primarily followed the concerns and complaints of the teachers (Department of Basic Education, 2011:7). The Minister further explained that the CAPS document (2011) was not a new curriculum, but an amendment of the NCS of 2002. Another model used in the implementation of the curriculum was the concern-based adoption model (Own view, 2014). Hence, the curriculum implementation was preceded by an attempt to address the concerns of the teachers as implementers of the curriculum by reducing their workload and providing them with a clear timeframe for the implementation of the new curriculum. The Department of Basic Education also used the organisational development implementation model. The organisational development implementation model was used to bring about change and improvement in the organisation of the curriculum. The emphasis was on the notion of control over the implementers by providing policy statements in the form of a set of instructions for the teachers to follow. The curriculum implementation was also viewed as an ongoing interactive process; hence, the implementation of the in-service teacher education system (Young, 1990:132).

In terms of the teacher orientation workshops, Molepo (2014:17) indicated that in 2011 the provincial departments of education informed and assisted the schools under their jurisdiction with the planning, or the implementation of the CAPS curriculum in 2012. Du Plessis (in Moodley, 2013:49) maintained that the training was a prerequisite for the meaningful and successful implementation of the curriculum change. The implementation workshops were conducted by the Department of Basic Education and, additionally, the teacher unions organised in-service teacher development workshops to prepare the educators for the introduction of the CAPS document in their schools and classrooms in 2012. The training was conducted for the subject advisors from all nine provinces and was attended by approximately 3000 Further Education and Training (FET) officials, and a 1000 officials of the General Education and Training (GET) (Moodley, 2013:49). Molepo (2014:18) noted that though the Department of Basic Education arranged the teacher development workshops, some of the negative experiences related to the OBE and NCS training programmes were repeated. These include facilitators who were not well conversant with the CAPS document (2011), the lack of



post-training support, and the shortage of textbooks. For Molepo (2014:73), teachers expected the Department of Basic Education to provide adequate support for the implementation process to be successful. However, he asserted that, although there were problems with the management teams, in most of the schools the teachers received support from their school management teams. Regardless of the above, it was clear that the CAPS document (2011) was easier to implement than the OBE (2005) and NCS (2002) curricula documents (Personal view and experience, 2012).

Du Plessis and Marais (2015:11) concurred that, to a great extent, the CAPS curriculum (2011) was well-structured and covered all content areas, topics and sub-topics; and classroom examples, lesson plans, annual teaching plans, and assessment activities were provided. The resources to guide the teachers were also immediately available. Molepo (2014:72) concluded that most teachers were appreciative of the practical workshops related to the introduction of the CAPS curriculum (2012), and the curriculum was introduced in Grades R-3 and 10 in 2012, Grades 4-6 and 11 in 2013, and Grades 7-9 and 12 in 2014 (Du Plessis, 2013:3).

## **2.9 POST-1994 ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN HISTORY AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT**

### **2.9.1 Background**

Pellegrino (1999:1) asserted that societies have high achievement expectations of public schools. They expect learners to demonstrate the ability to analyse, synthesize and make inferences to resolve problems. In addition, in the document, Assessment and Reporting (2005:1), it was reported that if public goals regarding academic achievement are to be attained, assessment should be improved. According to Smith (2012:28), assessment is an important aspect of any curriculum as it is a determinant of the learners' learning. This view is supported by William (2013:1), namely that assessment is the central process in effective instruction because what the learners learn cannot be predicted with any certainty, and it is through assessment that it can be determined whether the instructional activities resulted in the intended learning. That makes assessment a bridge between teaching and learning (William, 2013:1). It means that, "... an integral relationship exists between assessment and curriculum..." and, as such, curriculum developers cannot separate the curriculum from the way in which it is assessed (Freedman, 2001:817). In that regard, assessment becomes important because it

reveals the quality of learner understanding and thinking (Assessment and Reporting, 2005:1). It is against this background that steps are taken to enhance teaching, learning and assessment in all subjects, including school history (Zainol & Rus: 2014:2). In this section a brief history assessment since 1994 is provided. That will be followed by the purpose of assessment and assessment as an integral part of teaching and learning. Finally, the focus will be on the forms of assessment in history.

According to Miller (2005:1), the history of assessment can be traced back to imperial China. 2000 B.C. Examinations were a requirement for political or economic power. Since then, educational assessment became a widespread practice in the twentieth century (Pellegrino, 1999:7). It was used for college admissions, to measure intelligence, assess learners' school performance and determine progress in the educational systems. The latter resulted in different assessments for different purposes (Kerubuwa, 2012:47).

Furthermore, assessment can be explained using different learning theories, such as the behavioural learning theory and the constructivist socio-cultural view (Dessie, 2015:20, Erwell 2005:1, and Sewagegn, 2016:28). Assessment explained in terms of behavioural learning theories refers to a process to determine an individual's mastery of complex abilities, generally through observed performances (Erwell, 2005:1). According to Dessie (2015:20), behavioural learning theories emphasise the observable behaviour and the power of an external environment to determine what was learnt, rather than the performance of the individual. In this regard, the effectiveness of the instruction is judged in terms of the changes in the observable or overt behaviour of the learners. The behavioural assessment methods are the traditional forms of assessment which are unidirectional, semester- or year-based, and paper and pencil examinations (Fautley & Savage in Dessie, 2015:21).

Constructivism is a theory based on observation and the scientific study of how people learn and Mafenya (2016:10) proposes that learners' conceptions of knowledge "... are derived from a meaning-making search in which learners engage in a process of constructing individual interpretations of their experience ...". In respect of the assessment practices, it is not a separate examination at the end of the course but, rather, assessment methods that are integrated into the learning process itself (Mafenya, 2016:10). Sewagegn (2016:28) noted the following:

*“... that the learner is placed at the centre of the learning process, the learner is viewed as active rather than passive. Knowledge is not received from outside or from someone else; rather, the individual learner interprets and processes what is received through senses to create knowledge. From a constructivist view, an assessment is a systematic collection and analysis of information to improve the learner’s learning...” (Sewagegn, 2016:28)*

When constructivists assess the learners’ performance, they prefer to use assessment methods that either allow them to engage in a dialogue with the learners, or give them opportunities to observe a learner as he/she develops (Holt & Willard-Holt, in Sewagegn, 2016:44).

With regard to the significance of assessment, Brown (2012:2) explained that history teachers can use a variety of ways to get information about the progress of the learners’ learning. It can be used to inform the teacher not only about what the learners understood and to what extent, but can also reveal how he/she can assist them. In this way, the teacher obtained information about what the learners know, and to what extent they can apply the knowledge that they have acquired (Brown, 2012:2). It is clear from the above information that assessment is a process of gathering information about how learners are progressing in their learning, as well as what learners know and can demonstrate as a result of the learning processes (Uiseb, 2009:9).

## **2.9.2 Assessment as part of teaching and learning**

As stated above, assessment is integral to the teaching and learning process (Pellegrino, 1999:1; Wikstrom, 2007:8). The etymological roots of the concept “assessment” can be traced back to the Latin word’s *ad* (to sit) + *sedere* (beside) (Erwell, 2005:5). The latter refers to “sitting by”, that means to sit in the counsel or office of the judge to estimate the value of property for the purpose of taxing it. The latter refers to the practice that property was valued so that an amount of tax could be “fixed” upon it (Erwell, 2005:5). Thus, for the purpose of this section, the concept “assessment” implies the manner in which “... value is ascribed...” to teaching and learning (DOE, 2008:51). The teaching and learning processes are enhanced by effective questions which prompt learners to provide answers and, consequently, would encourage their active participation during a lesson and/or activity (Kitiashville, 2014:4). According to the Asia University (2013:2), during the assessment process, the teacher collects information through

class tests, oral questions and formal tests in order to gauge how much the learners understood of the learning content. Moreover, the teacher then uses the assessment results to make decisions about how to close the performance gap, or scaffold the learners' learning. This is done by diagnosing difficulties, verifying learning after instruction, identifying the prerequisite learning, and determining where to start in the learning sequence based on what the students already know (Asia University, 2013:2). Therefore, an assessment activity can enhance learning by providing feedback to the teachers and the learners, and to assess themselves and one another (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall & William, 2004:1). Hence, it assists the learners to improve their learning by providing different levels of instruction (Brown, 2012:2). Given the above, classroom assessment is an activity whose basic aim is to improve learning (Black *et al.* 2004:9; Brown, 2012:2 Sethusha, 2012:56).

## **2.10 Assessment forms in History since 1994**

Prior to 1994, South Africa followed a teacher-oriented and content-based curriculum (Du Plessis, 2012:59). Assessment under the drill and teacher-as-provider-of-knowledge approach emphasised the recall of knowledge (Prinsloo, 1999:18). The post 1994 curricula required a radical revision of the teaching approaches and assessment practices. Since then, the purpose of assessment has been to support teaching and learning (Blignaut, 2008:107; Mailula, 2014:3; Malan, 2000:5). When Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was launched in 1997, it was based on the outcomes-based education philosophy (Chisholm, 2005:195). Assessment practices were driven by the need to determine the achievement of specific aims. Hence, the former was used to validate the learning outcomes. According to Malan (2005:5), the C2005 assessment practices were ongoing, diagnostic, formative and summative; and the forms of assessment used included oral examinations, short answer questions, or essay questions.

The National Curriculum Statement 10-12 of 2002 (NCS), also a learner-centred approach, advocated the use of constructivist teaching methods to enhance more learner-centred teaching and learning in classrooms (Du Plessis and Marais, 2017:8). Supported by the philosophy of constructionism, the assessment methods were broad, and provided teachers with the opportunities to choose certain assessment standards and outcomes themselves (Du Plessis and Marais, 2017:8). Greater emphasis was placed on controlled tests, examinations and continuous assessment practices (Thamae & Mamabolo, in Moodley, 2013:31). Whereas the NCS of 2002

Subject Assessment Guidelines provided examples of good assessment tasks and examinations, Moodley (2013) pointed out that the lack of clear assessment policy-guidelines led to confusion in terms of the assessment procedures.

With the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in 2011, greater emphasis was placed on formal and informal assessments (see DBE, 2009:7). According to the Department of Education, the CAPS document was not a new curriculum. Consequently, no change in the philosophy and theory supporting the curriculum was made. Hence, CAPS is a comprehensive and assessment-oriented curriculum which provides guidance to teachers in terms of the assessment practices and also the number of tasks for formal assessment (see Grossendorf, 2014:38).

According to the Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2008:50), evidence of the learners' performance should be collected at different times and places, and with the use of various methods, instruments, modes and media. The Department of Basic Education DBE (2011:63) and Wikstrom (2007:6) both agreed that assessment comes in different types, methods and forms. According to Geysler (2004:92), assessment types are determined by the purpose of the assessment activities. Killen (2007:158-161) clarified the latter by referring to the purpose of assessment, such as to determine prior knowledge (diagnostic assessment), support teaching and learning (formative assessment) and determine competency (summative assessment) (Killen, 2007:158-161; Le Roux, 2004:174; SAQA, 2001:25).

Quanchi and So'o (2003:1) elaborated the three types of assessment methods in History as follows: Diagnostic assessment tests the learners' prior knowledge to establish the links to the new lesson (Quanchi So'o, 2003:1), for example brainstorming, a brief definition, concept mapping and informal questions. In terms of formative assessment, Klenowski (in Mafenya, 2016:27) explained that formative assessment is conducted frequently and in an ongoing manner during the learning process. It is intended to provide educators and learners with precise and timely information for the instruction to be adjusted in response to the individual learners' strengths and needs, and learning strategies, and different goals. Brown (2000:1) agreed that formative assessment can be used to assist the learners to develop the capacity of self-evaluation, which is an important component for any future occupation. Besides, teachers can also obtain feedback on the learners' learning, identify misunderstandings, and evaluate the

effectiveness of their teaching and modify and adapt their teaching (Brown, 2000:1). These include among others observations, discussions, practical demonstrations, conferences and informal classroom teaching. The results are not recorded, and the assignments may be assessed by either the learners, or the teachers, or both (DBE, 2011:45). Summative assessment, on the other hand, provides overall evidence of the achievement of the learners and of what they know, understand and can do by assigning a value to what the learners achieved (McCulloch, 2007:3). It is used to test whether the learners have achieved the objectives of the whole lesson, or series of topics, or the completed work at the end of the semester, term or year (Quanchi & So'o, 2003:1). The tasks are assessed using memoranda and/or assessment rubrics. Summative assessment tasks are marked, recorded and immediately returned to provide feedback to the learners, and the results of the summative assessment tasks may be used for promotion or reporting purposes (DBE, 2011:48).

Given the above, it is clear that assessment methods are activities that a teacher engages in as he/she assesses learners, and/or their work. These methods may include observations, the evaluation of the learners' tasks, and written or oral questioning (SAQA, 2001:27). Assessment methods are determined by the learning goals that the teacher has set for the learners to achieve (Edmunds, 2006:14). The latter is the view held by the DBE (2011:9), namely that in History, assessment methods are informed by the specific aims. The specific aims are to create an interest in and an engagement with a study of the past; knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the past and the forces that shaped it; the ability and skills to undertake a historical enquiry-based process; and an understanding of historical concepts, including historical sources and evidence. Besides, Brown (2001:10) defined assessment methods as an approach to assess learning, such as essays, historical problems, multiple-choice tests and so on; while Le Roux (2004:62) refers to written tests, role-plays, assignments, projects, and multiple-choice questions. McMillan (2000:5) added that a complete picture of what learners understood and could do is put together and it comprised different assessment approaches. It means that assessment methods are activities given to learners to determine their learning (Brown, 2001:10). It is also clear that assessment comes in different forms, depending on the goals of the teacher as stated by Edmunds (2006:14) and DBE (2011:9).

### **2.10.1 Short-answer items and extended response questions**

Various assessment methods are available, of which the written short- and long-answer questions are the most frequently used. Each of them has its own advantages and disadvantages in specific contexts (Bezuidenhout, 2001:8). Bezuidenhout (2001:8) asserted that the advantage of short-answer questions is that measurement at all levels of the cognitive domain is possible. These are questions that require the learners to supply a missing word, complete a sentence or provide a short response (Schoeman, 2019:2). Hence, the results are highly reliable, and a large amount of learning content and outcomes can be tested in a relatively short time. With regard to the disadvantages, teachers often give preference to questions that focus on the recall of factual knowledge and the teachers' abilities to formulate good questions and the learners' ability to read. The latter may have a decisive influence on the outcomes (Bezuidenhout, 2001:4). James (1994:1) added that short-answer questions are often difficult to construct and only one response answer is appropriate and/or applicable.

In terms of the extended response questions, the most common form of assessment is essay-type questions (McMillan, 2004:172). They are long-and free response items that are used to assess the higher-level cognitive skills such as analysis, evaluation and problem-solving (Sewagegu, 2016:14). McMillan (2004:172) explained that the latter assess complex thinking by requiring the learners to organise and interpret information, provide arguments, give explanations, and evaluate the merit of ideas and other types of reasoning. The advantage of extended response questions is that the deep learner's understanding and complex thinking and reasoning skills can be assessed. The disadvantages were that the construction of the questions was time-consuming, relatively few questions were asked and, hence, a very good sampling of the content knowledge was not possible.

According to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) 2011, history assessment focused on content and knowledge skills (DBE, 2011:32). While Bezuidenhout (2001:8) and Macmillan (2004:187) agreed that mainly source-based and essay questions were used to assess cognitive skills and content knowledge respectively, Schoeman (2019:22) pointed out other forms of assessment that can be applied to assess learners' understanding, skills and application in history, include among others tests, data-handling, map-reading and

analysis, contextual analysis, research tasks, and creative response questions. An outline of those forms of assessment are presented below.

### **2.10.2 Tests**

A test is a classroom assessment actively designed to measure the skills, performance, capabilities, intelligence and aptitude of an individual, or a group (Kurebwa, 2012:28). It is a set of questions constructed to meet a specific purpose, such as an individual diagnosis, school accountability, and summative assessment. According to Resnick (1989:5), tests are introduced not only to provide neutral indicators of an education system's performance, but also to upgrade a curriculum, teaching process and academic performance. The purpose of testing in teaching and learning is that the outcome of measurements is to influence future actions by providing opportunities to analyse the performance of the test items, and use the information to improve future tests assessments (Resnick, 1989:5). According to Brown (2001:46), tests have the potential to measure the analysis and application of knowledge, solve problems, and evaluate skills. The items could be either short-answer items, or extended response questions, or both. The short-answer questions may be the selection of possible correct answers in which the learners are presented with a set of possible responses from which they then select the most appropriate answers (Malta Ministry of Education, 2007:4). More examples are the true or false items, multiple-choice items, and matching items that can assess knowledge and understanding of the basic facts and principles of the subject. Most short-answer items are of the recall type; however, others may be testing the learners' higher order thinking skills (Resnick, 1989:5). According to the Malta Ministry of Education (2007:4), extended response questions are the following: supply-type items that require the learners to create and supply their own answers such as short paragraphs, and essay-type questions. Macmillan (2004:337) explained that these items are mainly assessed with letter grades, percentages correct/incorrect, a standard-based format, checklists and written descriptions "... and is a marking format that characterizes the percentage of items or points obtained out of a possible 100 is another form of 'test' commonly used in History" (Macmillan, 2004:337).

In terms of the CAPS 2011, formal tests accounted for forty percent of the total School-Based Assessment (SBA) (DBE, 2011:36). Grades 10 to 12 learners wrote two standardised tests, comprising of source-based and essay questions under strictly controlled conditions. The Free



State Department of Education (FSDE) (2019:80) explained that historical sources, which accounted for 50% of the test, were derived from two main categories, namely, primary and secondary sources. Primary sources are pieces of first-hand evidence. They include but are not limited to personal journals, diaries and letter transcripts that were produced by people who participated in or witnessed the event described, for example documents, books, images or any kind of evidence. Secondary sources on the other hand are texts about a topic, or a primary source, which are produced after the period or event described, for example textbooks, articles, or academic journals (University of Sidney, 2006:7). Assessment sources were derived from main types of assessment including written (texts), and visual sources (pictures) (FSDE, 2019:80). Organised around a key question, the source-based questions were used to assess the learners' three cognitive levels and abilities as follows:

- Cognitive Level 1 assessed the learners' abilities to extract evidence from the source
- Cognitive Level 2 assessed the abilities to explain historical sources, interpret and compare sources
- Cognitive Level 3 assessed the ability to interpret and evaluate information and data from sources, engage with questions of bias, reliability and usefulness of sources, and compare and contrast interpretation within sources (CAPS document 2011).

With regard to the essays, the learners wrote three page essays with a formal structure that included an introduction, a main body and a conclusion ((DBE, 2011:41). The essays were marked out of a total of fifty marks, using the adapted table for the Global Assessment of Essays, which was contained in the CAPS document. According to the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDE) (2008:12), all question-papers and the memoranda (marking guidelines) used by the teachers were moderated by the Head of Department in the school prior to the writing of the tests, and the teachers were also encouraged to have the marked scripts moderated before the results were recorded, and feedback provided to the learners.

### **2.10.3 Data handling**

Data-handling tests and activities refer to the provision of opportunities to the learners to learn more about historical events and to gather, sort out, corroborate, interpret and examine the validity of the assumptions in the provided historical evidence (Avdela, 2000:4). According to Fisher (2018:62) and McAleavy (1998:1), activities in data handling involve the use of internal evidence, and where the learners are expected to use skills to summarise complex passages, look for simplification in the materials, and construct well-crafted accounts of the past. They are required to determine among others who was the creator of the document, what he or she was trying to accomplish with the document, and for whom the document was intended (Hake & Hayden, 1995:2). Coohill (2006:11) added that evidence gleaned from visual sources is important for historical analysis and understanding, because the learners who are participating in the lessons with images are expected to demonstrate higher retention than those whose lessons were presented without images. Images in history teaching, learning and assessment may include portraits of individuals, photographs, maps, diagrams, film clips, depictions of battles, or any other type of image that complements the lesson topic and material (Coohill, 2006:11). The main assessment criteria in data-handling assignments are reading, interpretation, predictions, and the construction of graphs. The required data-handling skills are assessed with a rubric of level descriptors that guide the teacher to score and grade the performance of the learners (Jones, 2005:131).

Under the CAPS 2011, data handling skills were assessed using historical sources such as printed texts, photographs, drawings, paintings or cartoons (DBE, 2011:9). The learners gathered, sorted out, corroborated, and interpreted information, and examined the validity of the assumptions in the sources. They compared the sources in terms of how they support or contradict each other with regard to a particular historical context. In this way, their skills were assessed to recognise that there is often more than one perspective to a historical event (DBE, 2011:9). Data handling also assessed the learners' historical knowledge. Hence, they used the relevant sources and their own knowledge to write paragraphs in which they explained a historical event in context. In this regard, the Department of Basic Education urged the teachers to ensure that the learners were provided with the necessary historical skills by teaching them with a variety of sources (DBE, 2017:56).

#### 2.10.4 Map reading and analysis

Dym and Offen (2012:213) asserted that a broad range of primary sources can be used to teach different aspects of a history topic in the classroom. They refer to maps for example. As graphic texts, maps are objects that can be analysed and interpreted to reveal information about not only people, spaces and times, but also about the societies that created and consumed them. Hence, they represent information that is known to many people in contexts such as schools, the various electronic media and everyday life (Posigo & Pozo, 1998:1). Maps contain a huge quantity of different types of information for learners to understand and learn using diverse codification and interpretation processes (Posigo & Pozo). According to Thorndyke and Stasz (in Posigo & Pozo, 1998:1), maps are materials which display by means of concise symbolism, both explicit and implicit information about object's names, shapes and locations, and relationships and distances among objects respectively. In addition, historical research related to the lives of ordinary people demands the ability to synthesise processes in dynamic and non-linear ways. This requires the ability to manage a large amount of data and variables. In addition to written documents, historical maps also record locational attributes that are fundamental to the reconstruction of different historical settings. The latter display data that are not easily obtainable in the present (Rumsey & Williams, in Bailey & Schick, 2009:2). Bailey and Schick (2009:3) asserted that such skills are then used to obtain a spatial perspective in terms of the historical aspect to reach conclusions that may not be achievable otherwise. The latter will be an excellent primary source to help the learners to understand how spaces in countries and regions are defined, measured, organised, occupied, settled, understood, and disputed (Dym & Offen, 2012:213). Bednarz, Acheson and Bednarz (2006:1) explained that map reading and analysis assesses learners' ability to evaluate the information provided in maps, and to make inferences and decisions based on the information. It also assesses the learners' high-order thinking skills related to the analysis and interpretation of the information presented on the maps (Bednarz *et al.* 2006:1). A four-scale marking rubric with level descriptors may, for example, be used to assess the learners' ability in terms of map reading, interpretation, and analysis.

According to the Department of Basic Education (2011:3) (DBE) maps were used to examine the learners' ability to evaluate the usefulness and reliability of sources by asking the learners to comment whether a source was useful and/or reliable to a historian researching a particular

topic. They were also used to assess the learners' ability to interpret information from the sources, including what people said happened. Accordingly, the teachers were urged to use wall maps, globes, sets of atlases, dictionaries, and a variety of reading books and visual materials suitable for their grades (WCDE, 2014:93).

### **2.10.5 Contextual analysis**

McTavish and Pirro (1990:3) described the term 'text' as a transcript that occurs in verbal material and includes among others conversations, written documents such as diaries, reports, books, written or verbal responses to open-ended questions, media recordings, and observations. Contextual analysis focuses on the ideas in the text and puts the ideas in perspective (McTavish & Pirro 1990:3). Learners, additionally, complete informal or formal activities to construct knowledge and develop values and attitudes by the analysis and interpretation of different contexts, such as cartoons, extracts, historical maps, photographs and so on (Schoeman, 2019:12).

Cartoons facilitate active thinking, motivate reading, and elicit critical historical thinking. The latter is the result of an analysis of complex contexts to facilitate active learning (Ashaver & Igyuve, 2013:47; Bickford, 2010:666-7; Eneh & Eneh, 2008:4;). In terms of extracts from books, learners analyse and interpret the identified stimuli to explain the meaning of events in a text. Contextual analysis will assist learners to assess the text within its historical and cultural context and settings (Behrendt, 2008:1). With regard to photographs, Viskochil (nd:47) demonstrated that photographs are pictures taken with a camera, which are used to document or describe people, places, phenomena and events for the purpose of reporting on an historical event, or illustrating an argument. According to Quanchi and So'o (2006:8), photographs are representative of the daily lives of most learners, and learners need to learn the skills to analyse them to examine the evidence in the photograph, the method and intent of the photographer, the subject shown in the image, and whether their identifications are credible. With regard to historical maps, Dym and Offen (2012:215) are of the opinion that these will enable the learners to give another meaning to space and time, the location of national and international borders, and the names to places and peoples. Contextual analysis skills are assessed with the aim to evaluate the learners' ability to understand the identified problem (McAleavy, 1998:6). The latter is done to explain the nature of and to make judgements about the link between the

evaluation and analysis of sources to detect bias in the information (Fisher, 2018:29-30). Schoeman (2019:12) explained that contextual analysis aspects such as assessment criteria focus on understanding, inference, evidence and accuracy. These criteria determine whether the learners' achievement was partial, adequate, or outstanding.

In terms of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement 2011, questions requiring interpretation and analysis of complex context accounted for 50% of grades 10 to 12 standardised tests. According to Free State Department of Education (FSDE) (2019:8), through contextual analysis, the learners' abilities were assessed to explain the events in historical context and to elicit critical thinking. Questions were set around material sources (remains of people and their activities), oral sources (word-of mouth stories), written sources (sources in a written form that can be found and read), and audio-visual sources (paintings, drawings, photographs, original maps, tapes, videos and films) (FSDE, 2019:8). The learners engaged with the sources in terms of the author of the text, place and time, the main ideas, and the significance of the source (Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE), 2014:89). Given the above, the Department of Basic Education Diagnostic Report (2018:91) stated that many Grade 12 learners were still unable to answer high order questions. Hence, they were struggling to respond correctly to questions requiring interpretation, analysis, compare, contrast, usefulness and reliability of evidence in the sources (DBE, 2018:91). In that regard, Moreeng (2009:106) explained that it was essential that the learners were provided with a variety of resources as they would guide them to think critically and accommodate other views.

#### **2.10.6 Research tasks**

Research tasks in school history referred to formal assessment activities in which the learners conducted research by applying different skills (DBE, 2011:46). The latter are related to a specific history question or statement. According to the DBE (2011:47), research tasks are designed to cover the content of the subject, and include a variety of selected activities to assess the identified aims and skills. Learners investigated a particular historical context in terms of its cause and impact, controversial issues, or a biographical study. The investigation involves the exploration activities and responses to a particular context by means of in-depth activities (Edmunds, 2006:14). The most common way to assess research tasks is standards-based assessment (Killen, 2007:162). Standards-based assessment compares the learner's

demonstration of learning with detailed descriptions of different levels of achievement. Schoeman (2019:14) identified six steps for the selection of assessment criteria for research tasks, namely:

- Formulation of research question(s): The learner identifies history questions that need to be answered.
- Planning how to gather the historical information: The learner needs to plan how he/she will identify the relevant sources to obtain the historical information.
- Acquiring the information: This refers to the learner's ability to acquire the information by locating, compiling and observing it.
- Organising the information: This step relates to the preparation, organisation and integration of the acquired information from the various historical sources, such as maps, photographs, graphs, diagrams and charts.
- Analysing and synthesising the information: For this step the learner has to interpret and synthesise the information to draw inferences.
- Answering of the research questions: This is the final step in the research process in which the learner develops and produces answers to the research questions.

Good research practices will teach the learners to identify and select the information that they want to include in their report and then arrange and interpret it (DBE, 2011:45). Hence, the purpose of history research tasks is to assess the learners' knowledge and ability to achieve the aims of a research project; apply their skills; fully grasp and understand the content; demonstrate critical analysis of the historical topic and content through an investigation of the sources; and the skills to construct a cogent and valid explanation and/or account of a particular historical problem or concept (DBE, 2011:45; Hake & Hayden, 1995:4). Hake and Hyden (1995:5) explained the required skills as among others collecting, examining and correlating facts and express the results in clear and vivid format; show the ability to think and argue logically; and form an independent judgement about the issue supported by appropriate evidence to understand, interpret and critical analyse the primary source materials. To this end, learners should read documents, prepare an outline, and make a case (Rothschild, 2000:4). Research tasks are assessed by means of a rubric that includes assessment criteria and level descriptors. According to Aurbach (2006:10), a rubric includes quality criteria and standard developed descriptors to assess a product.

According to CAPS 2011 Grade 10-12, research assignments accounted for 20% of the total School-Based Assessment (SBA) (DBE, 2011:34) The former provided the learners with the opportunity to demonstrate their skills, knowledge and understanding of history. A rubric of four level descriptors and eight-criteria was used to evaluate the following competencies: analyse and answer the key question; identify a variety of source materials to answer the key question; write a coherent and logical answer to the key question; write an original piece of work; correctly contextualise all sources, including illustrations and maps; reflect upon the processes of research, consider what has been learnt; and include a list of references (bibliography) of all the sources which have been consulted in the researching and writing of the assignment. According to the Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE) (2014:54), managed completion of assignments meant that the learners submitted the first and second drafts before submitting the final one. All assignments contained the cover page, and the authenticity statement. The latter was signed by the learner as a declaration that the assignment was his/her original work.

### **2.10.7 Creative response questions**

According to Harris and De Bruin (2018), all learners deserve the opportunity to develop, learn and maximise their creative and thinking abilities, exploring problem-finding and solving. Thus, creativity, which is synonymous with among others imagination, ingenuity, innovation, originality, talent and uniqueness, needs to be improved in the classroom using specific tests, inventories and rating scales (Triffinger, Selby, Young and Shepardson, 2002). Creative learners should be provided with opportunities to generate and dig deeper into ideas, be open and have courage to explore ideas. The teachers should encourage the latter by asking questions that invoke divergent flexible thinking (Bartel, 2013:1; Eric Digest, 1997:3). Creative assessment should allow the learners to develop creative attitudes and to provide more possibilities other than one correct or best answer. To achieve the latter, creative assessment should identify and/or understand the learners' creative abilities, strengths and potentials using various resources (Jarvin, Jarvin, and Jarvin, 2006). Schoeman (2019:20) provided examples of creative response activities, namely model making, posters, and role-play. A historical model can be a small copy of a person, location or phenomenon. In model making, learners are provided with the opportunity to emulate an important historical figure, or life style to show how the people lived in the past (McIlrath & Huitt, 1995:1). According to the Intel Tech

Programme (2012:1), the teacher models one or two historical figures or objects, specifies the outcomes, provides clear directions, and allows the learners to ask questions. He/she then has to ascertain the learners' understanding before they individually set out to work.

With regard to posters, Reilly (2007:1) stated that mounted pictures or photographs accompanied by textual cues or captions can be used to illustrate the learning objectives of the activity. With regard to the latter, the teacher's experience and the learners' needs should be kept in mind. Role-play is an active teaching technique used as an alternative method to the lecture method (Shaw, 2004:1). The main purpose of role-play is to promote learner interaction and input, curiosity and interest, and learning as fun. According to Shaw (2004:2), to teach role-play successfully five steps should be involved, namely: establishing the specific objectives, designing the exercise, preparing the background information, writing out specific instructions, and determining the time frame for the activities. The outcomes of the activity will be used as assessment criteria (Le Roux, 2004:62). The assessment criteria focus on content presented, and the outcomes of the dimension are scored by using, for example, a two-dimensional 0–4-point rubric. They may be called scoring criteria, guidelines, or rubrics that the teacher uses to conclude if the learner knows the learning material (MacMillan, 2004:16).

According to the CAPS history document (2011:9), one of the specific aims was understanding of historical concepts, including historical sources and evidence. To achieve the latter, the learners engaged critically with issues of heritage and public representations of the past and conservation (DBE, 2011:9). The skill involved studying the past in terms of which past a person or community chooses to remember and how; the way events from the past were portrayed in museums, monuments and traditions; whose past was remembered and which part has been left unrecognised. Types of activities included among others heritage assignments, which involved the investigating of heritage and public representations (DBE, 2011:35, Western Education Department, 2014:93). Research questions focused on heritage sites, museums, monuments, oral history, commemorative events, family and community traditions and rituals, local history, school history and family history. The key features of the assignment related to class discussions; key question formulation; research notes and references; time frame and the related monument of the topic (DBE, 2011:35). Themes considered for heritage assignments included the meaning of heritage, memory and oral histories; the importance of conservation of heritage sites; debates about heritage issues; and the ways memorials are



constructed. Other creative response questions were posters (Western Cape Department of Education, 2014:93). The latter were used to assess the learner's skills to demonstrate their understanding of what they have learned within the particular historical context (Bartel, 2013:1). This included content knowledge and concepts constructed with evidence from the authentic source documents and historical sites (Louisiana Department of Education, 2017:3). Teachers asked the learners to draw posters depicting historical issues or events or individuals, an approach consistent with the assertion that learners who worked with sources developed skills of analysis, interpretation, evaluation, synthesis and communication (Moreeng, 2009:107). According to Schoeman (2019:20), assessment tools used to assess creative response questions were a rubric of criteria and levels of descriptors. Criteria were focus, main ideas, connection to the curriculum, purpose, drawings and illustrations and design and layout. Level descriptors were rated not achieved, partially achieved, achieved and outstanding.

#### **2.10.8 Essay questions**

Essays are a common means of assessment (James, 1994:126). It is a synthesis exercise in which a variety of facts, quotes and hypotheses are assembled and organised into a coherent whole (Hake & Hayden, 2018:3). Essays are a good way to measure deep understanding and the mastery of complex information by explaining the procedures, or putting together many discrete facts into a meaningful whole. According to McMillan (2004:186), essays can promote complex thinking by requiring learners to organise, integrate and interpret information, present arguments, provide explanations, evaluate ideas, and conduct various types of reasoning. They may include various topics which require discussion, writing, describing, explaining, evaluating and so on. Essays may also be based on case studies (James, 1994:126). The evaluation of essays is done by means of specified criteria (James, 1994:127). The Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2008:35) recommended rubrics to evaluate learners' essay writing skills, for example rating scales which contain specific pre-established performance criteria to evaluate the learners' performance (Mertler, 2004:1). With essay-type questions teachers can evaluate the learners' creative thinking and reasoning skills; understanding; argumentation and integration of knowledge and understanding; and evaluation and interpretation of facts and contexts (Bezuidenhout, 2001:4). According to Quinonez (2020:1), essays included the four main categories, namely descriptive, expository, narrative and persuasive essays. Nopita (2011:96) explained that descriptive essays provided a relevant description of an event to give

a particular picture. With regard to expository essays, they involved explaining, analysing and evaluating a text or statement, followed by elaboration on the topic using explicit language with a theme-based focus (Ball, 1996:29). In a narrative essay, the learner demonstrated the skill of relating the event in detail (Johannessen, 1995:7), while persuasive essay writing is an essay in which the writer tries to convince the reader in a manner that is considerate to diverse points of view (Nippold, Ward-Lonergan and Fanning, 2005:125). Persuasive writers embrace a particular point of view, and try to convince the reader of the essay to adopt that same perspective in an argumentative manner (De La Paz, Monte-Sano, Montanaro and Malkus, 2011:497).

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) 2011 stated that the essay task was an important component of the School-Based Assessment (SBA), and summative assessment. In essay writing, the learners were provided with the opportunity to demonstrate the ability to select the information they want to include, arrange, and present a reasonable sequence of facts, or an argument (DBE, 2011: 33). According to CAPS (2011:40) essays were used to assess the following skills:

- Demonstrate a thorough knowledge and understanding of the topic;
- Use relevant evidence to answer the question;
- To plan and structure an essay;
- Use the evidence to support the argument;
- To develop and sustain an independent and well-balanced argument; and
- Write logically, coherently and chronologically.

More emphasis was placed on question interpretation, selection of factual evidence, planning and construction of an original argument based on relevant evidence, using analytical and interpretative skills. (DBE, 2019:3). Hence, essay questions set for most tests and examinations required the learners to discuss or explain a historical event, analyse, evaluate the accuracy of a statement or state an opinion. It was essential that all history essays had an introduction, a coherent and balanced body of evidence and a conclusion (DBE, 2019:3). When marking the essays, the teachers were expected to adopt a holistic approach and assess an essay as a whole, rather than assessing the main points separately. A table for Global Assessment of essays was used mark all Grade 10 essays. Marking focused on content knowledge and the ability to

develop, maintain, and present an independent argument using relevant evidence. Against that background, the NSC History Diagnostic Report (2018) stated that the learners displayed good content knowledge, but they were incapable of developing an independent line of argument, while many essays lacked introductions and conclusions (DBE, 2018:91).

## **2.11 Recording assessment**

Recording in assessment involves the keeping of accurate records of the learners' learning progress to create informative and useful reports (Killen, 2007:167). According to the DOE (2008:134), recording is crucial to an effective, efficient, accountable and transparent system. The latter is done after the formal assessment of learning has taken place (Wikstrom, 2007:8). Kerubuwa (2012:17) stated that teachers consistently document their learners' work progress to ensure that they will have ample evidence of the learner's year-long growth. The information may take the form of an observation schedule, a record of a learner's reading competence or workbooks. The learners' names will be followed by the assessment date, name and a short description of the assessment activity, the results of the activity, and comments that will be used to develop support strategies for the learners ((DBE, 2008:158; Tshabalala, 2016:180). The significance of assessment recording is that it provides a clear and accurate picture of the learners' performance, and evidence of their achievements. It also provides evidence of the learners' conceptual progress within a grade, and their readiness to progress, or to be promoted to the next grade (DBE, 2011:56).

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for History Grade 10-12 provides guidelines in terms of the form and number of formal tasks that should be written per grade per year (ECDE, 2018:). The history teachers adapted and used the School-Based Assessment template for the planning and writing of the formal tasks. Eight tasks were written over four terms (two activities per term). These tasks accounted for 25% of the final promotion mark and included source-based questions, essay-tasks, standardised tests, research assignments, mid-year, preparatory and final examinations. According to the DBE (2011:23) teachers were expected to keep current records of learners' progress electronically, in files, folders or any other form the school agreed on. The former included record-sheets containing the learners' marks for each formal assessment task and any instruction that was planned by the teacher to assist the learners who required support. Marks obtained in formal tasks were used to compile a schedule

that was used to compile reports once a term and for promotion purposes at the end of the academic year.

The Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE) (2014:15) explained that all teachers were expected to keep a file containing evidence of their teaching and assessment. Teacher files, which had to be up to date and available on request, were necessary for accountability and moderation purposes. The latter was implemented at school, district and provincial levels to ensure that the assessment tasks and projects were fair, valid, reliable and of good quality, (DBE, 2011:21). Additionally, it was essential to keep records of the learners' performance for transparency, and also in case a learner lodged a dispute against assessment, or questioned its fairness (DBE, 2008:133).

## **2.12 REPORTING**

According to Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2008:85), reporting involves the assessor, or one of the role-players, to act on his/her behalf to inform the individual who has been assessed of the final result. For schools, it means that the parents and the wider school community have to be informed on a regular basis of the schools' successes, activities and achievements throughout the year (Victoria State Education Board, 2018:1).

According Morris (1953:146) reporting is something which is continuous, always considering the next steps to be taken. It is not merely the recording of results, but a means of increasing the effectiveness with which a learner learns and is carried on continuously and cooperatively by teachers, pupils and parents. The learner's performance is collected through standardised tests, anecdotal records, cumulative reports, teacher observations, and the learner's own self-evaluation. According to the DBE (2008:134), reporting is also crucial for transparency and the maintaining of communication and good relations with the parent and learner community.

In terms of the CAPS, 2011, the purpose of reporting is to communicate to a learner his/her performance and also parents, schools, and other stakeholders (DBE, 2011:51). For Hill and Rowe (1994:8), reporting should be communicated in a manner that is conversant with the schools and the education system. The measures regarded as adequate and satisfactory for reporting the learners' progress in a manner that will assist learners to achieve as optimally as

possible include among others report cards, parent meetings, open days, parent conferences, letters, class or school newsletters and so on (Marlow, 2001:5). With regard to academic progress, schools issue report cards to the learners at the end of each term and the teachers in all grades are expected to report regularly in percentages against the subjects to the learners and parents on the progress of the learners regarding the objectives set out in the letter that was sent to the parents at the beginning of each term. In this regard, the history teachers' responsibility was to use the recorded School Based Assessment (SBA) marks to report the learner's performance in all tasks completed in a term. Furthermore, the SBA composite marks obtained in all four terms were then added to the official schedule which then determined whether the learner could be promoted to the next grade (DEB, 2011:51).

## **2.13 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the three curriculum principles, namely, curriculum design, development and implementation were identified and discussed, with special reference to South Africa during the period 1998 to 2011. It was concluded that the first two curricula, the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) curriculum in 1998 and the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in 2000, focused on learning outcomes, and were eventually revisited as a result of implementation challenges. The third curriculum, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was introduced in public schools in 2011. The literature related to each of the three curricula principles was reviewed. Curriculum design is the arrangement of the basic curriculum elements, while curriculum development is the selection and coordination of the curriculum elements. Curriculum implementation, on the other hand, refers to the translation of the curriculum document into practice, i.e. classroom action. The OBE (1998), NCS (2000) and CAPS (2011) documents were discussed in terms of their design, development and implementation. The curriculum design of each of the curricula was discussed with special reference to its meaning, history, philosophical orientations, and features. The discussion of the curriculum developments focused on how the objectives, content, methods and evaluation procedures were selected for each of the curricula. The discussion of the curriculum implementation process was based on the various curriculum implementation models, with reference to all three curricula. With regard to the latter, it can be concluded that throughout the three post 1994 curricula, the aim of assessment has been to support learning. The above was followed by a survey of different forms of assessment in History with special focus on

South Africa. The conclusion ended the chapter. In chapter 3, the research design and methodology of the study will be outlined.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter 2 of this study, the curriculum principles, namely curriculum design, development and implementation were discussed with special reference to South Africa between 1994 and 2011. The discussion also focused on the principles of curriculum pertaining to the following curriculum documents: Outcomes-Based Education of 1998, Revised National Curriculum Statement of 2002 and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for Grades R to 12 of 2011. The researcher then provided a survey of post-1994 curriculum changes and assessment practices in History as a subject.

In this chapter, the researcher presents the research methodology of the study to investigate the impact of the post-1994 curriculum assessment practices on History as a subject. Hence, the aim of the researcher was to conduct research on the history teachers' understanding of how their assessment practices were affected by the curriculum changes after 1994. First the researcher will provide the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study, followed by a description of the research design and methodology. In the research design and methodology section, the general research procedures undertaken in the study will be discussed. The researcher then will explain the methods applied in the sampling of the participants, and the collection and analysis of the data. Furthermore, he (the researcher) will outline the measures taken to maintain the credibility and trustworthiness of the research data and results. The last two parts of this chapter contain the ethical considerations and conclusion(s).

#### **3.2 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS OF THE STUDY**

According to Yen (2011:358), the purpose of having a framework in designing a research project is not only to guide the project, but also for the researcher(s) to consider which approaches should be used in the process. Chilisa and Kawulich (2012:1) explained that a

paradigm is a way of describing a world view that is informed by philosophical assumptions about the nature of social reality. Aliyu, Singhru, Adamu and Abubakar (2015:3) added that a paradigm is a framework within which theories are grounded that fundamentally influence how the researcher sees the world, determines his/her perspective, and shapes his/her understanding of how components are connected. Hence, in research, a paradigm is a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of the research topic that the researcher brings to the study (Creswell, 2009:4). Meredith, Raturi, Amoako-Gyampath and Kaplan (1989:207) agree that it is a set of “methods” that exhibit the same pattern or elements, while Tshabalala (2015:187) concludes that paradigms influence the way knowledge is studied and interpreted. However, he cautions that without a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for determining the research design or methodology (Tshabalala, 2015:193). Paradigms are classified according to the procedures that are used to collect the data, determine the methods, and analyse the data. Yen (2011:357) identified the research paradigms that have commonly been used in the social and behavioural sciences as positivist/post-positivism, pragmatism, and constructivism. Before deciding on the theoretical framework of this research, a brief discussion of the three paradigms, with reference to their related ontology, epistemology and methodology, is provided.

Positivism is a paradigm based on the belief that there is one apprehendable reality driven and governed by natural laws and mechanisms (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2015:8, Guba & Lincoln, 1994:107). According to Pungler and Buck (2009:16), this knowable reality can be approached, unveiled and understood using the scientific method. In the positivist paradigm knowledge constitutes data, and is objective and independent of the researcher’s values, interests and feelings. Knowledge in this paradigm can be obtained by means of objective interaction between the known and the knower, and verified by means of direct observation or measurements of the phenomena (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Tshabalala, 2015:188). Therefore, positivist research can be defined as an approach in which facts are clearly defined and results are measurable. It aims to forecast the general patterns of human activity regardless of its historical or cultural contexts (Burke, 2007:9). The main research method associated with positivism is the quantitative research methodology (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012:6, Techo, 2016:6, Tshabalala, 2015:194, Yen, 2011:360).

Post-positivism originated in the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, and entails a less strict form of positivism (Burbules 2002, in Creswell, 2009:7, Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012:7). In post-positivism, the view of reality held by positivism is rejected. According to Chilisa and Kawulich (2012:8), the proponents of positivism argue that there is an external reality which can be studied using the scientific method, but in post-positivism reality is contextual, and can never be fully apprehended, only approached. Post-positivists agree that there is a reality out there, but it can only be known imperfectly due to the researcher's human limitations and the contemporary nature of the phenomena (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:110; Pungler & Buck, 2009:16). Post-positivist research is observable and manageable through interventions, and is understood using objective, rational and experimental processes, observation and testing (Pungler & Buck, 2009:19). In this paradigm, the social contexts influence the understanding and perception of reality (Pungler & Buck, 2009:19). The general perception is that post-positivist researchers conduct research to understand the study as it evolves during the investigation, using qualitative data-gathering instruments such as questionnaires and observations.

Pragmatism (critical theory) on the other hand, is a deconstructive paradigm that rejects the distinction between realism and anti-realism (Morgan, 2013:1048). According to Morgan (2013:1048), for pragmatists there is indeed such a phenomenon as reality, but it is ever changing based on people's actions. In that way, pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. Creswell (2009:11-12) explains that in pragmatism the focus is on the truth; and therefore, both objective and subjective views are included. For the researcher, it means that different worldviews, assumptions and data-collection methods and analyses are used. The latter provide the researcher with freedom of choice. It means that the researcher is free to choose his research methods, techniques and procedures to meet his needs and purposes (Creswell, 2009:11).

Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991:4) suggested three categories of research paradigms, namely the positivist, interpretivist and critical paradigms. For this study, the interpretivist perspective was the most appropriate, as it considered understanding as a process of psychological reconstruction in which the researcher reconstructs the original intention of the participants. The participants' intentions were used to understand how curriculum changes affected their assessment practices. The interpretivist text is the expression of the participants' thoughts, and the researcher puts him/herself within the participant's context to reconstruct the intended



meaning of his/her responses. However, the more sceptical view is that there is no stable scientifically-sound judgement, but only subjectivism and relativism. This is known as the hermeneutic circle, referring to the way in which understanding, and interpretation are related in a circular way. In order to understand the whole, it is necessary to understand the parts. From the original interpretivism there developed seven main social sciences approaches, among others constructivism, the approach used in this study

Johannsen (1991, as cited in Dessie, 2015:110) indicated that constructivism developed as a result of paradigmatic changes that rejected the views from behaviourism and cognitivism. The differences between the above-mentioned schools of thought and constructivism are grounded in the "... assumptions about the nature of reality..." (Chilsa & Kawulich, 2012:9). Unlike positivists and post-positivists who believe that there is an external reality, constructivists hold the view that the world is internally constructed and mind dependent (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012:9; Yen, 2011:360). It is a personal or social construct, limited to context, space, time, and the individuals or groups in a given situation. Creswell (2003:8) clarifies that the constructivist researchers conduct research to understand people's experiences. Research is conducted in a natural setting using research questions that are generally open-ended, descriptive and non-directional. Against this backdrop, constructivism was the most appropriate research approach for this study.

### **3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

The research methodology of a study includes the research design and the data-collection methods (De Vos, Strydom, & Delport, 2005:132). The latter is the blueprint that the researcher uses to conduct his research. Creswell (2009:8) and Sebate (2011:87) agree that the choice of the research design and methodology is determined by the purpose of the study and the research questions. The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which the post-1998 curriculum changes have affected the assessment practices in the teaching of history in the Motheo secondary schools. It is hoped that the study will result in improved academic engagement and performance of the Grade 10 to 12 history learners. In terms of the above, the researcher endeavoured to answer the following research questions:

- What effect did the curriculum transformation have on assessment practices among history teachers of secondary schools of the Motheo district?
- What are the teachers' views on assessment practices in History as a school subject?
- What assessment strategies can be implemented to improve learners' performance in History? (Also see p.10 of this study).

With the purpose of the research and the research questions in mind (see pp. 11 of this study), the researcher determined the research design and methodology of the study. An elaboration of each follows.

### **3.3.1 Research design**

According to Maree *et al.* (2012:72) a research design is a plan or strategy that is grounded in underlying philosophical assumptions and specifies the selection of the participants and the data-collection methods and analysis. Hence, it involves the general procedures to be followed in the research process. Almalki (2016:290) explained that there are three distinct research designs, namely the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods. Creswell (2008:322) clarified that the quantitative approach is one in which the researcher primarily uses post-positivist methods to create knowledge. According to the post-positivists, reality can be studied and understood by subdividing it into smaller manageable sections (Amalki, 2016:290). Positivist researchers, on the other hand, collect, observe and analyse data from large samples to draw conclusions with regard to a specific hypothesis (Techo, 2016:1). The data-collection methods in qualitative research are mostly structured observation and interview schedules.

Qualitative research focuses on constructivist knowledge claims (Creswell, 2008:322). From this perspective, reality is viewed as a social construct in which variables are difficult to measure, and the emphasis is on the exploration and understanding of the problem (Almalki, 2016:4). For Creswell (2008:322), the researcher should use inquiry strategies to obtain detailed information as reported by the participants. Data is collected with the primary intent of developing themes. The main methods of data-collection are in-depth interviews, observations, focus group discussions, and documents (Health Professional Education, 2015:3). The above will also enable the researcher to use text to explain his findings (Techo, 2015:1).

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:395) explained that the use of the mixed-methods research design emanated from researchers' realisation that often the best approach to answer the research questions was to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study. According to HPE (2015:2), mixed-method research is a complex research methodology. It is used when the quantitative or the qualitative methodologies separately would be inefficient to provide comprehensive responses to achieve the purpose of the study. In mixed-methods research, data is collected through both numeric and text information (HPE, 2015:2).

In order to come to a decision on the type of research design for this study, the researcher considered the guidelines of Ormrod and Leedy (2005:106), namely:

- nature of the research questions: The research design should address either exploratory or interpretative research questions, or a hypothesis about cause and effect.
- extensiveness of the related literature: A large body of literature should be available.
- depth of the study: The research design should be appropriate to cover the breadth and depth of the study.
- amount of time available for conducting the study: The choice of research design should be appropriate for the amount of time available for the study.

Given the exploratory nature of the research questions in this study (see section 3.3), the researcher decided to use the qualitative research design. Creswell (2009:234) explained that qualitative researchers explore a phenomenon by collecting information from a natural setting, and build rich descriptions of complex situations. The choice of a qualitative research design was also informed by the in-depth nature of the study. The researcher's aim was to collect information from the participants to explain how the post-1994 curriculum changes affected history teachers' assessment practices. The primary aim of the qualitative research design was to capture, understand and represent the participants' perceptions by using their own words, which enabled the researcher to explore the meaning that the individual teachers ascribed to the research topic (Creswell, 2009:234). The researcher established the meaning of the topic from the participants' point of view. As such, he (the researcher) engaged in an in-depth study of the problem by collecting comprehensive data on the history teachers' experiences of the

post-1994 curriculum changes and assessment practices. Given the latter, the qualitative research approach was chosen for the study.

The four common qualitative research designs are the case study, ethnography, phenomenology, and grounded theory designs (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:135). In a case study, a particular individual programme or event is studied in depth to collect extensive data on an individual(s) or cases, programmes and events (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:135). Ethnography is specifically useful for understanding the complexities of a particular culture, and a prolonged engagement in the cultural group's natural setting. Phenomenological studies involve the understanding of peoples' experiences, perceptions, and perspectives of a particular situation. Data-collection methods in phenomenological studies include lengthy interviews with a carefully selected sample of participants. In grounded theory, researchers focus on a process related to a particular topic to develop a theory about that process. The methods of data-collection are flexible, field-based and likely to change over time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:140). For this study, the researcher has chosen the qualitative case study research design. The researcher's view is that the latter enables collection of extensive data to do an in-depth study of the teachers' attitude, beliefs, and views regarding the impact of curriculum changes on their assessment practices.

### **3.3.2 Research methodology**

For Creswell (2003:16), the concept research method relates to the data-collection, analysis, and interpretation that the researcher has chosen for his/her study. Hence, it refers to the way he/she will collect and analyse the collected data. Broadly speaking, it refers to the procedures that the researcher will follow to conduct his/her research in terms of the when, from whom and under what circumstances the information will be gathered (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:20). Maxwell (2013:87) observed that decisions about research methods depend on the issues to be addressed in the study, and the specific context of study. In this, study the researcher used the intrinsic case study method to collect information from the participants. According to Maree *et al.* (2012:82), an intrinsic case study gathers information from a particular population to study an existing condition, and to identify the key variables or factors related to the condition. The data-collection methods are selected given the chosen research design, the participants and the research problem. The methods used for an intrinsic case study

are interviews, observations, and visual aids, personal and official documents, photographs, drawings, informal conversations, and artefacts. For the purpose of this study, as indicated in this chapter, interviews and official documents were consulted. A closer scrutiny of the research methodology follows.

### **3.3.2.1 Data collection methods and analysis**

According to MacMillan and Schumacher (2005:343), the data-collection methods and other methodological aspects are based on the research question. The research question for this study was, What was the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on history teachers' assessment practices in the Motheo district? Consequently, the data was collected from the history teachers of the Motheo district. According to O'Leary (2010) and Walliman (2011) as cited in Mufanechiya (2015:62) the term 'data' can be described as the information that can assist the researcher to answer his/her questions. Given the latter, the data-collection process is a way of gathering information that will assist the researcher to answer his research questions. As indicated previously, in the qualitative research approach, the data-collection process includes, but is not limited, to interviews and documents. An elaboration of the latter two methods follows:

#### **3.3.2.1.1 Interviews**

Heck (2011:205, as cited in Phorabatho, 2013:126) explained that an interview is a primary source of data-collection in case study research. Tshiredo (2013:51) affirmed that the interview is an appropriate method to collect data in a qualitative research project. Interviews involve asking questions to the participants using a conversational approach (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989:79, as cited in Prinsloo, 1999:56). They are basically oral questions which the researcher asks to the participants to gather descriptive data to elicit a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon from the point of view of the participants (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:205). The advantages of interviews, according to Tshiredo (2013:51), are the flexibility of the interview process; gathering information to use in the research report; clarifying the research questions; and following-up incomplete or unclear responses. Makeleni (2014:112) added that by asking questions to the interviewees rich data can be collected.

In this study, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were used to obtain detailed information, and to provide the researcher with the opportunity to interact directly with the participants. According to Maree *et al.* (2012:92) and Leedy and Ormrod (2005:146), an interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to learn more about his/her ideas, beliefs, views, opinions, and behaviour related to the phenomenon under study. The researcher, through the interviews, endeavoured to obtain the history teachers' knowledge, experiences, perceptions, and attitude regarding curriculum changes in South Africa and their impact on the assessment practices in the post-1994 period.

The researcher obtained permission prior to the commencement of the interviews from the Department of Education and the principals of the sampled schools to conduct the research (Esere & Idowu, 2003:3). He (the researcher) then contacted the identified participants to confirm their willingness to participate in the research project. All interviews were conducted in the afternoon to avoid any disruptions in the teachers' teaching and learning activities. Each interview lasted forty-five minutes to one hour. The researcher explained the purpose of the research project to the participants, and informed them that their identity would be kept confidential and that they may withdraw from the research project at any stage; all interviews were conducted in a similar way, and the researcher was committed to keep to the protocol of the semi-structure interviews. The latter included not to interrupt the interviewees and develop and maintain a positive relation with them. At the start of the interviews, the participants were asked for information related to their background, age, gender, education, and perceptions of the post-1994 assessment, purpose, types and methods. The interviews focused on assessment in the following documents: Curriculum 2005 (2005), the Revised National Curriculum Statement and the National Curriculum Statement (2008) and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (2011). The participants shared their views, opinions and experiences with regard to the design, development and implementation of the above curricula, and how they impacted the assessment practices, with special reference to the school subject History. The researcher also obtained permission from the interviewees to audio-record their interviews. Hand-written notes were also taken.

### **3.3.2.1.2 Documents**

The researcher collected several documents from the interview sites to corroborate the data collected during the interviews. According to Abreha (2014:127) and Makeleni (2013:53), documents are consulted for relevant and accurate information to verify the data collected from the interviews and the observations. Furthermore, Henning *et al.* (2004, in Makeleni, 2013: 53) explained that all documents related to the research questions were valuable sources of information regardless of how old or recent they were; and whether they were created in print, handwriting or electronically.

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:361) pointed out that there were two kinds of documents, namely: personal and official documents. Personal documents are first-person narratives that describe individual actions, experiences and beliefs, and they include diaries and personal letters. Maree *et al.* (2012:88) indicated that in educational research documents referred to attendance registers, time-tables, minutes of meetings, lesson plans, notes and assessment records. The assessment documents were policy documents, lesson plans, assessment plans, and tests and examination records. The relevant documents were then scanned, and themes were identified. The purpose of the document analysis was to understand how history teachers implemented and assessed the post-1994 school curricula. Creswell (2009:180, as cited in Makeleni, 2013:53) pointed out that the advantage of document analysis is that the researcher can study the documents at a time convenient to him/her. Guided by Maree *et al.*'s (2012:89) criteria for selecting the documents, the researcher confirmed the following: whether the sources were primary or secondary; whether they were based on empirical data; when they were published; and the purpose of the document, the context under which it was published, and whether the information was related to the researcher's topic.

### **3.3.2.1.3 Sampling**

Sampling refers to the selection of the total number of persons who will be included in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:144). The sample was the particular individuals who the researcher selected to participate in the study. The types of sampling identified were purposive, opportunistic, and convenience sampling (Maree *et al.* 2012:86). According to Ormrod and Leedy (2005:145), qualitative researchers utilise purposive sampling. For purposive sampling

a representative number of people is chosen to study or to resolve a certain research problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:219). In opportunistic sampling, the researcher uses a flexible approach to complement the field work context. In convenience sampling, the researcher chooses the sample that is accessible to him. For the current study, purposive sampling was used to select the teachers who were teaching the subject History in the Motheo district in secondary schools in the Free State Province. The aim of the researcher was to obtain information to respond to the formulated research question (see p. 4). Hence, qualified trustworthy and experienced teachers were selected to participate in the study and to provide information related to the curriculum changes and assessment in History in their schools. For the purpose of this study, the participants were selected from five schools in the Motheo district.

### **3.3.2.2 Data analysis and interpretation**

Nieuwenhuis (2010:100, as cited in Abreha, 2014:114) pointed out that the researcher by means of the analysis of the data determines the participants' knowledge and understanding, perceptions, attitudes, and feelings about the problem. It also involves the organisation of the data to identify general categories, and to integrate and summarise the latter (Creswell, 1998, as cited in Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:150). McMillan and Schumacher (2010:367) explained that data analysis is an inductive process to organise the data into categories, and then identify patterns and relationships among the categories. There are two types of qualitative data analysis, namely objectivist and subjectivist analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:367). In objectivist analysis, the categories are predetermined and rigid. On the other hand, the subjectivist analysis process involves the collection, coding, and categorisation of the information (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:368). An elaboration of the above process follows.

#### **3.3.2.2.1 Approaches and principles of data analysis**

Maree *et al.* (2012:111) identified four approaches to qualitative data analysis, namely the hermeneutic, content, conversation, and discourse analyses. Hermeneutic analysis refers to both the understanding of the text as a whole, and the interpretation of the parts of the whole and then back to the whole. Content analysis involves any inferences technique to identify the specific characteristics of the context. Conversation analysis involves the study of the social



organisation of the conversation by means of a detailed study of the audio-recordings and transcriptions. Discourse analysis is the study and analysis of written texts and spoken words to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias, and how the latter are initiated, maintained, reproduced and transformed (*Maree et al.* 2012:111). For this study, the content analysis was done by identifying the characteristics of the content. The latter empowered the researcher to interact with the data and move back and forth between the transcribed data and the categories. The researcher then used the data to understand the different sections not only before the interaction, but also after they were integrated into the main ideas.

Qualitative data analysis comprises essential steps (Ruona, 2005:240; Creswell, in Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:150; Morse & Richards, in Smith & Firth, 2009:3). According to Ruona (2005:240), the four steps in the qualitative data analysis process are the data preparation, familiarisation, coding and generation of meaning. Creswell (1998 in Leedy & Ormrod, 2006:150) presented the steps of the qualitative data analysis process as follows: organise, peruse, identify, categorise, integrate and summarise. According to Morse and Richards (in Smith & Firth, 2009:3), the analysis of the qualitative data obtained from interviews is based on a common set of principles, namely by transcribing the interviews; the researcher immersing himself in the data to obtain a deep understanding of the phenomena being explored; developing a data-coding system; and linking the codes or units of data to identify overarching categories or themes to develop a theory. The researcher followed the data analysis steps as suggested by *Maree et al.* (2012:114) namely preparing the information for coding, establishing the categories, interpreting of the data, and establishing the trustworthiness and credibility of the data.

#### **3.3.2.2.2 Preparation and coding of the data**

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:369), the preparation of the data involves a separation of the latter into workable units. *Maree et al.* (2012:114) indicated that the preparation of the data involves the researcher describing, organising, transcribing, and familiarising himself with the data. Data description involves the describing of the participants in terms of the sample size, how they were selected, and their background, age, gender, occupation, education, and marital status (*Maree, et al.* 2012:114). In this study, the data

collected were divided into interviews and documents. The specifics of the data were then identified. These were interviews, dates of interviews, participants, their names, the schools they came from, and the positions they held in their schools. With regard to the organisation of the data, it was sorted and linked to the specific participants. The audio and video interview recordings were objectively transcribed and viewed to determine what the interviewees said. The documents submitted by the participants were also identified and classified according to the schools and participants. They included policy documents, lesson plans, and the assessment procedures and records. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:370) explained that transcription is the process of changing notes and information into a format that will enhance the analysis process. That means typing the handwritten notes for entry into a database. For the purpose of this study, the researcher transcribed the recorded interviews word-by-word to identify similarities. For this process, audio or video recordings, notes, transcripts, field notes and the visual images were included (Maree *et al.* 2012:115).

According to Maree *et al.* (2012:115), getting to know one's data involves familiarising oneself with the data. It involves moving between the transcribed and untranscribed data several times. (Maree, *et al.* 2012:115; Ruona, 2005:240). In this study, the researcher read the transcribed and untranscribed data repeatedly to get a better understanding of the content. According to Kawulich (2004:96) and Ruona (2005:236), the purpose of the data-analysis process was to search for important meanings, patterns, and themes to obtain related usable and useful information. The transcribed data from the interviews, and the information collected from the documents, were analysed to obtain its meaning, and an understanding of the information to address the research question. The researcher then obtained the history teachers' responses related to their experiences, beliefs and attitudes regarding the three research questions, namely, How did the post-1998 curriculum changes affect the assessment practices of the history teachers in the secondary schools of the Motheo district? What are the history teachers' opinions on the curriculum content, methodology and assessment changes? What should be done differently to ensure effective assessment practices in school history in the post-curriculum transformation period to improve the academic engagement and performance of the learners?

### **3.3.2.2.3 Coding**

According to Maree *et al.* (2012:118), there are two types of coding, namely selective and axial coding. The former involves the process of selecting a core category and relating it to other categories. The latter involves putting data together in new ways to identify explicit connections between categories and sub-categories of data. Ruona (2005:255) explained that coding involves labelling the main ideas with a code number. The latter process started with close readings of the text, and a review of the multiple meanings that are inherent in the text (Thomas, 2003:4). The data units were then marked with symbols or descriptive words. According to Miles and Huberman (1994:56 as quoted in Rouna, 2005:241), a code is a tag or label for assigning units of meaning to the information compiled during a study. The label represents a theme or pattern in the data (Boyatzis, as quoted in Ruona, 2005:241). The process involves reading the printed transcripts, highlighting the main phrases, and writing comments next to the phrases (Smith & Firth, 2011:10). In this study, the researcher read the transcripts attentively line by line. Within the identified information, the researcher inserted comments. The comments were then used to develop codes. The researcher then summarised the codes using the teachers' own words. He then retrieved and collected all the texts and additional data associated with the theme of the study to classify the information for examination. Important and frequently expressed ideas or themes were scrutinised for patterns and then grouped into broader categories (Esere & Idowu, 2003:3).

### **3.3.2.2.4 Themes and categories**

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:377), a category comprises a group of codes. In this study, similar codes were put together to form a category, which was then labelled to capture the meaning of the codes. Maree *et al.* (2012:119) suggested a hierarchical system in which codes are categorised to reveal the relationships among them. The researcher identified the patterns in the data and, according to Ruona (2005 239), the data analysis process is largely driven by categorising and coding. During the data analysis process, the identified themes and categories were coded to represent the emerging concepts. In this study, categories were developed from the codes and preliminary thoughts to develop into more formal ideas (Smith & Firth, 2011:29). McMillan and Schumacher (2010:377) termed the process a recursive procedure. The recursive procedure is a process involving the repeated application of a

category to match codes and segments. It also involves the search for support and evidence related to the meaning of the category.

#### **3.3.2.2.5 Creating patterns**

According to Le Compte (2000:151), after the categories were created patterns have to be identified. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:78) explained that the relationships among the categories are known as patterns. Finding patterns involves collecting essential parts of the categories and enlarging or combining them into new ones that make sense, empirically and analytically. It also involves looking for similar set of ideas and identify order and relationships. In this study, the researcher identified similar groups of categories and put them together to form patterns in ways to provide a similar explanation of the phenomenon under study. The identified patterns were scrutinized to see how they could be organised to answer the research questions.

#### **3.3.2.2.6 Structuring of the analysed data**

After the groups of patterns were identified, the researcher organised them into structures to describe or explain the research problem, namely the impact of curriculum changes on the assessment practices of the history teachers in the Motheo district in the post-1994 period. According to Maree *et al.* (2012:110), structuring involved bringing proper organisation to the identified patterns. Hence, the researcher identified the links between the patterns by reading each of the patterns to understand how it is related to or contradicted the other patterns with regard to the research questions (LeCompte, 2000:15). The related categories were arranged according to their similarities and differences in meaning. In this study, the process involved the logical arrangement and analysis of the interrelated patterns into ideas to determine an overall answer to the research questions.

#### **3.3.3.3 Interpretation and presentation of the data**

According to Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008:429), the concept of interpretation refers to making sense of data through more abstract conceptualisations. For this study, the data were broken into smaller meaningful units, coded, categorised, and organised

into patterns. The patterns and themes were identified and linked, and then interpreted to search for emerging patterns, associations, concepts and explanations to determine the essence of the phenomenon under study (Maree *et al.* 2012:120; Ormrod & Leedy, 2005:279). Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:5) explained that the aim of the data interpretation process is to use the themes and connections to explain the findings. The researcher developed a list of the key findings after the data were categorised and sorted (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:5). To identify the core themes that could be used to describe the research findings, the researcher compared and integrated the categories continuously from the lower to the higher levels. The categories were constantly refined and redefined to develop concepts and concept frameworks. The researcher then classified the concepts and categories in terms of their characteristics, similarities and differences. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2010:416) explained that concepts can be categorised into two typologies or systems, namely first and second order typologies. In the first order typology, the researcher engaged in categories by giving them meaning using the point of view of the participants. In the second order typology, the researcher elicited the underlying meaning of the information. As De Vos *et al.* (2010:416) explained, at the interpretation stage, the researcher formed a broader picture of the information and put it into the theoretical context to reveal how it supported the existing knowledge. Interpretation can be divided into various forms, such as insight, intuition, context, and a combination of personal views and the social science construct (De Vos *et al.* 2010:416). For the purpose of this study, the researcher used interpretation within the social science construct, namely a study of abstract ideas related to human behaviour (Bhattacharjee, 2012:1). Hence, in this study, the findings were structured into a logical and well-ordered explanation of the essence of the phenomenon being studied, namely the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices.

With regard to the presentation of the data, Matt (2004:326) explained that it involved the translation of the data analysis into presentation. According to De Vos *et al.* (2010:419), the data can be presented in different formats, including a table, figure, visual image, matrix, hierarchical tree diagram, hypotheses or propositions, or metaphors. For the purpose of this study, the data were presented as a matrix on the themes and categories. Hence, the findings were structured and presented in a logical and well-ordered explanation of the essence of the phenomenon under study, namely the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices.

Burnard *et al.* (2008:432) added that qualitative data can also be presented by means of a report of the key findings using the main themes or categories and *verbatim* quotations to illustrate the findings. It could also be presented as a finding's discussion of the separate chapter with reference to existing research (Burnard *et al.* 2008:432). Thomas (2003:1) indicated that most of the inductive studies report between three to eight main categories of findings. For the purpose of this study, a separate chapter will be used to discuss the findings of the research.

#### **3.3.3.4 Trustworthiness**

Rouna (2005:245) explained that researchers have to produce research findings and results that are trustworthy. According to LeCompte (2000:152), to validate the data, the researcher should continuously ask if he/she understands what he/she was studying in the same way that the sampled participants do. Assessing trustworthiness of the data analysis, according to Thomas (2003:7), involves consistency and stakeholder checks. In consistency checks, an independent coder is asked to use a sample of the raw text to interpret sections of the text to the developed categories. Stakeholder checks involve the research participants and other individuals commenting on, or assessing the research findings, interpretations and conclusions. Spiggele (1994:491) indicated that researchers use qualitative data to report their collected data and submit their conclusion to specialists and peers to assess the trustworthiness. To increase trustworthiness, the researcher of this study used the list of qualities provided by Maree *et al.* (2012:123), namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. An elaboration of each follows.

##### **3.3.3.4.1 Credibility**

In this study, the issue of credibility was addressed by using an audio-recording of the interviews. The researcher made a recording of all the interviews and scanned the documents that were collected from the interview sites. The measures were taken to ensure that the data-collection and analysis were credible. After the interviews were concluded, the researcher transcribed the interviews and asked the participants to check if their contributions were properly represented. Ndou (2008:56) explained that credibility is the most important component to establish the trustworthiness in terms of the inferences of the qualitative data.

According to Mafenya (2016:127), credibility in qualitative research can be defined as the extent to which the data and the data analysis were believable and trustworthy. Hence, credibility is about how the research findings match the reality. For the findings to be credible, they must also be consistent with reality. Furthermore, credibility evaluates whether or not the representation of the data matches the views of the participants in the study (Mafenya, 2016:127; Rouna, 2005:247). Credibility is also linked to the extent to which the research findings make sense and are credible to the participants and the readers. The results obtained in one study must be applicable to other studies with similar or identical participants and contexts (LeCompte, 2000:152). Additionally, all the collected data were kept safe for verification.

#### **3.3.3.4.2 Transferability**

According to Ndou (2008:56), the concept of transferability refers to whether the research results are applicable in other contexts. Sethusa (2012:77) explained that transferability is often used as parallel for validity in quantitative research and to predict and establish the extent to which the research findings from a specific study could be generalised. However, according to De Vos *et al.* (2010:420), the generalisation of qualitative research findings in different contexts can be difficult. Mufanechiya (2015:77) added that transferability transfers the findings to comparable schools in similar positions. However, the researcher will not generalise the findings of this study to similar contexts.

#### **3.3.3.4.3 Dependability**

For this study, reliable and tested data-collection methods were used, namely interviews and document analysis. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, in Mafenya, 2016:128), dependability is similar to reliability in quantitative research. Hence, it determines whether the results are dependable and reliable (Mafenya, 2016:128). The two data-collection methods that were used in this study increased dependability of the study. Dependability was also demonstrated through the research design, and the implementation of the latter. The researcher kept a journal of the collected data and the analyses, the document category labels and categories, and observations. The analysis process was documented to enable other researchers to validate the researcher's decisions, analyses, and interpretations (Maree *et al.* 2012:124).

For the purpose of the current study, the researcher kept a file with the research findings related to the research design, the rationale for the study, the procedures followed in terms of the sampling process and the data-gathering, analyses and interpretation.

#### **3.3.3.4.4 Confirmability**

In this study, the researcher used multiple data-collection methods to increase the confirmability of the study. The data was collected through interviews and document analyses. The interviews were recorded, and the related documents scanned and saved. The outcomes of the interviews and the document analysis were accurate reflections of the participants' views, and other researchers. Mufanечиya (2015:77) described confirmability as the objectivity of the findings of a study. Morton (2001, as cited in Sethusa, 2012:77) confirmed that confirmability refers to the extent to which the findings were related to the aims of the research, and not of the subjectivity of the researcher. It refers to the extent to which the participants shaped the findings of the study, and the adequacy of the collected information. Hence, in this study, the researcher developed an audit process for the data-collection procedures to increase the confirmability of the study. Mafenya (2016:127) confirmed that confirmability can be established through an auditing of the research process. The latter was done by archiving all the collected information in a well-organised and retrievable format to be available for the substantiation of the findings. The researcher kept an electronic file with all the gathered data for retrieval on demand.

#### **3.3.3.5 Ethical considerations**

According to Dessie (2015:111), ethical considerations are principles that the researcher uses to protect the rights of the participants in the research. Creswell (2009:73) confirmed that researchers should respect the participants and the research sites. Hence, researchers should keep their ethical responsibilities and the legal constraints in mind when they gather and report the collected information (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:125). He (the researcher) followed the following research procedures: obtained a clearance letter from the University of South Africa regarding the intended research, and wrote a letter to the Free State Department of Education in the Motheo district office to ask for permission to conduct the research in five of the secondary schools. He also contacted the sampled teachers to confirm their willingness to



participate in the study. In all the interview sessions the researcher explained the purpose of the research and an informed consent form was presented to the sampled participants to sign. It also served as an agreement between the researcher and the participants in which the researcher acknowledged the participants' rights. According to Creswell (2009:73), this letter is signed before the participants' engagement in the research. The letter also provided sufficient information regarding the purpose of the study, what was expected from the participants in the study, and how they were sampled. They were also informed of their rights to ask questions, participate or withdraw from the study, the utilisation of the findings, and the protection of the privacy (Dessie, 2015:149). In addition, the researcher assured the participants that they would remain anonymous, and that the study would pose no threat or harm to them in any way.

### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the researcher explained the research methodology of the study. In the first of the three sections, the conceptual and theoretical frameworks and the research design of the study were provided. Constructivism, a paradigm based on the construction of knowledge, was adopted as the paradigm for the study. The latter was followed by the presentation of the purpose of the research and the research questions. The second section focused on the research design. The researcher adopted a qualitative case study research design. It involved the general procedures to be followed in the execution of the research process. The third section contained the discussion of the research methodology of the study. In the first sub-section, the data-collection methods related to the intrinsic case study research design were identified and applied. Interviews and document analysis were used as data-collection methods. The face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with five history teachers to obtain information related to the ways the curriculum changes affected their assessment practices. Documents were analysed to verify the interview data. The sampling procedures were also explained, and purposive sampling was used to identify the participants in the study. The researcher selected five teachers from the 45 secondary schools in the Motheo district to participate in the interviews. He explained the interview protocols to them to maintain their willingness and integrity during the data-collection process. The next sub-section involved the data analysis. The researcher used the hermeneutic data-analysis method in which the researcher moved between the parts of the collected data as well as the whole to understand its meaning as related to the research question. In the sub-sections, the researcher also outlined the data analysis

processes. In terms of the coding process, the researcher transcribed the recorded interviews verbatim. Stand-alone words, phrases and sentences were identified and coded. Several measures were taken to increase the credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability of the study. Furthermore, matters related to the ethical considerations were also taken into consideration. The focus was on the consent letters, the participants' rights, and the issues of confidentiality. In the next chapter, chapter 3, the analysis and discussion of the research results will be provided.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, the research design and methodology of the study were described. The aim of this qualitative study was to use interviews and document analysis to collect the data to answer the research question, namely What was the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on history teachers' assessment practices? The research procedures were discussed, including the sampling of five history teachers from the Motheo district secondary schools, and obtaining the permission from the relevant authorities, the Free State Department of Education, Motheo district, and the school principals. The main data collection methods, namely interviews and document analysis, were also described, followed by ethical considerations. In this chapter the information collected by means of in-depth semi-structured interviews and the document analysis is analysed and discussed, followed by concluding remarks.

#### **4.2 APPROACHES TO AND PRINCIPLES OF QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS**

The researcher followed one the four data analysis approaches identified by Maree *et al.* (2012:11), namely, content analysis. The interview transcripts were read numerous times to understand their meaning. Other approaches include hermeneutic, conversation, discourse, or content analysis (see 3.3.2.2 (a) ). Data analysis principles followed in this study included preparing the data, familiarizing with it, coding and generating the meaning, as suggested by

Ruona, 2005:240; Creswell (in Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:150) and Morse & Richards (in Smith & Firth, 2009:3).

#### **4.3 PREPARATION OF THE DATA**

Data preparation is an important principle of data analysis. In this study, the former involved working on and arranging the collected data to make it usable. All interview recordings from the five participants were transcribed and typed word for word. Each of the five interview transcripts was given an identification symbol starting from Teacher A to Teacher E. All documents collected from the participants were separated and classified under the relevant teacher. The researcher read the transcripts repetitively to familiarize himself with the content of the interviews. The documents copied from interview sites were then analysed to determine how they corroborated or contradicted interview responses.

#### **4.4 CODING THE DATA**

The researcher followed the axial coding procedure to identify and describe similar information. The process involved reading the interview transcripts over and over to get their meaning, to identify connections between the main ideas, and to give them descriptive words. The latter were used to separate different information and group similar concepts together to identify the main ideas. The above-mentioned procedure revealed that the content from the interviews and document analysis can be categorised into main ideas or themes, namely, knowledge of the curriculum changes, experiences, frustrations, attitudes, beliefs, and challenges experienced by history teachers in the implementation of the new curricula.

#### **4.5 ESTABLISH THEMES AND CATEGORIES**

Analysis of the collected data revealed the following themes and categories:

- Understanding of curriculum change  
Feeling about changes; need for changes; confusion, compliance
- Experiences of curriculum changes  
Training; quality of training; preparedness; paperwork; curriculum development

- Perceptions about assessment  
Knowledge of assessment practices; assessment planning guidelines; workload and compliance
- Attitudes towards curriculum implementation  
Knowledge of curriculum implementation; readiness; competency; curriculum development.
- Attitudes and beliefs towards impact of curriculum change on assessment practices  
Assessment methods; assessment activities; quality feedback; importance; school support; regular assessment; number of activities; compliance
- Challenges faced by history teachers in curriculum implementation  
Workload; lack of training and resources; lack of support and accountability.
- Suggestions to overcome challenges affecting implementation  
Proper training; communication; contextual analysis; pilot study.

#### **4.6 STRUCTURING OF ANALYSED DATA**

The aim of analysis of data from interviews and documents was to obtain information that could provide answers regarding participants' knowledge of curriculum changes in South Africa, experiences of curriculum changes, perception of assessment, attitudes and beliefs towards curriculum implementation and its impact on assessment practices. Analysed data showed the following patterns:

All teachers understood and welcomed the post 1994 changes because they replaced the old apartheid education system. That showed that teachers understood curriculum changes and the factors that led to their introduction. They were positive about the new changes, including assessment.

Following the introduction of the new curriculum, the teachers resented the quality of training that they received in preparation for OBE/C2005 implementation, and the lack of support after the training. That showed that the teachers' morale was negatively affected, a matter that might have led to a negative attitude towards the new curriculum.

Most teachers could not implement the new OBE/C2005 curricula properly, including new assessment methods. That means during OBE/C2005 curricula implementation teachers found it difficult to practice good assessment.

During the 2011 CAPS implementation, the process ran smoothly because the teacher had a better understanding of the new system. They were confident after undergoing some workshops and experiencing the reduction of paperwork. That means the teachers' attitudes towards curriculum implementation was largely positive, including its impact on their assessment practices.

All teachers had unpleasant experiences of the OBE/C2005 curriculum implementation and less unpleasant experiences and good experiences of the Curriculum and Assessment Statement (CAPS). They had unpleasant experiences of OBE and RNCS due to a lack of training, resources, and confidence. These experiences affected the way they designed, developed, implemented, and evaluated the curriculum. They were however satisfied with the 2011 CAPS.

Therefore, the researcher concluded that the post 1994 OBE and RNCS curricula implementation had a negative impact on the history teachers' assessment practices in the Motheo district, whereas CAPS 2011 had a positive impact.

#### **4.7 INTERVIEWEE BACKGROUND**

Interviews with the individual teachers from five secondary schools in Motheo district were conducted from 16 April to 29 May 2021. The researcher used an interview schedule as a guide, which included biographical and 31 interview questions. The biographical questions related to the age, gender and background information of their qualifications and teaching experience. Interview questions focused on the post-1998 assessment practices in History as a school subject and focused on curriculum contents, methodology, assessment changes, and suggestions to ensure effective assessment practices in schools (see Appendix E). A brief background of the interviewees is presented below.

### **Teacher A**

Teacher A was a 41-year-old white female educator. She holds a Bachelor of Education degree and has been teaching for 21 years. When Curriculum 2005 was introduced in 1998 she was still at the university and entered the teaching fraternity in 2000 as a newly qualified teacher. She started teaching in the Gauteng Province before coming to the Free State. At the time of the interview, she was teaching at Modules (not real name) Secondary School, which was a former Model C school. Modules Secondary is a quintile 5 fee paying public school with a total of approximately 1200 learners. Most teachers at this school were appointed and paid by the Department of Education, while others were appointed by the school governing body and paid from the school funds. The teacher-learner ratio was approximately 1 to 25. The school grounds were neat, and the environment was attractive and well taken care of. The school had functional sport fields, library, and laboratory. The learners and the teachers had access to the internet in the school. There was no overcrowding and shortage of resources such as textbooks, workbooks, and projectors.

### **Teacher B**

Teacher B was a 35-year-old Sesotho speaking male teacher at Botsitso Secondary School (not real name) in Mangaung, Bloemfontein. He obtained a Secondary Education Certificate and taught as an Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) educator before he was appointed in the Department of Education in 1998. At the time of the interview, he was teaching history in grades 10, 11 and 12. Botsitso Secondary was a non-fee-paying Section 21 school with 1800 learners and 60 teachers. The teachers were appointed and paid by the Department of Education. Many structures stretched over a vast area. The playgrounds were not in good condition and many windows were broken. Classes were full of tables and chairs, but the teacher explained that the school followed Covid 19 social distancing protocols. The class walls displayed maps, graphs and pictures of different politicians, world leaders and statesmen.

### **Teacher C**

Teacher C is a 55-year-old Tswana speaking female teacher at Merakaneng Secondary School (not real name). The school is situated in the rural area of Thaba-Nchu, which was part of the old Bophuthatswana homeland. She holds a Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD) and had been teaching history in that rural school for 22 years. Merakaneng Secondary School was classified as a non-fee-paying Section 21 school with 1500 learners and 37 teachers. The teachers are

appointed and paid by the Department of Education. The teacher-learner ratio is 1:40. The school had a neat appearance and a modern administration block. Her class was situated in the old block of classrooms, far from the administration block, and had good learning space, and pictures of world leaders and historical events. The tables and chairs were neatly arranged, the floor was clean, and the learners' files were neatly kept at the top of the cupboard. The teacher's table was neat and organised. The impression was that she was passionate about her work as a teacher.

### **Teacher D**

Teacher D, a Sesotho speaking female teacher, was forty-five-years of age and a BEd graduate at the Ratang-huto Secondary School (not real name). Her major subjects at university were History and English. She started her teaching career in 2000 and was the head of the history department. Ratang-Thuto Secondary School, which is an English medium school of 1600 learners is situated in the semi-rural area of Botshabelo. The learners at this Section 20 school do not pay school fees and the teachers are appointed and paid by the department. The teacher learner ratio was 1: 40. Many learners at this school speak Sesotho as their home language. The school grounds were not properly maintained although the areas close to the classrooms and offices were neat. All buildings, including the classrooms, and administration block were old and needed refurbishment. The school had no library, laboratory, and iInternet. The teacher's office that she shared with another teacher was located inside the administration block.

### **Teacher E**

Teacher E was a 45-year-old female teacher with a Secondary Teachers Diploma in History and a BEd Honours degree. Her home language is Setswana, and she started her teaching career in the year 2000 and later became the head of the History Department. She taught Social Sciences at the Semakaleng Secondary School (not real name) before teaching History in Grades 10 to 12. This non-fee-paying school of 1400 learners and 35 teachers is situated in a semi-urban section of the rural town of Botshabelo. The teachers were appointed and paid by the Department Education. The teacher learner ratio was 1:35. Many of the learners at this Section 21 school spoke Sesotho. The school, which was built in the 1980s, had good buildings and playgrounds, but there were no proper sport fields for the learners. Some parts of the school grounds and the area between the administration block and the classes were paved. A few trees and green grass gave the school a better look. The school has a media-centre and a school hall, but the learners had no access to the internet. The library and the laboratory were

non-functional. The history teacher's neatly organised office was situated in the administration block. History textbooks, learners and the teachers' files were nicely organised in the open shelves.

#### **4.7.1 Analysing the data from interviews**

##### **4.7.1.1 Knowledge of curriculum change**

The analysis of the interview responses showed that all the participants recognised the benefits of the post-1994 curriculum changes in South Africa. They seemed to have a good understanding of the conditions that led to the changes in the education system. Teacher A said that the introduction of the new curriculum was necessary and had been delayed for too long. She believed that after the 1994 elections South Africa could not continue with the implementation of the old syllabus, which was comprised mainly of the Great Trek and the old European histories. She also indicated that she did not know why the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 was replaced by the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 to 12 of 2002 (NCS), but she said that it could have been because it was not going to do what it was supposed to do. Another possible reason was that the government realised that C2005 focused more on skills than content. The teacher struggled to differentiate between C2005 and Outcomes-Based Education, saying that she could not remember which one came first. She expressed her confidence in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement 2011 (CAPS). Her view was that it covered history more comprehensively than the previous ones, except for grade 10, in which she believed some of the old topics should be replaced.

Teacher B indicated that the post-1994 curriculum changes were good because they were aimed at redressing the imbalances of the past and provide equal opportunities to all sections of the population. He believed that introducing C2005 was a good idea. "It was necessary although it gave the teachers a lot of paperwork." He added that more time was spent on administration than teaching the content to the learners. His opinion was that the replacement of C2005 by the NCS in 2002 was done because of the many technical problems. "OBE was changed because of the technical side of it. Lesson planning and presentation were the main issues because there was no thorough training of the educators to implement the curriculum." In his view, these aspects affected the successful implementation of OBE and NCS, but he believed that CAPS



(2011) was good for educators because it was a modern curriculum and compatible with technology, although it created more workload for the teachers.

According to Teacher C, the post-1994 curriculum changes were positive because they focused on learners as active participants in learning and teaching and imparting of skills. She said that it was imperative for the South African government to change the education system especially taking into consideration the student uprisings of 1976, when the black communities were demanding and fighting for equal education opportunities. When she was asked whether C2005 (1998) was replaced mainly due to its design features, development, and implementation, she indicated that she thought that there were some flaws in the design features, but the main factor was the workload. The NCS of 2002 was an attempt to streamline C2005 and to make it more manageable. She also said that when the C2005 implementation was planned, the teachers were not involved, and she believed that this was not the case with the CAPS document of 2011 because the implementation process was different. In her view, the latter was more effective because the teachers were not only provided with examination guidelines, but there was also more interaction between the subject advisor and the other stakeholders.

According to Teacher D, the post-1994 curriculum changes were good, firstly in terms of quality improvement, and secondly in terms of the accommodation of many racial groups in the country. She explained that the new curriculum was standardised and with no discrimination: “The old system was discriminating, but the new one was applicable to all the racial groups.” She believed that the reason why C2005 was improved was that it did not benefit both the teachers and learners. The teachers were not knowledgeable, and the implementation was too demanding. She added that the NCS of 2002 was effective given the experiences with C2005 and the implementation followed by proper monitoring. Asked why the C2005 and OBE system was replaced, she replied that the teachers were inadequately trained for its implementation and that they were not ready for the latter. In her view, OBE was not suitable for the South African context because it was copied from other countries without assessing its sustainability for introduction in South Africa. Hence, its implementation became a challenge. She welcomed the new Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 because it was clear in terms of its content and the skills that the teachers had taught, and the assessment and evaluation procedures.

Teacher E also expressed a positive feeling about the curriculum changes, because the new curriculum specified and was focused on a learner centred approach, as in other countries. She did not really know why C2005 of 1998 was changed, but she presumed that the problem was the implementation. For this teacher, the implementation of the curriculum was difficult given the huge amount of paperwork to do. She said that during the implementation of the OBE system, the teachers concentrated on the portfolios more than teaching. She argued that the CAPS document of 2011 was better because it was assessment driven. In her opinion, teaching and assessment assisted the learners to understand better. “My feeling is that it was necessary for a change because before 1994 it was Bantu Education and then the new curriculum was learner-centred. I am happy that the curriculum changed.” A pattern that emerged from the interview data was that the teachers were conversant with the factors that led to the curriculum changes in South Africa after 1994. They explained that the first post-1994 curriculum change was introduced to replace the discriminatory policy of apartheid.

#### **4.7.1.2 Experiences of curriculum changes**

It was also found that the teachers were frustrated given their lack of training for the OBE system. Teacher A explained that she was trained for Outcomes-Based Education, although the quality of the training was not good. She said, “I remember going there but I cannot remember who gave it. I just remember that there was not real practicality.” She also explained that she was not knowledgeable in terms of lesson planning, and the OBE training did not help. She also indicated that her school was unprepared for the post-1994 curriculum changes because the teachers knew that they had to change the teaching content, but they did not know how to do so. Another factor was that the older teachers did not want to learn the new methodology. Regarding the OBE assessment, she felt that there were too many little assessment procedures that they were expected to implement. She was however satisfied with the CAPS curriculum “I like it. I do not have issues with it. I believe that a lot of history is covered.” Asked about how the new curriculum changes affected her learners, Teacher A explained that her experience was that at times the learners welcomed and enjoyed the new topics and that was good for learning.

Teacher B said that he was not trained for the C2005 implementation, but that the government was in hurry to change the education system after liberation and less attention was paid to the

planning and preparation of teachers for curriculum implementation. He knew that there was not enough training of the teachers for the curriculum implementation. Asked how he felt the 1998 and 2002 curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS respectively, Teacher B said that the two curricula were different regarding the way the lessons were planned. OBE lesson planning was more complex while the 2002 NCS lesson planning was easier. He indicated that his school was unprepared for the implementation of the new curricula, given that the teachers were not well prepared. When the new curricula were introduced in 1998 and 2002 respectively, as a teacher he had to familiarise himself with the way questions were to be formulated and marks allocated. “These changes affected the learners in a negative way because having to change to the new assessment was stressful to them. When the learners got to the next grade, they found that there were changes and the ground that was laid was irrelevant.”

Teacher C indicated that she was trained to implement the new curriculum, but for her one week of training was not enough. Even the quality of the training was poor. She indicated that the teacher training for the CAPS (2011) was more effective than the OBE. During the OBE training, the trainers themselves did not know anything about it. Regarding the curriculum development she said, “I was completely lost during OBE. Our head of department was not so conversant with the new curriculum, but things started to get better during the NCS of 2002.”

Regarding the readiness of her school for the implementation of the new curriculum, Teacher C indicated that her school was not well-prepared because the white senior management was totally against the changes, and many of the teachers did not attend the workshops. Given the assessment procedures C2005 (1998) and NCS (2002), she indicated that “OBE/C2005 was not doing justice to the learners. Learners were expected to do too many tasks and the teachers were only complying with the requirements. Learners were falling behind in terms of understanding”. She explained that the situation stabilised after the introduction of the NCS (2002), because the work was reduced, and the teachers were able to conduct proper assessments. The CAPS (2011) was a better system given that the learners had plenty of time to learn the content and to be assessed. She believed that the change to the NCS curriculum (2002) affected her learners in a positive way because the teaching was no longer teacher centred. The teachers were to guide the learners, give them work, and allow them to interact with one another.

Teacher D said that she attended a two-three-day OBE training workshop when the system was introduced. It meant that the quality of training was not very good. She described the implementation of the OBE as a challenge to her and the other teachers: “Developing the OBE curriculum was difficult because the learners were expected to learn while playing. But with the new curriculum, curriculum development was better because it was assessment-based, and teachers had to teach according to the set annual teaching plan.” Her school gave the impression that they were ready for the implementation, but not all teachers received training. She said that she could not remember the formal assessment during OBE, but the 2002 NCS made provision for formal assessment and the department was fully involved in the setting of the question papers at the provincial, district, and cluster levels. She felt that the OBE assessment during OBE was not formal and concluded that assessment under CAPS (2011): “It is putting more pressure on the teachers because it is externally planned but the teachers have to implement it, followed by strict monitoring.” The teachers were also expected to account for their learners’ underperformance. She said that the new curriculum changes had a great impact on the teachers, because the learners came and went, but their performance was the responsibility of the teacher.

Teacher E explained that, although she received training for the implementation of OBE, the training was not sufficient because it was five days only: “Yes, I remember. We went for... was it five days? We were trained for five days. It was not enough. Remember we went to colleges of education or universities to be trained to become educators for three or four years. Now for five days. For us it was too little.” She also added that she could not remember planning lessons during OBE but she could for NCS (2002) and for CAPS (2011). She had to sit down and plan for the whole week or term. She also indicated that when C2005 (1998) was introduced, her school was not ready. It seemed to her that the school was resisting the changes, given that they criticized the changes and said that they were used to the ‘old’ system and the move to the learner-centred system was chaotic. They complained that the classes were noisy and chaotic and that during the OBE system assessment was not done on a regular basis, and the subject advisor did not indicate how many written activities should be given. She confirmed that the NCS (2002) and CAPS (2011) focused on regular learner assessment, effective teaching and learning with too much work. However, the new curriculum affected the learners in a positive way. A pattern that emerged was that the teachers had unpleasant experiences with OBE (1998)

and the NCS (2002) and more positive experiences with the CAPS (2011) changes. They were not sure what factors had led to the replacement of the OBE (1998) curriculum and were not satisfied with the way the new curriculum was planned and implemented. They complained about inadequate training and the lack of support during OBE (1998) and the NCS (2002) curricula implementations.

#### **4.7.1.3 Perceptions about assessment practices**

The analysis also revealed that the teachers doubted their understanding of the concept ‘assessment practices’, but all viewed assessment as an important aspect of learning. Teacher A said that she did not know what the concept ‘assessment practices’ implied, but that they could be different methods of assessment such source-based and essay testing. “I do not know what assessment practices mean. Is that the methods of assessing?” She supported informal activities because the latter did not only solidify the content after sections of work were explained, but they also tested the learners’ knowledge and skills. Regarding the assessment planning, she was informed about guidelines for history. “I am guided by the guidelines for history, that in Grade 10 you do this assessment in grade 11 and grade 12 that.” She could not explain the differences between traditional and alternative assessments in clear terms, but explained that in the case of informal assessment, the teachers had the freedom to focus on different aspects, but for formal assessment the Department prescribed assessment details. She indicated that she was struggling to comply with the three written tasks a week, and sometimes failed to comply. Her feeling was that the idea of three written activities was not good for teachers who struggled to get the work done, but she decided not to worry about the above.

Teacher B’s understanding of assessment practices was that the latter evaluated the learners in terms of how far they could implement the skills that they had been taught. He said that teachers applied assessment differently, and the older teachers kept the old assessment methods and ignored the new policy documents. His planning of assessment activities was guided by the knowledge of the learners. His assessment focused on the different cognitive levels, and informal activities should be used to prepare the learners for formative assessment. In his view, “...formative assessment evaluated the learners’ knowledge on what they have been taught...” Regarding traditional and alternative assessments, he said that as a young teacher he was confident with the alternative assessment methods. The older teachers were not confident with

the alternative assessment because of the technology involved. Regarding the three tasks a week rule applied in the district, he felt that it was difficult. He said that the timetables often did not give them enough time to comply with the principles. “Sometimes teachers met the requirement but failed to deliver quality feedback.”

Teacher C, on the other hand, explained that when planning assessment, she focused more on the cognitive level 3 questions because many of the learners found the other levels challenging. She believed that formative assessments were important given what it informed the teacher about the learners’ progress in terms of the work that has been done, and whether the learners understood. “I think that formative assessment is very important because it tells you about the temperatures of the learners, whether the job has been done, they understand you or whatever.” In terms of traditional assessment Teacher C explained that it focused on promoting the learner to the next level, with no focus on different skills. On the other hand, alternative assessment focused on the acquisition of the relevant skills. She added that the idea of three tasks a week was fair, because it gave her the opportunity to deal with three different skills per week.

Teacher D on the other hand viewed assessment as a requirement for every teacher to assess the learners on the lessons that have been taught and the extent of the learning that has taken place. The strategy was to teach the learners and give them different activities on a continuous basis. When asked what informed her planning, she explained that she was guided by the skills that she wanted to impart to the learners. In her opinion formative assessment was important because it informed her about the learners’ performance before they sat for the summative assessment.

Teacher E’s understanding of the assessment practices was that they included forms of assessment such as research projects, homework, and formal activities. When planning her assessment, she took the learning content into consideration, as well as the work done in class, and the knowledge, and relevant skills. About formative assessment she explained that: “Formative assessment is necessary because it contributes towards the progress of the learner towards the end of the year or the end of the term or for the next grade.” When asked about her view on traditional and alternative assessments she said both assessments are important and indicated that she supported the district’s principle of three written tasks a week, and that good planning could assist the history teachers to manage the written activities. A pattern that

emerged from the above was that the teachers were unsure about their understanding of the assessment practices and what informed them.

#### **4.7.1.4 Teachers' attitudes towards curriculum implementation**

It became clear from the interview analyses that not all teachers were conversant with the curriculum implementation as one of the curriculum principles. Teacher A explained that she did not know what curriculum implementation was, because when OBE was introduced she was newly qualified and did not have any issues with it. She was however discontented when another curriculum was introduced in less than four or five years. She said, "I got a bit frustrated. It was kind of make up your mind. We just got used to teaching or doing it this way and now you are bringing in something else."

Teachers A, B, C, D and E agreed that giving too much paperwork without proper training, delayed processing and delivery of the applicable documentation and resources to schools, such as textbooks, black boards and projectors, were huge problems. The latter had a negative impact on the curriculum implementation. Teacher C indicated that training was too short, and with the NCS (2002) there was a lack of preparation, although there were some changes. She also indicated that with the CAPS (2011) there were a lot of changes and clear guidelines in terms of how the learners should be assessed and that made the implementation of the system much easier. As an individual, she was not fully prepared and her supervisor's lack of interest in the changes made the latter work more difficult for her. She thought that the implementation would involve informing all stakeholders about it. The latter included the teachers as part of the design process, given that they were to implement it.

Teacher D added that some of the teachers were anxious to teach the higher grades because they were not confident enough to implement the new curriculum. She was not surprised given that everything that was implemented for the first time was a challenge. "Implementing the new curriculum was challenging especially for history teachers because of reading involved in marking. Added to that was the fact that the post 1994 curricula were full of documentation." The teachers and the learners had to keep portfolios as assessment evidence, and the change from recording sheets to portfolios made the work for the teachers more. In her view, the curriculum implementation involved a set of curricula planned by the senior teachers or

curriculum specialists. They gave it to teachers to implement; however, a smooth curriculum implementation was affected by a lack of teacher education and inadequate in-serve-education.

Teacher E said that she was not content with the way the curriculum 2005 was implemented. “No. Like I have said before it was too little time but too much information that we got. The changes that you come up with, the things you are not used to doing. So as a result, it was not easy.” She added that the Department came up with many changes that the teachers were not familiar with, and they were given little time for training and that made the implementation difficult. Asked if she was prepared as a history teacher for the implementation for the post-1994 curricula, she said that she managed because she was willing to learn from the other teachers. Regarding factors that affected the curriculum implementation, she said that the shortage of textbooks was a serious problem at her school, where forty-eight Grade 12 learners had to share eight textbooks. Another pattern that emerged was that not all teachers understood what curriculum implementation entailed. For them, curriculum implementation should be understood as a change process that needs to be managed by relevant stakeholders of which the teachers themselves were the main role-players. It was therefore imperative that all teachers understood their role as key curriculum implementers.

#### **4.7.1.5 Teachers’ attitudes towards the impact of curriculum change on assessment practices**

Responses to the above interview question showed that the teachers expressed mixed feelings about the impact of OBE (1998), NCS (2002) and the CAPS curriculum document (2011) on their assessment practices. Teacher A felt that the new curricula affected the history teachers’ assessment methods in a positive way because new textbooks contained pictures, sources and ‘did you know?’ sections and all sorts of other interesting activities. It also provided her with the opportunity to do more and assess in different ways. The OBE system allowed the learners to be more active and learn in different ways than the CAPS. It was a positive change because it assisted her to abandon the ‘old’ methods and encouraged her to assess the learners on a regular basis. In terms of the latter, the new assessment methods benefited the history teachers. However, changing from OBE (1998) to CAPS (2011) affected her in a negative way, because she had to use less constructivist teaching methods. Teacher B said that the teachers responded in different ways. He explained that the new curricula changes benefitted the history teachers’



assessment practices in the sense that they introduced alternative methods that included proper planning and standardised activities. However, the introduction of new topics meant that the teachers had to adjust the teaching content, abandon previous assessment materials such as question papers and memoranda and look for new exemplar materials, or adjust them. He added that as an individual his assessment practices had improved greatly since the implementation of the new curricula.

Teacher C added that changing from the old to the new curricula had both negative and positive changes. On the negative side, 'older' teachers complained that the curriculum had been changing "year in year out". For them it was going to affect the way they were assessing, because it meant more work. Hence, and it did not benefit the history teachers. She pointed out that after the new curriculum was introduced, History teachers were often behind with their marking because of the lot of content to be covered. She added that history essays were long, and the marking was demanding, which had an impact on the morale of the teachers. As an individual she felt that she was not assessing the learners as she would like to do. She was just complying with the requirements. However, on the positive side, the curriculum changes were beneficial, because they introduced new assessment methods. It also made learners active participants in the process and allowed them to contribute to their own learning. Teachers were given the opportunity to choose from a variety of source-based and essay-type questions. In the old curriculum, the teachers were focused on doing one essay and one source-based question only. Personally, the new changes did not affect her way of assessment because she was innovative, and she devised other strategies.

#### **4.7.1.5.1 Assessment for learning**

All participants expressed a positive attitude towards assessment for learning, which is an important aspect of alternative assessment. Teacher A explained: "I do not think that you can teach a subject and not have any kind of assessment. There needed to be some assessment that tested or found out if the children understood what they have learnt and if they could implement it." Teacher E confirmed that it was good because as the teacher marked the learners' work, he or she could identify the problems which could result in special attention. Teacher B was positive about assessment for learning, because it encouraged her critical approach to learning. Teacher C felt that the daily assessment was good, because it informed the teacher whether the

learners understood what they were learning in class. Asked whether she believed that assessment for learning enhanced teaching and learning, Teacher E said it did: “Before you go to class you tell the learners what you will be doing so that they can study before coming to class. You come you present your lesson. You give the learners the activity, informal activities which will lead to informal tests which will lead to formal tests.” She elaborated that the informal activities should lead to formal tests, and every time the learners were assessed they better understand the topic.

#### **4.7.1.5.2 Assessment tools**

When the teachers were asked how the new assessment tools were used after the introduction of OBE (1998), NCS (2002) and the CAPS (2011) and whether it affected their assessment practices, the participants pointed out that there were issues with them. Teacher A felt that the paragraph rubric was fine, but that the last three levels of the essay rubric were problematic because they were too similar. Teachers B and C agreed that some of the new assessment tools were not easy to use. Teacher C said that the paragraph and essay rubrics were user-friendly, but she believed that the rubric used to assess the research project would have to be reviewed because it gave the learners the opportunity to plagiarise. Teacher C said, “Some of the tools were difficult for the novice teachers. Even some of teachers who have been long in teaching, they cannot make use of the tools.” She indicated that sometimes different teachers who use the same rubrics differed with huge margins, although that happened on a small scale.

#### **4.7.1.5.3 Resources and support**

When the sampled teachers were asked whether they received enough support to implement the new assessment methods, only a few teachers agreed. Teacher A’s attitude towards the support they received from the school when the new assessment was implemented was that the school helped “tremendously”. They provided the internet, library, and examination papers that could be “reworked”. They also allowed the teachers to attend workshop training sessions. Teachers B and C were not satisfied with the kind of support that they received from their schools. Teacher C explained that her school was not ready to implement OBE, and therefore could not provide proper support to the teachers effectively. They did not get much support from the school, except for photocopies. Support came from the subject advisor in the form of

the policy documents, annual teaching plans, lesson plans and assessment templates. At her school, support started when they got a new school management team, although the lack of finances remained a problem. The school supported the teachers, and the parents and private companies were asked for donations. The school also invited the subject advisors to support the teachers with resources such as ink, papers, and photocopy machines.

#### **4.7.1.5.4 Older teachers**

On the question, whether most teachers welcomed the assessment changes introduced by the new curricula, most teachers disagreed. Teacher A explained that the teachers were mainly frustrated by workshops and training sessions that they had to attend, and they missed their classes. “I cannot remember. I think everybody saw it as a pain.... I think it was an irritation. You must go to all the workshops and the training and then you are missing school, and you are missing teaching.” On the other hand, most teachers expressed a positive attitude towards the CAPS system because it was more prescriptive and history teachers were no longer doing whatever they wanted to do. There was also clarity in terms of the assessment forms. She believed that most teachers welcomed the CAPS assessment system. Teachers B and C agreed that the older teachers did not accept the assessment changes in the new curriculum. Teacher B said that the latter were deeply rooted in the former system, and it was difficult for them. Teacher C added: “Not at all. Especially when you get into the teaching fraternity, most of the teachers whom we found there were old teachers. So, they were not interested. They were not welcoming.” Teacher E agreed with C that the majority of the teachers were not happy because they did not want to focus on the written work only. For them having to mark a minimum of three or four written activities per week was too much. Teacher C said, “It was difficult for the teachers to meet the requirements in terms of the set number of activities per week. Marking tools such as rubrics are good because they guide the teachers to allocate marks for paragraph, essay-writing, and source-based questions.” A pattern that emerged in the above category is that the teachers were not content with the way in which the introduction of OBE 1998 and the NCS 2002 was done, which particularly affected their assessment practices. But they were nevertheless satisfied with the CAPS document.

#### **4.7.1.6 Challenges experienced by history teachers in curriculum implementation**

During the interviews, another theme that emerged was the challenges experienced by history teachers in the implementation of the post-1994 curricula.

##### **4.7.1.6.1 Outcomes-Based Education**

All participants explained that the implementation of the Outcomes-Based Education system was a challenge because of the limited training, preparation, resources and support. The limited training affected their capability to use the recommended cooperative learning strategies. Teacher A explained that during OBE training they dealt with a lot of theory but with no practicalities. Teachers C, D and E agreed that they were not conversant with the curriculum development during the OBE. Teacher D elaborated that the OBE curriculum was difficult to develop because the learners were expected to learn while they played, which caused noise and disruptions in the classroom. Other challenges faced by the teachers was that more emphasis was placed on skills than on content. The integration of the cooperative teaching approaches resulted in chaos in the classrooms. Most textbooks were vague, and the teachers found it difficult to obtain suitable content to teach. Regarding the preparation, they agreed that most schools were not prepared because even the principals and members of the school management team did not know anything about the new curriculum. The schools were also not financially ready to provide enough textbooks, stationary, and tables and chairs for the usually overcrowded classes. The researcher noted that no teacher raised the issues related to the design features, complexity, or terminology.

##### **4.7.1.6.2 National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 to 12 of 2002**

The participants' challenges in the implementation of the 2002 National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 to 12 (NCS) were not the same. Teacher C said that the situation started to get better when the NCS Grades 10 to 12 was introduced. Teacher A said that some teachers were resisting change and complained that it was too soon after the C2005. The underlying factor in the implementation of the NCS (2002) was workload given that teachers and learners were expected to keep portfolios as evidence of their work done. For the history teachers, portfolios were a burden given that they focused on files rather than teaching and it was time consuming.

#### **4.7.1.6.3 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, 2011**

All participants agreed that they encountered fewer challenges in the implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011 than with the 1998 and 2002 curricula. The challenges were mitigated by regular teacher education and the clarity of focus provided in the CAPS (2011) documents. They agreed that CAPS (2011) was easy to implement, including the curriculum development and assessment. On the other hand, the challenges that were faced by history teachers included shortage of textbooks, overcrowded classes, minimum informal activities, and the administration of formal tasks. They also complained that History as a school subject involved a lot of marking, because the tests and examinations included short questions, paragraphs, and essays. Other challenges were complex rubrics and matrixes that were used to evaluate the learners' paragraphs and essays.

Another pattern that emerged was that the history teachers experienced more challenges in the implementation of the OBE and NCS curricula and less challenges during the CAPS implementation. The challenges that they faced in the OBE system were a lack of training and clarity in terms of the curriculum development and assessment while the NCS curriculum presented more workload. Regarding the CAPS (2011), the challenges faced by the history teachers included overcrowded classrooms, the lack of textbooks, time consuming essay marking, and difficult marking tools.

#### **4.7.1.7 Suggestions to overcome challenges affecting implementation**

Asked what could be done differently to overcome the challenges and to ensure that the curriculum implementation would run smoothly, most of the teachers agreed that it was imperative that the teachers were trained, given support, and properly monitored. Teacher A believed that to plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change was difficult because the Department did their best to train the teachers, but some teachers did not attend the training. They were simply resisting the change. "They have had the training; they have had the course but it's whether everyone goes to the training because sometimes it does not get to the people that is supposed to and that is not the department's fault." She suggested that there was a need for checks and balances. They must have up-to-date lists of names in the provinces which will

enable them to know which schools attended the training and which did not. She also indicated that another factor was the non-attendance of workshops by many teachers. Teacher C explained that “the attendance numbers declined especially because the people who were trainers did not understand it.”

She also said that the Department had to ensure that everybody attended the workshops to the last day of the training. Teacher B added that the training should focus on how to design and develop the curriculum and the latter should be followed by proper and constant monitoring. Teacher C suggested that the teachers should be represented in the curriculum review process. That would ensure that the Department got feedback directly from the teachers. Regarding the subject History, she suggested that the workload should suffice. She was also of the view that one essay question and one source-based question would be enough for the Grade 10 to 12 formative assessments. Teacher E explained that the future challenges could be overcome by teacher education, conducting a pilot study, and most appropriate time for implementation. The time after training was completed should be used to make resources for schools, while the pilot study would assist the Department to know possible shortcomings. A pattern that emerged from the above was that the attendance of workshops and longer training periods could have made the implementation of OBE of 1998 and the NCS of 2002 successful.

#### **4.7.2 Interpreting the data from interviews**

After analysing the interview responses, the researcher was of the view that all the history teachers were familiar with the post-1994 curriculum changes, were not content with the implementation given and that they experienced less challenges with the curriculum changes of 2011. An elaboration of the latter follows. It became clear from the interviews that the teachers were familiar with the factors that led to the curriculum changes in South Africa in 1994. They explained that the first post-1994 curriculum change, C2005 of 1998, was introduced to replace the discriminatory apartheid policies. The pre-1994 education system did not offer equal education to all. They agreed that it was necessary to move away after the political dispensation of 1994. They believed that it would be good for all learners. The teachers also showed an understanding of the philosophy that underpinned the new curriculum. They explained that the pre-1994 curricula were teacher-centred and the learners were not active participants in their learning process. Other teachers were positive about the new curriculum

and argued that it would provide them with better opportunities than the previous teaching and assessment method, and that the new learner-centred approaches would be good for education in South Africa. They welcomed the OBE philosophy on which Curriculum 2005 was based.

Most teachers resented the introduction of two more curricula soon after the first. It led to confusion given that the NCS of 2002 was introduced five years after the first curriculum. The teachers complained that they were still struggling to learn the Outcomes-Based Curriculum of 2005. It also became evident that they were not conversant with the factors that led to the replacement of the OBE curriculum of 1998, which meant that they did not know why OBE/C2005 failed. They complained that new changes were confusing which resulted in a lack of understanding. No mention was made of the design features, complexity, or terminology issues. However, they indicated that they were not content with the way the new curricula was planned and implemented. They were also not properly trained to implement the curricula and there was no adequate support.

Most participants were also not conversant with the concept 'assessment practices', despite agreeing that assessment was as an important aspect of learning. When asked to explain their understanding of assessment they did not mention the different assessment methods, forms, strategies, and types that are essential to the history teachers, including the continuous assessment. The teachers were enthusiastic about the possibility of the new curriculum, but they were disappointed by the impracticalities as a result of its implementation. Alternative assessments methods were required. The teachers should understand, identify, and apply effective assessment types, methods, and forms to provide the learners with the opportunity to construct knowledge.

Not all teachers understood what the concept 'curriculum implementation' entailed. The literature review showed that curriculum implementation should be understood as a change process that needs to be carried out by relevant stakeholders of which the teachers themselves were the key role-players. It was therefore imperative that all teachers understood their roles as key curriculum implementers, and that it included design, development, and evaluation of the curriculum by appropriate strategies and methods. It means that teachers had to plan and prepare the teaching of content for classroom use. The implication of the above was that implementation involves putting the curriculum into practice.

Most teachers were satisfied with the way the CAPS document was implemented, despite being discontent with the way the implementation of OBE (1998) and the NCS 2002 was done, given that most history teachers experienced more challenges in the implementation of the OBE and NCS curricula, and less challenges with the CAPS (2011) implementation. Regarding the OBE curriculum, the challenges faced included the lack of training and clarity in terms of curriculum development and assessment system, while NCS curriculum involved a greater workload. The challenges faced by history teachers in the implementation of CAPS (2011) included overcrowded classrooms, the shortage of textbooks, time consuming essay marking and the use of complicated marking tools. The school profiling system showed that the learners from four of the five schools that participated in the study did not pay their school fees and that all educators were appointed and paid by the Department of Education. It means that most of the schools depended on the funding from the Department and did not have the means to provide adequate resources. It became clear from the schools profiling that most of the schools had a teacher learner ratio of 1:40. That means that the school governing bodies did not have the funds to appoint additional teachers.

Lastly, all participants believed that the Department should have endeavoured to ensure the successful implementation of the OBE and NCS curricula by organising good attendance of the workshops, longer training periods, and the provision of resources.

#### **4.7.3 Analysing the data from the documents**

The researcher made copies of the applicable documents to corroborate the interview responses to the post-1994 curricula and the history teachers' assessment practices. The documents collected were the policy documents, assessment plans, lesson plans, tests, examinations, and the recording sheets of the C2005, NCS (2002) and the CAPS (2011) curricula. The checklist below was used to analyse the documents in terms of how they supported the history teachers' understanding of the curriculum changes; the teachers' experiences of the curriculum changes and assessment practices; attitudes and beliefs in terms of the curriculum implementation; and the attitudes towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices.



The following checklist was used to analyse the above documents:

- Policy documents: up-to-date policy documents.
- Assessment plans: up-to-date assessment plans; correspondence related to the school assessment programmes; and reference to the topics, types of tasks, duration, and marks.
- Lesson plans: up-to-date lesson plans and reference to the aims, content, learning activities and assessment methods.
- Tests and examinations: up to date with tests and examinations; with clear instructions for the learners; the curriculum content assessment; cognitive levels assessed; mark allocation, marking guidelines and memorandum used; evidence of the school, cluster, or district's moderation.
- Recording sheets: the learners' marks correctly recorded on the recording sheets, and ensuring that the recording sheets correlate with the assessment plans.

A discussion of each follows.

**(a) Policy documents**

The researcher analysed the documents to identify the participants' understanding and knowledge of the curriculum, and the curriculum changes. In South Africa, the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 2011 remained the national curriculum of the country (Department of Education, 2011ii). It was supported by the National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12, the National Policy pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, Grades 10-12 for History. These documents were distributed to the teachers. For various reasons the 1998 and 2002 curricula policy documents were not available. An elaboration of the above follows.

During the interviews, all participants gave the impression that they understood the curriculum changes of 1998 and 2002; however, the extent of their knowledge and practical application could not be verified by the relevant documents. All teachers, Teachers A, B, C, D and E, did not keep history master files or any electronic database for the safe keeping of the policy

documents, subject meeting minutes, official reports, and other correspondence. It meant that their interpretation, development, and implementation of the 1998 and 2002 curricula could not be determined. It however confirmed the interviewees' feelings about the implementation of the new curricula. Teacher A explained that during the implementation of Curriculum 2005 she was lost and could not remember what was included in the files. Teachers E and D indicated that the history teachers that they replaced might have disposed of the documents given that they were irrelevant after the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) 2011. When asked about the above documents to corroborate what was said during the interview, Teacher B explained that the OBE curriculum 1998 and NCS grade 10 to 12 2002 documents were not available anymore. He said he did not keep the documents because curriculum 2005 was confusing and he did not have a properly monitored and moderated teacher's file. He also indicated that the school did not implement a clear policy in terms of what should happen to the old files. Teacher C's experiences of the previous curriculum changes was that she received poor quality training, and lack of support from the school. For that reason she felt that she was not competent enough to implement the curricula of 1998 and 2002 respectfully. Hence, no documents were available to show how the curricula and assessment changed from the previous to the current documents.

Against the above background, the teachers' CAPS 2011 files were analysed, and they confirmed the remarks that were made earlier during the interviews, namely that most of the teachers were satisfied with the CAPS changes of 2011. The 2021 documents that were scrutinized were the following: policy documents, the annual teaching and assessment plans, lesson plans, tests, examinations, formal activities, and the records of marks.

#### **(b) Assessment plans**

The purpose of the assessment plans was to guide the teachers about the written tasks, the content and skills that need to be covered, the marks allocated for each task and the date of assessment. From a constructivist view, the teachers should use various ways to collect the information of the learners' learning (Brown, 2012:2). After analysing the assessment plans to determine the teachers' experiences of the curriculum changes and assessment, the researcher concluded that the teachers understood and implemented the assessments with ease and in accordance with the policy documents. The analysis showed compliance with the policy. The

assessment plans were fully completed, all the topics were assessed for the whole year and date of the assessments, the assessment tasks, methods, mark allocation, and the duration were all recorded. All Term 1's formal tasks and standardized tests were written, marked, and properly recorded. Up to date documents confirmed the participants' views that the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement of 2011 was a better policy in terms of the planning and implementation. They also agreed that it was clear and easy to implement. Most of the teachers had indicated that they received training but when the OBE curriculum was implemented the whole system frustrated the teachers. Their experience of the new curriculum was that it was challenging and difficult to implement; hence they did not have any OBE and NCS records. In their view, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (2011) was good but focused on too much paperwork.

**(c) Tests and examinations**

The analysis of test and examination documents showed a positive attitude towards the assessment system. During the interviews, the teachers explained that they viewed assessment as a requirement for every teacher and that he/she should use different types of assessment to evaluate the extent of the teaching and learning. Teacher A believed that assessment was about assessment methods, while Teacher E viewed it as types of assessment guided by the content, knowledge, and skills that the teacher aimed to assess. Teacher B's understanding of assessment was that it evaluated learning, while Teacher C believed that it informed the teacher about the learning problems of the learner. Teacher D's view of assessment was that it was a requirement for every teacher to evaluate the learners as frequently as possible. An analysis of tests and examinations confirmed the teachers' perceptions about assessment. The teaching and learning content assessed were aligned with the annual teaching plans. The assessment forms included short-questions based on written and visual sources, and paragraph and essay writing (DBE, 2011:36). All assessment tasks assessed knowledge and skills as prescribed in the policy documents, examination guidelines and the assessment plans. In addition, they showed the content that was assessed, the task, date, mark-allocation, duration, and the marking tools. All tests contained the cover pages that showed the school, subject, grade, date, marks, duration, and instructions to be followed. All tasks set by the Department contained the logo of the provincial Department of Education. The marking guidelines covered cognitive levels 1 to 3 questions. All teachers adhered to the Global Essay Marking principle, which involved the

evaluation of the essay introduction, main body, and conclusion. Thus, adherence to the requirements was an indication that the teachers viewed assessment as an important component.

**(d) Informal activities**

The analysis showed that informal and formal assessment activities formed part of a continuous evaluation of the learning process to enhance the teaching and learning, and to prepare the learners for tests and examinations. Assessment activities were based on the prescribed content and cognitive skills. They assessed analytic, interpretative, argumentative, and comparative skills. Teacher E explained that assessment for learning prepared the learners for summative assessment and contributed to the learners' progress. She also believed that the idea of giving three informal activities a week was a good. An analysis of her documents showed that the number of informal activities that she gave to the learners ranged from two to three activities per week. The latter supported her perception that assessment for learning enhanced the teaching and learning process.

Teacher B said that, although continuous assessment was good, three informal activities per week was not the ideal given the high number of enrolments. He also indicated that the disadvantage of the above approach was that it was ineffective given that teachers applied it for the sake of compliance. An analysis of the documents confirmed the above remarks. Although the learners were given an average of two to three activities a week, many of them were not marked, which did not provide the learners. Both Teachers C and D believed that formative assessment was a good and the idea of three activities per week was excellent. On the other hand, Teacher D's view was that assessment should be done frequently even though it put more pressure on the teachers. They both agreed that formative assessment was important because it informed the teacher whether the learners had learnt or not. The document analysis showed that the teachers were complying with the policy, because more informal activities were written and marked.

The feedback given to the learners was inconsistent and in some cases most of the class or homework activities were not marked. Some of the teachers also used a variety of assessment types, such as self- and peer assessments.

**(e) Lesson plans**

During the interviews, most teachers were not conversant with the curriculum implementation process, and what was implied in practice. From a constructivist perspective, lesson planning as part of curriculum development and implementation should follow the non-technical post-positivist approach in which the curriculum developer integrates the basic components such as the subject matter, objectives, learning experiences and evaluation (Magboro, 2012:4). Non-technical approaches should be activity-oriented and emphasise the use of activities as the major learning experiences of the learners.

The researcher scrutinized the copies of lesson plans included in the teachers' subject files to understand how they planned and implemented the curriculum in their classes, and to identify their attitudes and beliefs towards the curriculum implementation process. The extent of teachers' organisation and preparedness differed from one teacher to the other. Teacher A's file did not have any evidence of lesson planning. Teacher B's documents were not properly organised although there was evidence of all the necessary documents. Most of the templates were blank, including assessment and lesson plans and the moderation tools. Teacher C used the most documents that revealed a positive attitude towards the implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. Teacher D believed that everything that is implemented for the first time is a challenge. Her understanding of the curriculum implementation process was that the teachers were given a set curriculum compiled by the officials and curriculum specialists and they had to ensure that it was implemented. She believed the workload could hamper smooth curriculum implementation. That was also evident in her work because she did not compile lesson plans. Teacher E's lesson plans were also not up to date.

Curriculum development under the CAPS (2011) should equip the learners with the essential knowledge, content, skills, values, and attitudes for self-fulfilment (Palmer & de Klerk, 2011) It means that the CAPS curriculum (2011) was a content and assessment driven curriculum based on essentialism. The implication of this to the teachers is that they should prepare the lessons themselves to present a body of knowledge including skills, values, and attitudes.

However, the lack of planning or comprehensive planning was apparent during the analysis of lesson plans. It means that there was a lack of clarity in terms of the learning content and time allocation, teaching strategies, learning activities and the applied assessment methods. This confirmed the researcher's observation during interviews that most of the teachers were not conversant with the curriculum implementation process.

**(f) Recording sheets**

Assessment from a constructivist approach is a systematic collection and analysis of information to improve the learner's learning (Sewagegen, 2016:28). Recording involves keeping a record of the learners' performance in formal activities, including research tasks, tests, and examinations. The records should be used to give feedback to the learners and other relevant role-players about the learners' performance. The latter can also be used to determine the learners' promotion or progression to the next grade or class. The researcher used the recording sheets to determine if they were up to-date, and to grasp the teachers' attitudes towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices. The weighting of marks was done by using the School Administration and Management Systems (SA-SAMS). The learners' marks were recorded on the official School-Based Assessment (SBA) recording sheets. The assessment records correlated with the assessment plans and included the learners' names, year of assessment, term, tasks, date, the total marks, and the marks obtained. There was also evidence of school, cluster, and district moderation.

A matter that emanated from the document analysis was that all of the participants kept Grade 12 subject files and used them to implement the curriculum changes and assessment. However, the Grade 10 and 11 teacher files were unavailable, and it was unclear how the curriculum was implemented in these classes. The researcher concluded that most teachers were positive about the impact of the curriculum changes on their assessment practices given their planning, administration, marking of the formal tasks, and properly recorded learner performances. However, the researcher was concerned about the lack of evidence and proper assessment management in the Grades 10 and 11 classes.

#### **4.7.4 Interpreting the data from document analysis**

An analysis of the policy documents, assessment, lesson plans, tests and examinations and recording sheets confirmed the comments made by the participants during the interviews on the implementation of the post-1994 curricula, and how their assessment practices were affected. All the teachers were familiar with and positive about the post 1994 curriculum changes in South Africa. They understood the curriculum aspects that affected them and their learners. Some of the teachers did not know the factors that led to the changes in the OBE curriculum of 1998 while others confused OBE curriculum and C2005. Keeping relevant and up to date curriculum documents was a positive movement.

The curricula implementation of 1998 and 2002 had both positive and negative impacts on the participants' assessment practices. On the one hand, the teachers were enthusiastic about the new inclusive and learner-centred approach to teaching and assessment, but on the other hand they were eager about the new methods that advocated learner involvement, which had a positive impact on their assessment practices. On the other hand, the implementation of C2005 (1998) and the NCS (2002) had a negative impact, given that when new changes were introduced the teachers were not trained to design, develop, implement, and evaluate the new curricula, which resulted in discontent. There were even more problems when a revised curriculum was introduced soon after C2005. Hence, no records were available to understand how the curricula were implemented and how to deal with the challenges that they had to face.

Regarding the 2011 Curriculum and Assessment Policy (CAPS) implementation, it also resulted in both a negative and positive impact on the teachers' assessment practices. On the negative side, some teachers felt that the new curriculum put too much pressure on them, taking into consideration that it was an assessment driven curriculum. They argued that there was too much assessing that needed to be done. Many teachers believed that at times they assessed for compliance only. On the positive side, learners were given more assessment activities which was good for their academic development.

The teachers' activities were organised into portfolios, which included the name of the school and the teacher, subject, grade, and year of assessment. The file followed the index as per the School Based Assessment Guidelines. The activities correlated with the assessment plan dates.

The assessed content correlated with the annual teaching plan. The assessment tasks contained instructions for the learners and included short and long questions. The teachers indicated that the new curriculum was efficient in terms of the content and the skills to be assessed as well as the recording and reporting procedures. The keeping of relevant and most recent CAPS documents (2011) included policy documents, assessment plans, lesson plans and recording sheets which was an indication of the positive perception and attitude towards the assessment practices. An analysis showed that all teachers were completing the term assessments, which was an indication of their positive attitudes towards and beliefs in the curriculum changes of 2011. It also provided evidence that CAPS (2011) had a positive impact on their assessment practices.

#### **4.7.5 Presenting the data**

The aim of the interviews and document analyses was to investigate the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices. The interview responses and the teachers' documents were organised into themes, categories, and patterns. It means that the similar thoughts were labelled, put together and compared to understand their meaning and how they answered the research question. All teachers seemed to understand that curriculum change meant a change in the teaching content, approaches, and assessment methods. They were positive about the post-1994 curriculum changes and believed that the changes were necessary for a successful education dispensation. Teacher A believed that the changes had been delayed for too many years. Teacher B explained that it was necessary to deal with the imbalances of the past regime while Teacher E reiterated that the old system was discriminatory. These views were consistent with De Waal's (2004:3), argument that the objective of the OBE system was to replace the legacy of the apartheid education dispensation and to steer South Africa into the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Teacher C said that the new curriculum was good because it was learner centred. A learner-centred approach to curriculum implementation was one of the three design processes advocated by O'Neill, (2010:1) and explained by Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:252) who focused on critical procedures and dispositions that enable the learner to analyse the everyday contexts and create frameworks to organise knowledge.



However, all participants were not satisfied with the quality of the training that they had received for the implementation of C2005 of 1998 and the NCS of 2002. They said that the training lasted for two to three weeks, with the latter in mind they were not confident enough about the new curricula. Teacher C said their training was not good, and her head of department was not familiar with the new curricula. The latter was corroborated by Mofokeng (2004:3) that when the implementation of the OBE curriculum started, teachers were struggling with its implementation in terms of its basic principles, policies and guidelines. They could not design or develop pedagogically sound OBE lessons because they did not receive proper training. In that way, the OBE system was not doing justice to the learners and teachers, given that Teacher B suggested that the Department was in hurry to change the system and Teacher C added that the departmental officials who were conducting workshops themselves did not understand the OBE system well.

In terms of the teachers' perceptions of the assessment system, all the participants agreed with Harden (1986:5) that assessment, as an important aspect of, and a final stage of curriculum development, was used to determine the quality of learning by selecting the most appropriate assessment methods. They also agreed that different forms of assessment should be used on a regular basis to provide opportunities for all learners and make all learning more effective. With regard to the teaching and learning informal activities, the teachers held different views. Some teachers believed that the informal activities should be left to the teachers and that the officials should not prescribe any informal activities. Teachers A, B and D also indicated that they gave activities to the learners to comply with the latter and this led to inefficiency in terms of the feedback to the learners. Teacher C indicated that prescribing assessment activities was a good idea for the underperforming schools, while Teacher E believed that good planning would enable the teachers to reach their targets successfully. The differences in terms of perceptions about assessment emanated from the teachers' beliefs and philosophical orientations. Constructivist assessment methods involved the use of a variety of assessment forms and methods to make an informed decision about the learners' learning needs. It was contrary to positivist approaches that encourage the use of teacher centred assessment methods. Teachers who did not approve of constructivism provided fewer assessment activities because they did not use constructivist learner-centred strategies.

The teachers explained that curriculum implementation implied the implementation of the curriculum documentation in the classroom (Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010:1). Their attitude towards the 1998 OBE curriculum was that most schools were not ready. It was also clear from the interviews that there was heavy resistance to the changes. Yusof *et al.* (2014:1) pointed out that the teachers were comfortable with the traditional teaching methods and viewed the new dispensation as a challenge to the teaching philosophy and methods. One of the approaches that was used was the concern-based adoption model of curriculum implementation, in which the teachers' concerns were addressed to make them understand the need for and the importance of the implementation of the curriculum (Yusof, Sidin & Sihes, 2014:15). In addition, Ornstein and Hunkins (2004:317) referred to the educational change model in which the role-players should understand the rationale for the change, and how the goals would be achieved. A lack of understanding curriculum implementation could be a result of the lack of training in curriculum principles.

The participants also believed that the curriculum implementation of C2005 of 1998 was unsuccessful because the teachers were inadequately trained. Teacher A explained that she was 60 to 70% ready for the new policy implementation. Teacher C confirmed that the OBE training was not efficient. Teacher D added that some teachers were reluctant to teach Grade 12 classes because they were not confident in their skills, while Teacher E confirmed that many educators were not content with the way that the new curricula were implemented. They also alluded to the shortage of resources as an important factor that led to the implementation difficulties. The lack of resources for the implementation of the OBE system confirmed Mofokeng's (2004:3) conclusion that teachers had to deal with difficult circumstances including overcrowded classrooms, a lack of textbooks and many other basic resources.

In the literature review section, it was explained that any curriculum implementation should involve the arrangement, interaction, management, and assessment of teaching content in the classroom. From a constructivist point of view assessment does not refer to examinations in the classroom, but to assessment that is integrated into the learning process itself (Mafenya, 2016:10). All the participants believed that their assessment practices improved greatly since the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011. Their attitude towards the impact of the curriculum changes on their assessment practice was evident

in their application of the different assessment types including assessment for learning, that according to them was good for teaching and learning in the classroom.

The practice of assessment as an integral part of learning refers to a process of information gathering about the learners' progress in learning, and what they know and can demonstrate as a result of the learning process (Uiseb, 2009:9). The document analysis also showed that most teachers focused on the informal activities. Although Teacher C was of the opinion that many teachers did not accept the new assessment changes, the evidence in her files showed that she applied different assessment tools, including rubrics and matrixes, to evaluate the learners' work. All teachers and the learners' evidence showed that they were supported by the school and the subject advisor. The school also provided enough paper for the teachers and the learners to make copies. The amount of class and homework that Teacher D gave to her learners confirmed that she accepted the importance of the continuous assessment system, although some of the teachers did not welcome new assessment changes, except for the new assessment tools. The incomplete documents and unmarked class activities supported the view that some teachers were of the opinion that the new changes resulted in a lot of work, especially in History. Other teachers admitted that due to workload and the workload of the history essay marking they could not assess their learners as was expected.

In terms of the teachers' attitudes towards the impact of the curriculum changes on their assessment practices, all of the teachers agreed that the OBE and NCS curricula of 1998 and 2002 respectively had a negative impact on their assessment practices because they really did not know how to do it. However, they agreed that the CAPS document of 2011 had a positive impact on their assessment practices, because they were confident about their practices. They also explained that CAPS (2011) informed them more clearly regarding their teaching and assessment activities. According to Mofokeng (2004:3) the difficult conditions faced by the teachers during the new curriculum implementation was an indication that it was not effectively designed or piloted. Teacher E added that the Department should be clear of when to go ahead with the implementation. Hence, the curriculum should not be implemented immediately, but enough time should be allocated for the teachers to be introduced to the curriculum (Obilo & Sangoleye: 2010:1). In the latter way, the Department could anticipate possible problems in advance and address them in time. Teacher C explained that the monitoring was important for the successful implementation of the curriculum given that introducing a new policy cannot be

introduced with no interest in it. The latter corroborated the view that any curriculum needs supervisors to ensure that it was properly implemented and the content well taught (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004:19). Teacher D’s view was that the government should assess the country’s capacity before copying policies from the developed countries. To overcome the challenges faced in terms of the implementation of the curriculum, all teachers indicated that the Department should implement proper teacher education before the new policies could be implemented. They should also provide schools with enough human and financial resources. In addition, the departmental officials should monitor the teachers’ implementation of the system. Teacher A confirmed that up-to-date registers should be kept to know which schools did not attend the training workshops. Teacher E concluded that a pilot study was of utmost importance before curriculum implementation.

#### 4.7.6 Visualising, representing, and displaying the data

In the previous sections, the data was reduced, categories were generated, and the data was coded. In the next section the data will be visualised, represented, and displayed. According to De Vos *et al.* (2014:418) the final phase of the data analysis involves presenting what was found. The latter could be presented in text or represented in tabular or figure form. In this study, the researcher created a visual image of the information and used a table to present a comparison of participants’ responses to the study categories (De Vos *et al.* 2014:416, and Maree *et al.* 2017:110)

##### 4.7.6.1 KNOWLEDGE OF CURRICULUM CHANGE

Teachers	Feeling about new curricula	Factors leading to review of C2005/OBE	Knowledge of curriculum principles	Opinions about CAPS
Teacher A	Positive	No idea	Not clear	Like it
Teacher B	Not sure	Implementation	Not clear	Good
Teacher C	Good	Workload	Not clear	Better
Teacher D	Right	Lack training	Not clear	Fine
Teacher E	Necessary	No idea	Not clear	Too much

#### 4.7.6.2 EXPERIENCE OF CHANGES

Teachers	Training received	Quality of OBE training received	Attitude towards OBE curriculum development	Preparedness for new curricula	Experience of assessment during changes	Impact on learners
Teacher A	Yes	Not good	Unnecessary	Not prepared	Too much	Positive
Teacher B	No	Not good	CAPS clear	Lesser extent	Different	Not sure
Teacher C	Yes	Not good	Lost	Not ready	Not good	Positive
Teacher D	Yes	Difficult	Difficult	Challenging	Less formal	Negative
Teacher E	Yes	Not enough	OBE not clear	Not ready	Too frequent	Positive

#### 4.7.6.3 PERCEPTIONS ABOUT ASSESSMENT

Teachers	Understanding of assessment Practices	Essential for assessment planning	Feeling about formative assessment	Understanding of traditional assessment	View on assessment activities
Teacher A	No idea	Guidelines	Important	Not clear	Problematic
Teacher B	Evaluating skills	Knowledge of learners	Important	Not clear	Pressure
Teacher C	No idea	Question levels	Important	Not clear	Fair
Teacher D	Assessing learners	Skills	Important	Not clear	Too much
Teacher E	Types of assessment	Content understanding	Important	Not clear	Good

#### 4.7.6.4 (a) ATTITUDE TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION OF POST 1994 CURRICULA

Teachers	Content	Prepared for curriculum implementation	Understanding curriculum implementation	Factors contributing to success	Views on assessment for learning
Teacher A	No	Yes	Do not know	Training	Yes
Teacher B	No	No	Not clear	Training	Yes
Teacher C	No	No	No clarity	Support	Yes

#### 4.7.6.5 (b) ATTITUDE TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION OF POST 1994 CURRICULA

Teachers	Teachers welcomed Implementation	Assessment rubrics easy to use	Support from school	Impact on assessment methods	Impact on assessment practices	Benefit for teachers	Positive impact on individual teachers
Teacher A	No	No	Good	Positive	Frustrating	Yes	Yes
Teacher B	No	Yes	Poor	Negative	Negative	Yes	Yes
Teacher C	No	Yes	Bad	Positive	Challenging	Yes	No
Teacher D	No	No	Poor	Positive	Too much	No	Yes
Teacher E	No	Yes	Good	Positive	Positive	Yes	Yes

#### 4.7.6.6 HOW TO BEST PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTATION

Teachers	Information dissemination	Teacher Education	Workshop attendance	Teacher involvement	Resources
Teacher A	Yes	-	Yes	-	-
Teacher B	-	Yes	-	-	-
Teacher C	-	-	Yes	Yes	-
Teacher D	-	-	-	Yes	-
Teacher E	-	-	-	-	Yes

#### 4.7.6.7 HOW TO ENSURE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION

Teachers	Workshop attendance registers	Support	Monitoring	Workload reduction	Pilot study
Teacher A	Yes	-	-	-	-
Teacher B	-	Yes	Yes	-	-
Teacher C	-	-	Yes	-	-
Teacher D	-	-	-	Yes	-
Teacher E	-	-	-	-	Yes

### 4.8 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.8.1 Trustworthiness

The researchers must strive to obtain results that are trustworthy by establishing the protocols and procedures that are necessary for a study to be considered worthy (Connelly, 2016 and Rouna, 2005:245). Gunawan (1993) added that a study was trustworthy if the reader of the research report found it to be so. Trustworthiness, according to Pilot and Beek (2014 in Connelly, 2016), refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study. To ensure the integrity of the findings, qualitative studies should be rigorous and transparent, and the methods used in data collection and analysis should be

justified. Guba (1982:1) identified four aspects of trustworthiness relevant to the quality of a study, namely truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. It meant that the researcher should establish confidence in the truth of the findings, ensure that the findings are applicable to other contexts and settings, determine the consistency of the inquiry and ensure that research procedures and results are free from bias. According to Le Compte and Goetz (1982 in Brink, 2018; Denzin, 1970 in Brink, 1993; Reiss and Sprenger, 2016 in Nunn *et al.* 2018:1) the latter can be achieved by putting in place measures to ensure that the results are valid, practical, and objective.

#### **4.8.2 Internal validity**

In qualitative research, internal validity is used to ensure that the study results are credible (Johnson, 1997:7). According to Hoepfl (1997:58) internal validity refers to the extent to which the findings accurately described reality. Guba, Le Compte and Goetz (1982:22 in Brink, 2018:1) added that it involved the extent to which the scientific findings were precise and truthful. Denzin (1970 in Brink 1993:1) explained that the former was considered relevant in qualitative research and referred to the extent to which the research findings give a true reflection of reality. It was enhanced by comparing the results with the results obtained in other studies or confirming the findings and analysis with the participants. Shenton (2003:68-73) reiterated that the researcher can ask the participants to read any interview transcripts in which they have participated, ask his or her peers to scrutinize the findings, or examine previous research findings to assess the degree to which the project's results are comparable. Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure, and Chadwick (2008:1) argued that there is no definitive answer to the issue of validity in qualitative analysis; however, Anney (2014:276) explained that internal validity could be enhanced through six strategies, namely, prolonged engagement in the research site; triangulation; peer debriefing and support; member checking; negative case analysis and audit trail. A discussion of each strategy follows.

Prolonged engagement involves the researcher interacting with the participants to gain insight into the context of the study. It helped the researcher to understand the factors that might affect the quality of the data, minimise any sense of threat that may accompany the presence of the researcher, and developed trust with the study participants (Anney, 2014:276, and Shenton & Heyter, 2004:1).

Regarding triangulation, Anney (2014:277) explained that it involved the use of numerous and different methods, investigators, sources, and theories to obtain corresponding results. According to Lietz, Langer and Furman (2006:1) the former was an important strategy for establishing rigor in qualitative research. It enabled the researcher to reduce bias and improved the integrity of participants' responses. The researcher can follow any of the three triangulation techniques, namely, the use of multiple researchers, different sources and different methods. The researcher can also ask another person who has been involved in a similar project to conduct a simple data analysis (Lietz *et al.* 2006:1). In this study two different methods were used to obtain corresponding results, namely interviews and document analysis.

The use of peer debriefing and support involved the researcher seeking support from other professionals willing to provide academic guidance or contact the respondents to check the accuracy of facts and document analysis. The researcher can present his findings to peers for comments, which helps to improve the quality of the inquiry findings. Hadi and Closs (2013:341) added that in peer debriefing the researcher discusses the research methodology, data analysis, and interpretation continuously throughout the process with a peer who is not directly involved in the research project. The researcher can also increase peer debriefing by presenting research findings at conferences, regular discussions with an expert qualitative researcher and present preliminary findings to interested groups. In this study, the researcher's supervisor acted as a debriefer to assist in the improvement of the inquiry findings.

In terms of the member checks strategy, corroboration and coherence in the structure of the study was ensured. The purpose of the former was to remove the researcher's bias when analysing and interpreting the results. The analysed and interpreted data were sent to the participants to evaluate and suggest changes if they were unhappy with it. According to Lietz *et al.* (2006) it involved the researcher sending both researchers and participants the findings from both findings, to discuss which aspects of the analysis best fit their perspectives. The participants were asked to identify areas that have been missed or misinterpreted (Lietz *et al.* 2006:453). Consistency and member checks procedures were conducted to find out whether the researcher understood the data in the same way that the participants did (Thomas, 2003:7, and La Compte, 2000:152). The participants were asked to read the transcribed data to confirm if their responses were correctly transcribed.



The negative case analysis involved the researcher enhancing the consistency by re-examining every interview to see whether the characteristics of the emerged themes were relevant to all the interviews. The researcher searched for examples that contradicted their expectations and explanations about what they were studying (Johnson, 1997:2).

With regard to an audit trail, Anney (2014) and Lietz *et al.* (2006:450) confirmed that it is a process that involves describing the research procedures to ensure dependability and confirmability of the research findings. It enables the researcher to demonstrate understanding by describing the procedures from transcriptions to theory, including the unique decisions that were taken during the study but not previously described. The process involves describing the research procedures by asking the auditor to check the processes and to reach an agreement with the researcher as reflected along the trail.

### **4.8.3 Practicality**

According to Carnine (1997) the quality of research findings should be assessed in terms of practicality. Allen (2014:277) explained that practicality "... is the balance between efforts and benefit ...". It focuses on whether the groups that the researcher depends on for checking the validity of the results will think that the study was worth the effort. It refers to the research findings that the teachers and the learners find useful and easy to translate in the classroom. (Hide, Azhar, Almasri, and Anshari, & Van Velzen, 2013:1). Hence, it is significant for the relevance of educational research findings. To enhance practicality, the researcher must obtain the cooperation of education experts; however, if the group is too busy to pay attention to the results findings, the researcher can make changes for his/her own benefit and maintain additional quality information (Allen, 1997:1). It means that the researcher must apply his/her own measures to ensure the quality of the results. In this study, the researcher used alternative strategies to ensure practicality, including member checks, whereby the participants were asked to check the findings and to comment about the practicality of the results, and a negative case analysis, in which the researcher looked for feedback that contradicted expectations.

#### 4.8.4 Objectivity

The researcher increased objectivity in this study by reporting all procedures followed in data analysis, including approaches to and principles of qualitative data analysis. According to Reiss and Sprenger (2016 in Nunn *et al.* 2018:1) objectivity in qualitative research refers to methods and results that are not influenced by, among others, perspectives, bias, or personal interests. To ensure that the researcher did not influence the study results, he/she should be open to scrutiny and the findings should not rest on the authority of the researcher. Richard, Kolbe, Melissa & Burnett (1991:245) explained that objectivity involves a process by which categories are developed and used. Thus, to comply with this, the researcher explained that content analysis approach was followed. The data analyses were also discussed including data preparation, familiarizing with the data, and the axial coding procedures used to identify themes and categories.

### 4.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the approach and principles followed in data analysis to determine the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices were explained. The procedures followed in the preparation and coding of the data, as well as the establishment of themes and categories, were discussed. The interviewee's background information was presented and the information from the interview and document analysis was analysed and interpreted, followed by data visualising, presenting, and displaying. The methods followed in data validation were discussed, including the ensuring of trustworthiness, internal validity, practicality, and objectivity. The study found that most teachers had unpleasant and frustrating experiences following the implementation of the post 1998 curricula, particularly the Outcomes-Based Education. The concerns raised were around inadequate training of teachers to prepare them for the new changes and the lack of support from the relevant stakeholders including the departmental officials and school principals. The study found that C2005 and NCS 2002 had a negative impact on the history teachers' assessment practices, while most teachers were positively affected by the CAPS 2011. Chapter 5 will focus on the research findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, the data from interviews and documents were analysed, interpreted, and presented. It started with the discussion of the approaches to and principles of data analysis, followed by explanation of the steps taken in data preparation, including data transcription, familiarising with, and identifying its meaning. The researcher then explained how data coding was done and how the themes and categories were established. The data obtained from the latter were interpreted, and the typologies were developed and structured. The findings from interviews and document analysis were presented in relation to the research question, namely, what was the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on history teachers' assessment practices? To ensure that the findings were truthful, measures followed to determine internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity were explained. In this chapter the findings of the empirical study will be discussed, followed by conclusions and recommendations.

#### **5.2 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE**

The relevant literature provided a steady foundation for the study. The literature review focused on the following: The principles of curriculum, namely curriculum design, development, and implementation; a survey on curriculum design, development and implementation during the 1998 Outcomes-Based Education (OBE), the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) of 2002, and 2011 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS); and the post-apartheid assessment practices in History as a school subject. The following section focuses on the summary of the methodology.

#### **5.3 SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY**

The methodology section was based on discussing, defining and explaining the research methodology adopted in the study. Justification for the methodology was provided. The study adopted constructivism as a research paradigm. A qualitative research methodology was selected as the appropriate method. The researcher selected an intrinsic case study as the appropriate qualitative research design. Interviews and document analysis were used to collect data. Five history teachers, amounting to ten percent, were selected from 45 history teaching schools in the district. Permission was obtained from the relevant officials and consent was obtained from the participants. Face-to-face semi-structure interviews were conducted, and copies of relevant documents were collected from interview sites. The subjectivist data analysis was applied. Appropriate measures were taken to make the research findings trustworthy. For credibility, the participants were asked to check if their contributions were properly represented. Regarding transferability, the researcher did not generalize the findings of study to similar contexts. To ascertain dependability, the researcher kept a file with the research findings related to the research design, the rationale for the study, the procedures followed in terms of the sampling process and the data-gathering, analysis and interpretation. The researcher ensured confirmability by developing an audit process for the data collection procedures. The researcher also kept an electronic file with all the gathered data for retrieval on demand.

#### **5.4 THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

The aim of the research was to investigate the impact of the post-apartheid curriculum changes on history teachers' assessment practices in the Motheo district in the Free State Province. The main objectives were to determine the extent to which the various curriculum changes since 1998 have affected the assessment practices of the history teachers; to sample these teachers' opinions regarding the curriculum changes in history as an independent subject, and to suggest a model that can be used to ensure smooth curriculum transitions from teacher-centred assessment practices to learner-centred assessment practices to improve the academic engagement and performance of the learners.

The findings in this study were based on the following six themes:

The first theme involved the history teachers' understanding of the concept of curriculum change. This study found that most teachers understood what curriculum change entails. They felt positive about the new curriculum, even though they were not fully prepared for its implementation. Literature on teachers' preparedness for curriculum implementation confirms the findings on preparedness, and another on teachers' views on curriculum change. When the new curriculum was introduced, teachers attempted to organise their work within the framework of the new curriculum and few understood that implementation resulted in a constant move between new policy requirements and the established conventions and practices (Jansen in Gultig, 2008:172). However, Vandeyer and Killen (2003:1) found that teachers still applied the same pedagogical practices they used before.

The second theme involved the teachers' experiences of curriculum changes and assessment. The study found that most teachers were frustrated by assessment changes during the 1998 Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) and the 2002 Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS). The researcher's impression is that a lack of adequate training in curriculum principles did not only lead to resentment among the teachers, but it also impacted their confidence in curriculum design, development, and assessment. Literature on the teachers' experiences of curriculum change confirmed that poor training led to anxiety and confusion (Jansen in Maphalala, 2006:62).

The third theme was based on the teachers' perception of the concept of assessment. The study found that most teachers were not only doubtful about their understanding of assessment practices, and traditional and alternative assessment, but they were also not certain about what informed their assessment planning. Most teachers expressed dissatisfaction at the number of assessment activities prescribed by District officials as they felt that the teaching environment was not the same in all schools. According to literature, traditional assessment continued to play an important role in schools where teachers failed to implement the new assessment system (Jansen, 1997:8).

The fourth theme referred to the teachers' attitudes towards curriculum implementation. The study found that most teachers viewed in a negative light the way Curriculum 2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10 to 12 (2002) were introduced. In their view, the implementation of the new curriculum was confusing. The study found that the

teachers' understanding of curriculum implementation did not include the integration of the main curriculum components but it was narrow and confined only to a process of teaching the learning content in the classroom. Literature confirmed that the introduction of the new curricula posed challenges to teachers such as the teaching and learning goals, the content, the teaching approach and assessment methods (Benie and Newstead, 1999:1). Literature also confirmed that teachers did teaching that was not sequential and which lacked progression (Moodley, 2013:19).

The fifth theme related to the history teachers' beliefs and attitude towards the impact of curriculum changes on their assessment practices. The study found that when the new curriculum was first introduced, most teachers were not ready to apply the associated assessment effectively, because they were not adequately trained. Thus, many teachers did not have a full understanding of assessment for learning, which involves using various assessment forms to determine the extent to which learning has taken place. Literature confirmed that lack of clear assessment guidelines led to confusion in terms of assessment procedures (Moodley, 2013:31).

The final theme related to suggestions to ensure successful curriculum implementation in the future. This study found that most teachers were of the view that teacher-training, effective piloting of the intended curriculum, provision of resources, and monitoring, were necessary to ensure smooth curriculum implementation. Literature confirmed that implementation lacked effective training, resources and support for teachers (Moodley, 2013:19).

In brief, most history teachers did not only understand curriculum change, but they were also positive about the post-1994 curriculum reforms, despite being unprepared for their implementation. Their understanding of curriculum implementation was narrow, as it was restricted classroom teaching. They were dissatisfied with the way in which C2005 and RNCS were implemented, and held that the support given to the teachers and monitoring of the process were not effective. They were frustrated by lack of clarity in assessment changes, contrary to their view that assessment was an integral part of teaching and learning. Hence, their assessment practices were obstructed. To ensure successful future implementation, they suggested proper teacher training, effective piloting, and monitoring.

The study was conducted to answer the following questions:

**The main question:**

What was the impact of the post 1994 curriculum changes in South Africa on the history teacher's assessment practices in the Motheo district in the Free State Province?

**Sub-questions:**

- What effect did the curriculum transformation have on assessment practices among history teachers of secondary schools in Motheo district?
- What are the teachers' views on assessment practices in History as a school subject?
- What assessment strategies can be implemented to improve learners' performance in History?

## **5.5 DISCUSSIONS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

### **5.5.1 Knowledge of curriculum change**

Research found that all interviewed teachers had a good understanding of curriculum changes. They were positive about the educational changes introduced after 1994. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) 2011 documents in possession of history teachers showed that the teachers were familiar with the current educational system. This finding was supported by literature, which showed that the teachers viewed the changes as part of a new dispensation, and that the changes were necessary to bring an end to the imbalances of the apartheid education system (Pretorius and Lemmer in Mateboli, 2008:24). They believed that the new changes would end inequality and discrimination in education (Mailula, 2004:12).

### **5.5.2 Experiences of curriculum changes and assessment**

Research found that all interviewed teachers had unpleasant experiences of the 1998 Outcomes Based Education (OBE) because they were not adequately trained to implement it. They indicated that the Department of Education was in hurry to end discrimination in education and to bring a uniform system for all (Jansen, 1998:1; Jansen, 2008:172). They felt that lack of training and unclear assessment guidelines led to chaos, and that the situation improved slightly

after the RNCS was implemented in 2002 and stabilised in 2011 after CAPS was introduced. These findings were corroborated by document analysis which showed that the teachers were quick to dispose of the OBE and RNCS policy documents.

### **5.5.3 Perceptions about assessment**

The study found that most teachers were doubtful about their understanding of the concept of assessment. They were unsure about assessment for learning and continued with traditional assessment methods, contrary to calls for a shift towards constructivist and learner-centred teaching and assessment (Grussendorff, 2014:48). That means assessment was not used to observe and improve learning but to improve teaching (Gaulden, 2010:1). Furthermore, the study found that most teachers found it difficult to comply with the minimum requirement of five written activities per week, given the high teacher-learner ratio in the classes.

### **5.5.4 Attitudes towards curriculum implementation**

Research found that most teachers were not content with the way the OBE and RNCS curricula were introduced. More emphasis was placed on the skills, with little emphasis on the content (Du Plessis and Marais, 2015:1). Teachers struggled to design and develop outcomes-driven lessons due to lack of training (Mofokeng, 2004:3). Furthermore, analysis of 2011 CAPS teacher files showed that there was little or no evidence of lesson planning, which was a matter of concern. The literature review revealed that curriculum implementation was a broad concept which involved phases, stages, strategies, and models, and that the teachers were the implementers of the curriculum, meaning that they were the ones who put the policy into practice, and therefore lesson planning was an important part of curriculum implementation.

### **5.5.5 Attitudes and beliefs towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices**

In this regard, research found that most teachers did not welcome the assessment changes of the C2005/OBE (1998) and RNCS (2002) curricula. According to Yusof *et al.* 2014:1) there was a strong resistance to change as teachers felt that the new changes did not only add more work, but they also lacked clarity and led to confusion. They felt that a systematic approach



was not followed when the new changes were made (Beitler, 2005:1). The above confirmed the literature review that there was confusion during the OBE curriculum, a matter that led to its review in 2002. Furthermore, research found that most teachers believed CAPS 2011 affected their assessment in a positive way because there was clarity in terms of what to teach and assess, though there was too much assessment. Document analysis showed that the teachers were more interested in the CAPS assessment as opposed to the 1998 and 2002 OBE and RNCS curricula respectively. The documents contained in the teacher files showed consistency regarding formal tasks, tests and examinations. That means assessment was carried out with ease.

### **5.5.6 Suggestions to overcome challenges**

The research found that the teachers believed that good planning was imperative for smooth curriculum implementation (Jansen, 2008:1720), and should include full teacher participation at initiation, and that all history teachers must attend workshops on the new policy. They believed that to ensure successful implementation the Department should conduct a pilot study and provide adequate support and resources and do effective monitoring. Analysis of documents showed that, with support from the subject advisors in the form of school visits and provision of assessment materials, teachers were able to implement the CAPS more successfully than the previous curricula (Cheng in Khumalo, 2014; Orstein and Hunkins, 2004:310).

## **5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the research findings, the researcher suggested the following recommendations for various stakeholders, including the curriculum planners, assessors, implementers, history teachers and history subject advisors.

### **5.6.1 Knowledge of curriculum changes**

The research concluded that all teachers were positive about the post-1994 curriculum changes. They indicated that the pre-1994 curricula were not only teacher-centred but also promoted racial inequality in education. It was therefore necessary to introduce a system that would

address the imbalances created by apartheid, bring equality and inclusive education to all, and impart the required skills through learner-centred teaching. Another contributing factor raised by the interviewees was that the school protests of 1976 put pressure on the government to institute educational reforms. In fact, one participant indicated that the replacement of the old education system had been delayed for too long. The researcher's recommendation is that teacher workshops should put more emphasis on curriculum principles.

### **5.6.2 Experiences of curriculum changes and assessment**

The researcher's conclusion was that most teachers were not adequately trained to implement new assessment systems, which led to frustration. They explained that C2005/OBE involved too many assessment tasks. There were too many little assessment procedures involved. Assessment became more challenging as there was no clarity in terms of the content to be assessed, as the new approach focused on skills, values, and attitudes. Teachers were confused and struggled to conduct proper assessment. One teacher explained that she could not recall how formal assessment was applied under OBE. It means that assessment during the introduction of the new system was chaotic. The researcher recommends that implementation should commence after all teachers have been properly and adequately trained and prepared to implement the new system.

### **5.6.3 Perception about assessment practices**

The conclusion made by the researcher was that most teachers were unsure about their understanding of assessment practices and held different views regarding what informed assessment planning. They indicated that when planning assessment they were informed by the assessment guidelines, the learners' skills, knowledge, cognitive levels, and the learning content taught. Most teachers believed informal activities prescribed by the district officials were excessive, hence, other teachers continued with traditional assessment methods after the new curricula were introduced. The researcher recommends that curriculum principles should be compulsory in teacher education, and that there should be more emphasis on assessment for learning.

#### **5.6.4 Attitude towards curriculum implementation**

The researcher concluded that the teachers were not content with the way in which curriculum implementation was carried out, which led to low morale. They explained that they fell behind with lessons because they did not know how to plan OBE lessons, given that the training that they received was not only short but also focused on theory more than practicalities. One participant pointed out that OBE lessons were complex compared to what they were used to. Teachers struggled to implement the new curricula as they lacked teaching content. The textbooks were vague, and the teachers were expected to provide additional content making it difficult to develop proper lessons. Another challenge faced by the teachers during OBE implementation was that they did not get enough time to familiarise themselves with the new system as they were overwhelmed by large quantities of paperwork. The researcher recommends that there should be proper training in curriculum principles with more emphasis on curriculum implementation phases, stages, role-players, and strategies.

#### **5.6.5 Attitudes and beliefs towards the impact of curriculum changes on assessment practices**

The researcher concluded that the new curriculum had a negative impact on the history teachers' assessment practices. Under OBE/C2005, there was no clarity in terms of the teaching content and the skills to be assessed. Regarding the CAPS 2011, there was more content to be covered, which made history teachers to be always behind with marking. In both curricula, the old teachers found it difficult to adjust to the new assessment system. Regarding assessment tools, research found that some rubrics were complex for the novice and experienced teachers. Different teachers using the same rubrics allocated different marks due to the complexity of the marking tools. Many teachers saw new assessment as an irritation. They had difficulty in complying with the new assessment requirements, and simply continued with traditional assessment methods, ignoring calls to shift to learner-centred approaches. The researcher recommends that compulsory attendance of workshops should focus on curriculum principles and alternative assessment including types, forms, and methods.

### **5.6.6 Suggestions to overcome challenges**

Research found that most teacher believed that proper planning and training were essential for successful implementation of the new system. They indicated that the challenges can be overcome by doing the following:

- The rationale for policy changes should be clearly communicated to the teachers as the implementers of the policy
- Make sure that all training is provided to all before a new curriculum is implemented
- Training of teachers should be conducted by competent instructors and should focus on the practicalities rather than theory
- The Department must ensure that adequate training covers all curriculum components including objectives, content, teaching approaches and assessment
- Run a pilot study for several years in certain districts to understand possible problems
- Provide resources and support to schools and teachers during implementation
- Develop monitoring strategies to ensure that the new curriculum is implemented by everyone
- Organise functional professional learning communities
- Maintain in-service training.

### **5.7 CONCLUSION**

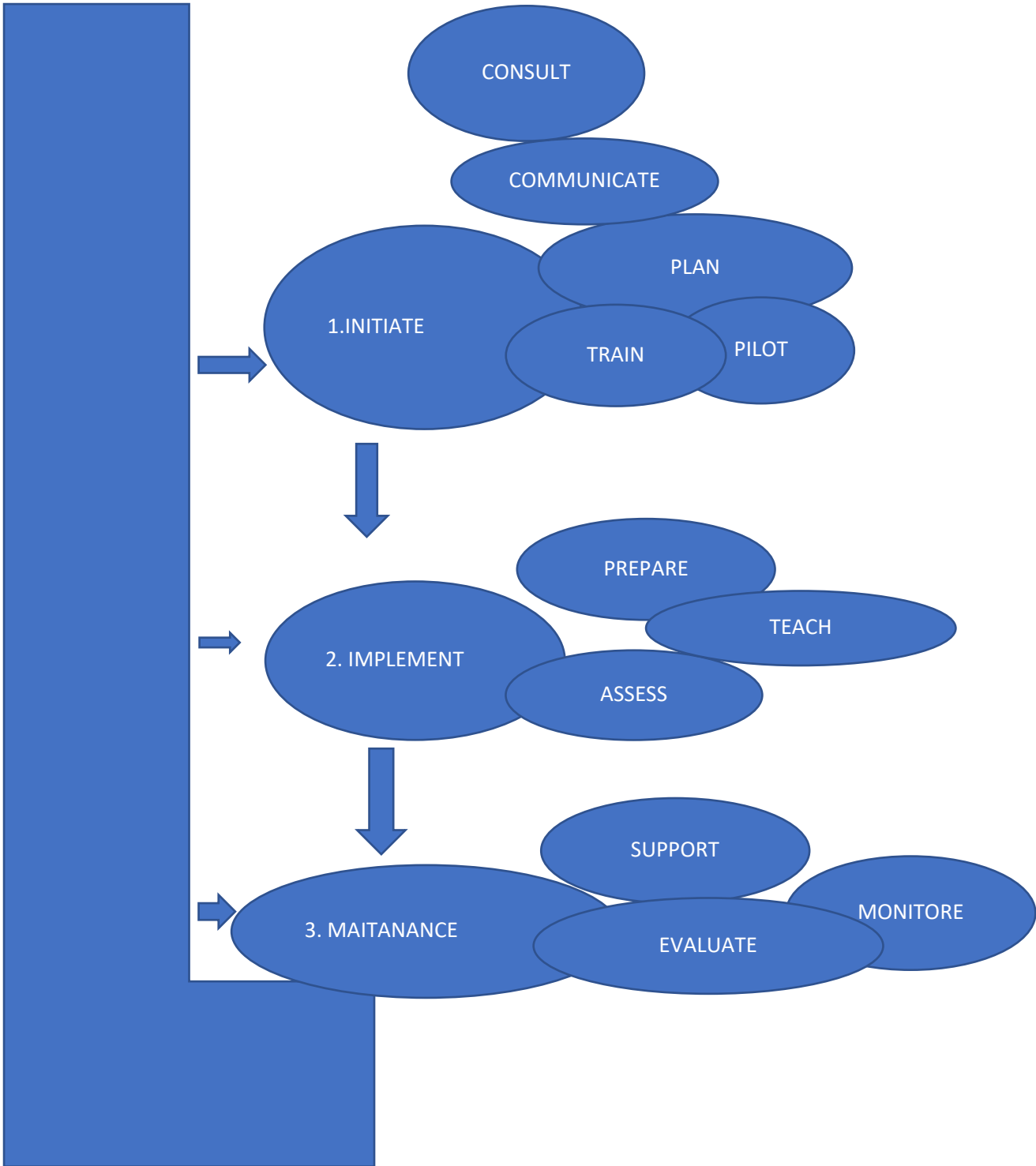
This study was intended to investigate the following research question: What was the impact of the post-1994 curriculum changes on the history teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of Motheo district in the Free State Province? The conclusion reached was that the post-1994 curriculum changes had both positive and unintended negative impacts on the history teachers' assessment practices. It can be concluded that while the history teachers were negatively affected by the OBE/Curriculum 2005 (1998) and the 2002 RNCS, the 2011 CAPS had a positive impact.

## **5.8 MODEL TO ENSURE SMOOTH CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION**

To ensure smooth curriculum implementation, the researcher proposed the adoption and development of a three-stage implementation model suggested by Cho (2018:20). Firstly, the process goes through three stages, namely initiation, implementation, and maintenance. Secondly the researcher proposed that the model should be based on an enactment approach. A brief explanation follows.

With regard to the former, the initiation stage involved the considering of the inputs and submissions from the stakeholders, and those in charge of implementation tasks should get the implementers involved in the process of developing the implementation plan. The implementation stage, which should be preceded by a pilot study, involved putting the curriculum into practice. The maintenance stage involved the providing of the necessary teaching and learning material to schools. Regarding the latter, the view of the researcher is that enactment, which is based on the constructivism paradigm, was a necessary approach to develop an effective implementation model. It is a transformational approach aligned to local realities, subjectivity, and meaning making. That implies that the process is informed by the evolving ideas of the learners, and the teachers who are the ultimate implementers of all curriculum reforms (Cho, 1998:20, Yin, 2013). Thus, the right model was the one that included stakeholders and role players from the onset. Finally, the interviewees called for a model that included effective and proper planning, good communication, continuous support, and proper evaluation. Hence, the view of the researcher was that the right model was the one that followed a constructivist and non-technical approach to curriculum implementation.

**Three-Stages Curriculum Implementation Model**



**FIGURE 5.1 Three-stages implementation model (Adopted and developed from Cho, 1998)**

## 5.9 CONCLUSIONS

The study showed that the post-apartheid curriculum changes had both a positive and negative impact on the history teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of Motheo district. The history teachers' discontent with the way in which the new curricula were introduced was also highlighted. Furthermore, the study showed that inadequate and poor training were attributed to dissatisfaction among teachers, and this led to challenges during curriculum implementation. The study highlighted the history teachers' views that adequate training, provision of resources, support and monitoring were necessary for smooth curriculum transformation. An implementation model was suggested to ensure that future curriculum transformation ran smoothly. The researcher's view is that, as preparation for the implementation of new curriculum, history teachers should be adequately trained in curriculum principles including design, development and implementation. All stakeholders should ensure that teachers as the ultimate implementers of the curriculum are given the necessary resources and support. In addition, teachers should be encouraged to adopt constructivist and learner-centred assessment practices. The view of the researcher is that a constructivist approach to teaching and assessment will improve learner performance in the subject history, increase the pass rate in South Africa and the Motheo district, and open opportunities that can alleviate poverty in Bloemfontein and the rural areas of Thaba-Nchu and Botshabelo.

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**(ANNEXURE: A)**

Enquiries: MZ Thango & KK Motshumi  
Ref: Research Application Form  
Email: [MZ.Thango@fseducation.gov.za](mailto:MZ.Thango@fseducation.gov.za)  
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education  
Department of  
Education  
FREE STATE PROVINCE

**APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF  
EDUCATION**

**CONDITIONS FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH IN THE FSDOE:**

1. Collection of data should not interfere with the normal tuition time or teaching process.
2. A bound copy of the research document should be submitted to the Free State Department of Education, Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein or can be emailed to the above mentioned email addresses.
3. On completion of research, the researcher will be expected to make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the department, at a date, time and venue decided upon by the department.
4. The Ethics document attached to the research application form (Annexure: B) must be adhered to in the discourse of your study in the department.
5. Costs relating to all the conditions above are the responsibility of the researcher.
6. Researchers should not conduct research during the fourth term of the year (October to December).
7. Researchers who are educators and are presently teaching, are not allowed to conduct research at schools where they teach.

**NB: Upon receiving the application from the researcher the department will review and give feedback to the applicant. Once all the required documents are submitted, the department will recommend the application for approval. The approval and the reviewing process will be done within 30 days from the day of receipt of the application form.**

PLEASE DO NOT EMAIL ANYTHING IN PICTURE FORMAT AND DO NOT ADD INFORMATION SUCH AS YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE APPLICATION FORM. ONLY ATTACH THE REQUIRED DOCUMENTS.

RESEARCH APPLICATION FORM UPDATED 02 MARCH 2021  
FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, 9301

[www.fsdoe.fs.gov.za](http://www.fsdoe.fs.gov.za)

1. **TITLE** (Ms, Mrs, Mr, Dr, Prof, etc):

Mr

2. **FIRST NAMES AS APPEARING ON ID**

TEBOHO CLIFFORD

3. **SURNAME (AS APPEARING ON ID)**

SEEKANE

4. **TELEPHONE HOME:**

N/A

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RESEARCH APPLICATION FORM UPDATED 02 MARCH 2021

FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, 9301



**17. TITLE OF RESEARCH PROJECT**

The post 1994 curriculum changes and History teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of the Motheo district in the Free State Province

**18. CONCISE EXPLANATION OF THE RESEARCH TOPIC**

The aim of the research is to investigate the extent to which the post 1994 curriculum changes affected the History teachers' assessment practices in South Africa.

**19. VALUE OF RESEARCH AND THE ENVISAGED CONTRIBUTION IT WILL HAVE FOR THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (NOT MORE THAN 100 WORDS)**

The benefits of the study are as follows: It will result in an improved academic engagement and performance of Grade 10 to 12 History learners and there are no potential risks.

**20. LIST OF SCHOOLS AND DISTRICTS INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH.**

Please List schools alphabetically per district.

- Write the names of the schools and their districts
- If the space is not enough, please add more rows. Alternatively attach a separate list of schools and districts if they are many.
- Research students, who are educators, are not allowed to conduct research at the school where they are teaching or employed.

Schools	Districts
1. ITUKISETSENG-BOKAMOSO Secondary school	Motheo District
2. LERATONG Secondary school	Motheo District
3. MAPHODI Secondary school	Motheo District
4. MOROKA Secondary school	Motheo District
5. SENAKAGWEDI Secondary School	Motheo District
6. ST ANDREWS Secondary School	Motheo District
7. TSOSELETSO Secondary School	Motheo District

**21. LIST OF DIRECTORATES / OFFICIALS IN THE DEPARTMENT INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH.**

**NB: OFFICIALS INDICATED IN THIS PARAGRAPH SHOULD ALSO BE INCLUDED AS A TARGET GROUP IN PARAGRAPH 23.**

Name of Directorate/unit	Position of Official	Role of official in the research
1.N/A		
2.N/A		
3.N/A		
4. N/A		

**22. DETAILS OF TARGET GROUP WITH WHOM THE RESEARCH IS TO BE UNDERTAKEN.**

Target group	Number	Grade	Subject	Age	Gender	Language ( <i>in which the research will be conducted</i> )
1. EDUCATORS	5	10-12	HISTORY	N/A	N/A	ENGLISH
2.						
3.						
4.						

**23 .PLEASE EXPLAIN HOW YOU WILL SAFEGUARD MINOR LEARNERS AS PER THE CHILDREN'S ACT.**

**Which member(s) of the school will also be present during information gathering to ensure the safety of learners?**

No learners involved.



24. PLEASE ATTACH DATA GATHERING TOOLS TO BE USED WITH EACH TARGET GROUP (E.G. QUESTIONNAIRES, STANDARDIZED TESTS, INTERVIEWS, OBSERVATIONS, FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS AND/OR OTHER QUANTITATIVE, QUALITATIVE, PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH STRATEGIES).

Target group	Data gathering method	Group/ Individual	When	Starting time	Finishing time	Number of days per week	Total number of weeks
e.g.: Educators	e.g.: Interview	e.g.: Individual	e.g.: After school	e.g.: 15:30	e.g.: 16:30	e.g.: Once a week	e.g.: 3
	Interview	Individual	After school	15:00	16:00	Once a week	5
	Document analysis						

25. STARTING AND COMPLETION DATES FOR GATHERING DATA AT THE SCHOOL OR PLACE WHERE YOU WILL GATHER DATA FOR THE RESEARCH? (Please bear in mind that research is not allowed to be conducted in schools during the fourth academic term which is October to December).

Dates: \_16 April 2021 to 21 May 2021

26. LIST OF DOCUMENTS TO BE ATTACHED FOR RESEARCH APPLICATION.

The following is the list of documents that should be attached to ensure a thorough and timely processing of the research application.

LIST OF ATTACHMENTS	YES	NO	NOT REQUIRED/NOT APPLICABLE	COMMENTS
Proof of registration	X			
Permission letter and information sheet with consent form to principals	X			
Permission letter and information sheet with consent form to parents			X	Learners not involved
Information sheet and consent form for participants	X			
A copy of a questionnaire			X	Use of interviews
A list of interview questions	X			
Ethical Clearance Certificate	X			

RESEARCH APPLICATION FORM UPDATED 02 MARCH 2021

FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, 9301

**27 .NB: IF ANY OF THE RELEVANT DOCUMENT LISTED ABOVE IS NOT ATTACHED OR YOU HAVE NOT PROVIDED INFORMATION AS NEEDED IN ALL THE PARAGRAPHS, YOUR APPLICATION FORM WILL BE DEEMED NULL AND VOID.**

I (first names and surname as appearing on ID document) TEBOHO CLIFFORD SEEKANE herewith confirm that all the information in this application form is correct and that I will abide by the ethical code and the conditions prescribed below by the Free State Department of Education.

- I will abide by the ethical research conditions in the discourse of my study in the FSDoE.
- I will not use deception on people participating.
- I will obtain informed consent from all involved in the study.
- I will preserve privacy and confidentiality at all the time.
- I will take special precautions when involving populations which may not be considered to understand fully the purpose of the study.
- I will not offer rewards or enforce binding contracts for the study. This is especially important when people are somehow reliant on the reward.
- I will not skew their conclusions based on funding.
- I will not commit science fraud, falsify research or conduct scientific misconduct.
- My research will follow all regulations given.
- I will not plagiarize the work of others.
- I will abide by the period in which the research has to be done.
- I will apply for extension if I cannot complete the research within the specified period.
- I will not conduct research during the fourth quarter of the academic year.
- I will not disrupt normal learning and teaching times at schools to undertake my research.
- I will submit a bound copy of the research document to the Free State Department of Education, Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, upon completion of the research.
- I will upon completion of my research study make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the Department as per the arrangements of the Department.
- The costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are for my own responsibility.

RESEARCH APPLICATION FORM UPDATED 02 MARCH 2021

FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, 9301

28. WRITE THE DATE IN WHICH YOU WILL SUBMIT YOUR COMPLETED RESEARCH TO THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

FULL RESEARCH REPORT, THESIS OR DISSERTATION SUBMISSION DATE:

30 April 2022

29. NB: SIGNING OF THIS FORM BY THE SUPERVISOR IS AN INDICATION THAT HE/SHE VERIFIED THE AUTHENTICITY OF THIS APPLICATION, THAT ALL THE ATTACHMENTS WERE SUBMITTED BY HIS/HER STUDENTS AND THAT THE SUPERVISOR WILL ENSURE THE SUBMISSION OF THE COMPLETED RESEARCH TO THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

I (Full Names) TEBOHO CLIFFO declare that I am not listed in the National Register of Sexual Offenders.

RESEARCHER: INITIALS AND SURNAME TC SEEKANE

SIGNATURE: 

DATE: 15/03/2021

SUPERVISOR: INITIALS AND SURNAME: Prof S Schoeman

SIGNATURE: SSchoeman

DATE: 06/04/2021

RESEARCH APPLICATION FORM UPDATED 02 MARCH 2021

FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein, 9301

(ANNEXURE: B)

**ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS: FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

The scientific research enterprise is built on a foundation of trust and that the reports by others are valid. The reports should reflect an honest attempt by the researcher to describe the world accurately and without bias; this trust will endure only if the researcher devotes himself or herself to exemplifying and transmitting the values associated with ethical research conduct.

There are many ethical issues to be taken into serious consideration when conducting research. The Free State Department of Education believes that the researchers conducting research in this department would, amongst others, adhere to the following ethical conduct:

1. Be aware of having the responsibility to secure the actual permission and interests of all those involved in the study.
2. Not misuse any of the information discovered.
3. Moral responsibility maintained towards the participants.
4. Embracing corporate social responsibility.
5. Protecting the rights of people in the study as well as their privacy and sensitivity.
6. Confidentiality of those involved in the observation must be carried out, keeping their anonymity and privacy secure.
7. Follow the ethical clearance guideline of the institution that granted such.
8. Reliability.
9. Informing the participants about the importance of the research
10. Values of trust, fairness and integrity are maintained in the study.
11. The value of transparency is considered.
12. The research is committed to delivering the intended promise as informed by the objectives.
13. The research accentuate the values of reputation and respect.
14. I will not conduct research at the school where I am teaching.
15. I am not listed in the national register of sexual offenders.

RESEARCHER: INITIALS AND  
SURNAME TC SEEKANE

SIGNATURE: 

DATE: 15/03/2021

SUPERVISOR: INITIALS AND  
SURNAME Prof S Schoeman

SIGNATURE: SSchoeman

DATE: 06/04/2021

## APPENDIX C

Enquiries: MZ Thango  
Ref: Research Permission: T.C. Seekane  
Tel: 062 537 2654  
Email: [MZ.Thango@seducation.gov.za](mailto:MZ.Thango@seducation.gov.za)



1026 H2 Section  
Botshabelo  
9781

Dear Mr. T.C. Seekane

### APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

This letter serves as an acknowledgement of receipt of your request to conduct research in the Free State Department of Education.

**Topic:** The post 1994 curriculum changes and History teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of the Mofheo district in the Free State Province.

1. **List of schools involved:** Itukisetseng-Bokamoso, Leratong, Maphodi, Moroka, Senakagwedi, St Andrews and Tsoseliso secondary schools.
2. **Target Population:** Five educators teaching History in grade 10 to 12 at the selected secondary schools.
3. **Period of research:** From the date of signature of this letter until 30 September 2021. Please note that the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year. Should you fall behind your schedule by three months to complete your research project in the approved period, you will need to apply for an extension. The researcher is expected to request permission from the school principals to conduct research at schools.
4. The approval is subject to the following conditions:
  - 4.1 The collection of data should not interfere with the normal tuition time or teaching process.
  - 4.2 A bound copy of the research document should be submitted to the Free State Department of Education, Room 101, 1<sup>st</sup> Floor, Thuto House, St. Andrew Street, Bloemfontein or can be emailed to the above mentioned email address.
  - 4.3 You will be expected, on completion of your research study to make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the Department.
  - 4.4 The ethics documents must be adhered to in the discourse of your study in our department.
5. Please note that costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are your own responsibility.

Yours sincerely

  
Mr. J.S. Tladi  
Acting DDG: Corporate Services

14/04/2021  
DATE:

## Appendix D

### 1026 H2 Section

Botshabelo

9871

Contact Number 078 235 1037

Email [tebohoseekane@hotmail.com](mailto:tebohoseekane@hotmail.com)

15 March 2021

The Principal

Botsitso Secondary School

Botshabelo

9781

Dear Sir/ Madam

RE: A LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE SCHOOL

Title of the research: The Post 1994 curriculum changes and history teachers' assessment practices in the secondary schools of the Motheo district in the Free State Province.

I, Teboho Clifford Seekane, am doing research under supervision of Sonja Schoeman, a professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies towards a M Ed at the University of South Africa.

The aim of the study is to investigate the extent to which the post-1994 curriculum changes affected the History teachers' assessment practices in South Africa. One History teacher has been selected from your school because of his/her teaching experience in the subject. The research was motivated by the researcher's experience with assessment practices in the subject.

The study will entail interviews with the History teacher. I also need to look at the documents used by the teacher to assess the learners. The documents will be used for the sole purpose of the study. The approximate time for the interview is one hour, in the afternoon.

The benefits of this study are that: It will result in the improved academic engagement and performance of Grade 10 to 12 History learners and there are no potential risks.

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research. Feedback procedure will entail researcher making the findings' report available to your school and other interested parties.

Yours sincerely

\_\_\_\_\_ researcher

\_\_\_\_\_ signatory's name

\_\_\_\_\_ signatory's position

## APPENDIX E

- How do you feel about the post-1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?
- Do you think that the introduction of C2005/OBE was necessary?
- What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with the RNCS?
- Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?
- What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?
- Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?
- What is your opinion about the training that you received?
- How do you feel about curriculum development during C2005 and RNCS?
- To what extent was your school prepared for the post-1994 curriculum changes?
- How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS?
- What is your feeling about assessment under the CAPS?
- Do you think that the curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?
- What is your understanding of assessment practices?
- What informs your assessment planning?
- What is your view on formative assessment?
- What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?
- History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week. What is your opinion on that?
- Were you content with the manner in which the new curricula were implemented? Please elaborate.
- As a history teacher, to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post-1994 curricula?
- What is your understanding of curriculum implementation?
- Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?
- Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?
- Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?
- What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?
- What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?
- Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?
- In conversation with other history teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?
- Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?
- As an individual, to what extent did the post-1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.
- In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?
- How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?



## APPENDIX F

### INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

#### Teacher A

How do you feel about the post -1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?

I feel quite positive about it. There needed to be a change because when I was at school, we used to do the History that was very focused on the Great trek, South African history that left out anything else, and old European Histories. So, it was a positive change to change the curriculum.

Do you think that the introduction of Curriculum 2005/ or the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system was necessary?

Yest it was. There was no way that it could not have happened. With the 1994 elections they could not continue teaching the old staff. Change to the new political system was a relief because it needed to happen, and that need had been delayed for too long.

What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with NCS in 2002?

I really do not know why they had to change it. I think possibly they realized that OBE was not going to do what it was supposed to do because I do not think that OBE education anywhere in the world worked. So why we decided to do that I do not know but obviously the government had investigated different forms and realized that the outcomes were more important than skills. It was more skills-based and that I understand we do have to teach the children the skills particularly in History where there is a skill of taking large amounts of information and taking out what they need, writing it into coherent logical arguments. But I also feel that we must not lose content just to get the skill. We need a way to find to combine outcomes, skills, and content to teach these children.

Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?

I think possibly all of them. C2005 and OBE were very similar. It was a tweaking of C2005 that brought about the changes.

What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011?

I like it. I do not have issues with it. I do believe that a lot of History is covered but I also feel that there is a lot of History that is not covered. I know that when I teach my grade 10s and 11s and we do apartheid they say, "not again". They say not again because they have been doing it since primary school, but I say this year we are looking at the 1950s, next year we are looking at the 1960s and in matric we bring it up to date. We are not going over the same staff, Nelson

Mandela, Mahatma Ghandi. Its' a different focus. But they see it as the same stuff that they have been doing since grade 4. I also think that there is something that I feel I need to do that is not included but it is sensitive like for example I am reading a book now on the crisis and the genocide in Rwanda in 1994. I find that it is fascinating you know. All the political groups that were going at each other and everything, but I know that it is very recent and very sensitive. I just think that the problem with the CAPS is with grade 10 not 11. In grade 10 the work that we cover is superficial. It's all on the surface. It focuses on trade; it touches on leadership. My problem with grade 10 is that there is no meat on the bone. And it is the same with Social Transformation in South Africa and Colonial expansion. It is all touch., touch. touch. I mean the kids ask me questions, but I can't answer them because I can't find them in any textbook and I just feel that grade 10 CAPS for History there needs to be more. These kids want to know more and are not given more.

Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?

Yes. I got my varsity degree, my HED in 1999 and my very first year in teaching in 2000 I went on the OBE course at Wits University. It was done through Wits. I think it was the Department. I cannot remember who gave the training. I remember going there but I cannot remember who gave it.

What is your opinion about the training that you received?

I just remember that it was a lot of paper. A lot of reading but not real practicality. This is what you do, this is how you do it. It was a lot of paperwork.

How do you feel about curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS?

I don't think that this is the right answer but for the thing of preparing the lesson, is not stupid, but sometimes you know what you are going to teach the learners, but sometimes there might be some discussion, or something. But for me Yes, I know what I am going to teach this week. I do not need a lesson plan to tell me what I need to go through. I do not find the lesson plan useful. I might divert but I know that by the end of the week I should have done A B C D or I only got to C and we do the skills among those things, the source questions and the things like that. For me lesson plan I am not good at it.

To what extent was your school prepared for the post -1994 curriculum changes?

No, they were sort of prepared. And as I said on all the courses there was an overabundance of paper. There were no practicalities on how these had to be done. And as far as I remember the focus was on the change in content but not on how the teacher needed to change on how they had taught. In 1994 there were a lot of teachers that were 'old school' That were not...and they had the model C school through..... It was a terrible thing to say but a lot of teachers were so used to the old ways that they did not want to learn the new way.

How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS periods?

For C2005 sometimes there was too much. They expected us to go through. I am not saying CAPS makes me entirely happy either because in particular in History two assessments in a term is not enough. You need at least three or four but then I understand that there are very big classes. But for OBE there were too many little things, little assessment things that we were expected to get done not focusing on the bigger picture because with OBE it was this skill at this level, you had to cover level 1 this, level 2 this. These levels and sublevels in levels and you had too much to hope to cope with. But with CAPS for me I know with Covid 19 and I understand the issues that the department faces, but CAPS not having examinations in June, we saw when we marked matrics last year that only having the September exam followed by November exam that many of those matrics were not prepared because they did not have June, September. I am not saying an exam is the only way to go but there need to be some form of skills and testing and knowledge assessment that they can apply what they have learnt.

Do you think that curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?

I think it depends on what curriculum changes are because I explained that 'Ooh Mam we are doing apartheid again. So sometimes they see it positively sometimes they really enjoy doing communism and capitalism and they really, they also enjoy new South African History that we are doing now. You know when you say this is how we got from 1990 to 1994. They enjoy the Truth and Reconciliation Commission because they do not understand what happened behind the scenes for the first democratic elections to take place and afterwards. So, I think the older kids tend to respond in a positive way than the younger kids, but I think that also comes with maturity.

What is your understanding of assessment practices?

I have no idea. I do not know what assessment practices mean. Is that the different methods of assessing? I understand the source-based testing and I understand the essay testing. I just think that possibly there need to be a third You know we always need something, like you know they always get something like a cartoon or a picture and yes you, there is also a written assessment, but you also need to focus on visual things like cartoons. You know you try but more time needs to be spent on how to analyse a picture or a map to answer a particular question at matric level. I like the informal activities because I think once I have explained a certain section of work, they then get a few questions that they must answer work. I feel that they help solidify the content in head and then I also enjoy the formal assessment because that tests the skill, can they apply the knowledge that they learnt.

What informs your assessment planning?

Basically, I am guided by the guidelines for History, that in Grade 10 you must do this assessment in grade 11 and grade 12 that. Informal activities obviously you have more freedom and scope to focus on different things, but formal assessment is what the government prescribes.

What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?

I do not know. It is a difficult one. There is a part of me that says traditional assessment yes because it lets the teacher know exactly where the child is. Have they understood the content/ Have they managed to apply the skills? But alternative assessment is also another way to get them to understand the content. If you do an oral history, they are still doing the research, but it is a different way of showing their knowledge so a combination would be nice. Quite often time wise you do not have the time to do alternative assessment.

History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week, what is your opinion on the latter?

To be honest, I struggle. I find it a pain. I try and do it because I must. But I do not always hit the target. I do know that some people do way more than that but I kind like how? Where do you find the time to do more than that? I only see my kids three times a week out of four. I must give them an informal activity and I do try and most of the time I do it right but sometimes I fail, and I have decided not to worry about that. If I only have two informal assessments for the week that is going to have to do. I do not say it is too much, but I think that informal assessment is a positive guide for the teachers who are maybe struggling to get the work done or who are not doing the work. So is kind of like once you did that you need to do that. But I could be wrong.

Were you content with the way the curricula were implemented?

OBE was fine because I was newly qualified. But not even five years later there was 2005. I got a bit frustrated. It was kind of make up your mind. We just got used to teaching or doing it this way and now you are bringing in something else. So, it was kind of just make up your mind what you want. By doing so you are kind of oops this does not work now we are going to try this. This one does not work. Obviously, they realized possibly the research that they had put it was not working in a South African context.

As a history -teacher to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post - 1994 curricula?

Reasonably. I mean I do remember the training. What I remember for the OBE was a lot of paper. I would say 60 to 70 % prepared but more on the theory but not so much on practicality, not how to do it.

What is your understanding of curriculum implementation?

Yoh, I do not know. I do not have a problem with that. As I said, I suppose if you had a lesson plan that you know exactly but I know, and I choose what section of the work I had to do and I prepare for the content and then as I go, I prepare the activities. Sometimes I will look at something and I realize that Ok that activity is not going to work, it does not quite cover what I needed to. Then I only find out once we get over the activity. So, I constantly adjust my curriculum implementation to fit the kids in front of me in in what we already done.

Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?

Well, I know that the government had done the training and staff like that, but it is whether the training was effective. It is very good to throw lots of paperwork at teachers and say this is what you are expected to do. But the problem comes with ok but how do I do it. So that was my problem with curriculum implementation. It that we were given all this paperwork. You know there it was laid out beautifully point for point, this just what you going to do, this is what you are going to change. But then no one. There was no training on how to do it. You were to figure it out yourself, but then on the other hand is not like you can say you know different teachers have different personalities, what work for one teacher for implementation is not going to work for another one. So, it was a catch 22. Do this but not knowing it I might do it differently. Resources, attitude in your classroom. Do you have a board? A projector. Do you have the textbooks, that will play a role on how you went about?

Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?

Yes. I do not think you can teach a subject and not have any kind of assessment. I will not prescribe what kind of assessment you should have but there needs to be some assessment that tests or finds out if the children understand what have learnt and if they can implement it. It's very easy to say  $x = y$ . How to get from  $x$  to  $y$ . Yes, whether formative or summative, that I do not know which one works better but all got to have a combination of both but there needs to be a way that tests in inverted comas the knowledge and ability of the child.

Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?

I think they did. I think it made assessment more prescriptive. Instead of any history teacher doing whatever they wanted to do it was a now "... look this is source or essay, this is what we are testing..." As I said before it would be nice if we tested but I understand that those are very important skills. Have they understood what they read? Can they apply the knowledge that they have learnt to the skills that they learnt in the sources? So, I think most of them welcomed them.

What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?

The rubric used to assess the paragraph I do not have a problem with. I do have problem with the rubric that we use to assess the essay because I feel that sometimes I want to plot but I cannot because there is nothing in that bloc. But I also have an issue with that level 1: 1 -13. I know that it has been 0 to 6 or whatever but for me there is still too much of a gap and for me level 1, 2 and 3 in that essay rubric are very similar. So how do you know where to plot the kid because level 1 they all have inadequate response, omissions, not enough coverage. So that is the difference between 24 and 25 out of 50 and a 0. For me my problem is with those three low levels on the rubric. They are too similar, and there is not enough.

What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?

The courses and the training didn't cover. We were given the guidelines by the government, and it was kind of ooh this is what they want us to do. They moderated but other than that someone would check if you set it, how it was supposed to be. Oh yes, the school helped tremendously. We had the internet, the library, exam papers that you could rework and things like that, allowing us to attend workshops etc.

Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?

I think it did. Because if I remember my old history textbook, most of it was writing, with occasional picture but the textbooks now are filled with pictures, sources and did you know and all sorts of interesting things and that they impact on how you are going to assess. The old way was rigid. Now you could assess sources, you can give them a picture or a cartoon whereas the old way was very prescriptive.

In conversation with other history-teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?

To be honest with you there I do not know. As I said that is the one question, I cannot answer. I cannot remember. I think everybody saw it as a pain. You must go to all the workshops and the training and then you are missing school, and you are missing teaching and I think it was regarded not as a pain, but it was frustrating. I do not think they were unhappy because they were going to change the way they assessed. I think it was more about the time away from classes, because a lot of it did not happen on a holiday. That OBE staff I remember going during school time because it was in the morning. So, I think that it was an irritation. I have got to stop teaching to go on a course but not an irritation as to what I had to implement, that was not it at all.

Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?

Yes. Because the formal assessment was quite prescriptive. You had to do this and this. But informal assessment you could do whatever you wanted and in grade 7, 8 and 9, is not very prescriptive. Your assessment is left to you, you know what I mean if you use, you could use match the column, fill the missing words, sources. You can basically do what you like, is just

that I think in the higher grades because you are aiming towards now grade 12 and finishing school that it is more prescriptive for the higher grades than the lower grades.

As an individual, to what extent did the post 1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.

Yes, it did in a positive way. It gave you the license to do more things and to more things and to assess in different ways before the CAPS came in and I can remember when we were teaching girls the grade 10s were going around the world and you know they had to bring a food that fitted a particular culture. You know what I mean. We had all different food around the world, and we were tasting it, discussing it and I sometimes think that that was more allowable in the older curriculum than CAPS. But it did affect my assessment in that I had to change but in a negative way. Yes, you had your formative assessment, but you could also use other things that were funny.

In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?

I think that that is the task I would not want. I think that because you know they had done it the right way. They have had training; they have had courses but its whether everyone hoes to the training because sometimes it does not get to the people that is supposed to and that is not the department's fault. They really do their best to try and make sure that each teacher is aware of the changes but how they can best plan I do not know. And I remember three or four years ago that we had that big session on the possibility of making history compulsory up to matric. You know what I mean that went around the country, that went to each province and every teacher had the opportunity to attend and to have a say and have their say. If there is more that they can do then I am not actually sure what. As for teachers who did not attend training, I think it is about resistance to change. A lot of people particularly teachers I think it quite sits on their way of doing something and do not like to change but once they have changed then they are fine. But I think for them its its more about the threat of change. Oh, I do not want to change but once I have changed, oh, this isn't bad oh I can do this.

How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?

I don't know, there need to be checks and balances. You know it all depends on whether a list of current teachers in each province is up to date then they need to be able to. I mean it's a massive thing if they must tick ok to see these teachers have got these, these teachers haven't or maybe it should be per school, rather than per teacher. The school ok this school had attended. That school had not. I mean it is a mammoth undertaking and its, I do not envy them in any way or form but obviously you have got to get it done but again how I do not know.

## **Teacher B**

How do you feel about the post -1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?

Alright. Thank you. The changes were introduced with the hope that it will redress the imbalances of the past and provide equal educational opportunities to all sections of the populations.

Do you think that the introduction of Curriculum 2005/ or the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system was necessary?

Partly. Although it gave us as educators a lot of work, paperwork rather than to present the content to the learners.

What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with NCS in 2002?

The OBE was changed just because of the technical side of it. The issue of presentation even the planning, lesson planning, to the educators because there was no thoroughly training for the educators to implement the curriculum.

Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?

Design features. Not the implementation. But the implementation was haphazard done not thoroughly implemented to the teachers because there was no thorough training for the educators.

What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011?

CAPS boosts the educators due to the issue of technologies. I can quote the Internet Broadcast Programmes. Although we belong to the disadvantaged schools that cannot access the technological equipment. It is not worse than the OBE because a lot of work has been shouldered by the teachers. It is not up to the expected standard because the administration of the workload is on the shoulders of the educators rather than to present the content to the learners.

Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?

Not yet trained. I have been given the task because after the country gained liberation, they rushed to introduce OBE. There was not enough training for many teachers due to the issue of previous government.

What is your opinion about the training that you received?



Partly the issue of training. There were some pitfalls in the training like for instance the issue of preparation of the lesson. Some of the educators were not well equipped about the issue of lesson planning.

How do you feel about curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS?

It was different from the CAPS. I say because you can see that the lesson planning forms are different from the CAPS.

To what extent was your school prepared for the post -1994 curriculum changes?

To a lesser extent. Not to a greater extent because of the training of educators.

How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS periods?

Assessment at that time was different from the current CAPS assessment because of the formulation of the questions and the allocation of the marks. It was during the period of the reshaping of the curriculum our society for the benefit of the community.

Do you think that curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?

Partly you can say positive or negative because its stressful to them. When the learners go to the next class or grade, they are not familiar with that due to the curriculum policy. You lay the ground for the next grade but when they get there the topic has changed.

What is your understanding of assessment practices?

Assessment practices is just to evaluate the learners how far they can implement the skills that you have already taught them how to answer the questions. As teachers we are not at the same level. Some educators are older than us. They use very old methods of assessing the learners. Although we are saying that the new teachers with their very same curricula were sticking to the policy, they prefer the old system without analysing the issue of the policy document. So, assessment practices are about the evaluation of all tasks that you have being giving to the learners.

What informs your assessment planning?

Knowledge of the learners. How I gauge the potential of the learner in the class. Different potential of the learners.

What is your view on formative assessment?

You must do formative assessment up to the standard of the learners. But again, you compile formative assessment from the informal assessment daily I order to evaluate how the learners know what I taught them.

What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?

That is what I told you about the issue of we are on toto, on the equal footing. Some teachers use the traditional method of teaching system that used to do but we have changed but some other educators prefer to use the traditional, but an alternative is a new form of assessment that is using technology. Some of us are too old fashioned in that we use theoretical rather than practical or technological.

History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week, what is your opinion on the latter?

Due to the prevailing condition, it is pressing on us to give the learners because the periodical attendance of the learners of the school except those of us who according to the arrangement of the national department. As for me I am fine with that. But the issue has to do with, especially in my subject history I give the learners tasks to mark the task and try to interpret the task in trying to fit the learners in that content rather than give them a lot of work or many activities without interpreting concepts between. We have different levels questions that we should interpret for instance level 1 question interpretation of the question.

Were you content with the way the curricula were implemented?

Partly not happy because of the issue of the curriculum. Many curricula they introduced caused confusion with the educators seeing that there is one curriculum, we had the OBE, we had NCS, and even so the CAPS now. There is no formulation of the question paper for the very same CAPS, and we are now going back to the previous question papers of the NCS. There is the difference with each other. It just created confusion.

As a history -teacher to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post - 1994 curricula?

It was not led to be prepared. I was just prepared for that just because it was the reshaping of the history of our country for the learners to be individual and independence unfolding the capacity.

What is your understanding of curriculum implementation?

Curriculum implementation we should just have thoroughly prepared. Teachers must be fully trained for the curriculum. That is how they can implement the curriculum. But oversimplification of training or to say what I can say it that not thoroughly or significantly trained teachers cannot implement the curriculum thoroughly.

Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?

Lack of fully trained teachers can affect that, as well as the documents used in the implementation of the curriculum, the distribution of the question papers, availability of

documents to the schools, and the delay in the processing of necessary documents. Basically, lack of proper teacher training and resources.

Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?

Yes. To encourage the learners and activate critical approach to the learning rather than to rote uncritical learning given to be independent.

Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?

Former traditional teachers I can say that did not accept because it was very difficult for them to change to the new system because they were rooted to the former system of apartheid.

What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?

Rubrics and matrixes, according to the very same curricula are different, like for instance we are now using rubrics, allocation of marks for the learners, you used the previous question paper for NCS, and it differs with the allocation. In Grade 10 we do have like for instance we are using different textbooks, we have question paper and even the paragraph question the allocation of the mark is different from others, paragraph is different according to the compiled authors of the books.

What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?

Very few supports that I received from the school. Because we have got stakeholders. We should invite many stakeholders. I have got my stakeholders. The learning facilitator should accept my request in trying to assist me, and although it was a problem in my school, but different schools have got a lack of support although I should be independent.

Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?

Change of topics did not affect history teachers. Some of the teachers are not familiar with the topics. So, it affected history teachers They rely on one topic rather than all the topics and it creates the confusion to...because those who are familiar with the topics, that affected the teachers. Teachers' assessment methods were affected because teachers had to deal with new topics.....

In conversation with other history-teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?

We have different opinions about assessment. Some teachers talk about this one and this one is introduced and how to tackle this one but the only thing you can see is that we must see that networking get going as internal agreements to see that we now trying to address this issue, but

that is a minor process of addressing the issue. Basically, the teachers responded in different ways to the assessment changes. There are two sets of bias in trying to approach the topics. Others used to say that I do prefer this one, but you can see that they are biased in the issue of addressing the topic. It means that teachers networked to support each other. It also means that they preferred certain topics and that shows that they were affected by curriculum changes. They were biased towards or against certain topics.

Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?

Yes, the latest one., CAPS. In trying to to access the learners, although I was, to make internal assessment, reassessing ht learners to try and..... So, no, the changes did not affect history teachers' assessment practices that much. It is quite different because in the new curriculum, we should be more creative rather than to rely on primitive methods, we have been trying to see that to plan our assessment we gave them activities that were up to standard.

As an individual, to what extent did the post 1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.

Continuous or sporadic, continuous changes from my assessment shows that I have climbed the graph I am showing that there are improvements.

In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?

The Department of Education must try to se as to whether planning for the curriculum changes and even the posterity teachers must be given some of the basics how to implement the curriculum, because we are now receiving or we the school received a new educator from the university but the must have the basic, they must also be prepared.

How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?

Supporting methods of the department of education say sometimes, the department must not throw curriculum to us and fold their arms without monitoring everything to the educators and different departments. The department for the fully trained teachers is their task and even also the policy that they can monitor the curriculum is successfully implemented.

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How do you feel about the post -1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?

My isolated opinion is that the changes were good because they were turning the learners not to be more passive like the past and the curriculum was also imparting skills into the learners.

Do you think that the introduction of Curriculum 2005/ or the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system was necessary?

Yes. I think it was necessary because in the past, learners were not taught the skills but immediately after the implementation of C2005 learners were supported to learn the skills and to get information on their own, unlike in the past where the type of education was teacher-centred. They had to change, especially taking into consideration the uprising of 1976. It was very imperative for the government to change the education system.

What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with NCS in 2002?

I think number one was the workload, and in that type of curriculum, teachers were not having a choice. For example, in history they were teaching all the topics, but after the changes, the educators would teach the topic of his choice. The topic where the teacher is comfortable with.

Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?

I think the design or planning. There were some flaws in the planning that is why the development and implementation were problematic. Even in terms of the planning teachers were not involved. Teachers were not asked questionnaires about the coming of it. Even the planning part of it, teachers were not involved. They were not part and parcel of that.

What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011?

Yes, with the CAPS at least things are better with CAPS because with CAPS the teachers have the so-called exam guidelines, and the teacher is choosing the topics instead of teaching all the topics. And, with CAPS there is also this interaction between the subject advisor and other stakeholders.

Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?

I was trained but I cannot say it was a poor training because it was only for a week if my memory still serves well. So, you cannot be trained for something and go to implement it. A new thing in a period of week. That did not happen with OBE.

What is your opinion about the training that you received?

The training quality was not up to scratch. Unlike with the CAPS, the many workshops that were attending were developed and the subject advisor was making efforts to invite us with different people attending the same workshops with us. That did not happen with OBE because the people who were training themselves did not know anything about OBE.

How do you feel about curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS?

During the C2005 I was lost. I was just trying to find out what was the best solution to that because even then my HOD was not so conversant about it and I was new in the system by then. The person who was leading me was not conversant about the C2005. The NCS 2002 was better in terms of the planning, lessons, there was light at end of the tunnel during the NCS.

To what extent was your school prepared for the post -1994 curriculum changes?

As a historian and not a politician and I am not a racist, my school was not ready because by then, the leader of the school was a white man, and they were totally against the changes in South Africa. This transformation that was taking place in South Africa. That is why most of the black people their mindset was not ready to openly absorb the new curriculum. Many educators did not want to attend the workshops, even the mere workshops the educators were not attending.

How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS periods?

My opinion about curriculum 2005 was not justifiable because we were not doing justice to the learners. There were many tasks that were supposed to be conducted and at the end of the day the learners were not understanding. We were only complying with that. With the new one at least we could get enough time to teach the learners and assess so that you can be able to see that the learners are ready for assessment. RNCS/NCS the volume of the work was reduced.

How do you feel about assessment related to the CAPS (2011)

For me it is fine because you can assess the learners when they are ready. The volume of assessment tasks is not the same as the one under NCS and OBE/C2005. The learners can give good quality work because they have plenty of time for learning the content and you can assess them.

Do you think that curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?

It affected them in a positive way because teaching is no longer teacher centred. Most of the work is done by the learners. As the teacher you are there to assess, to guide and you give these learners work and you allow them to interact with one another. So, it affects them in a positive way.

What informs your assessment planning?

My focus is on the questions, especially the level 3 questions, where the learners are experiencing some difficulties. So, when I plan, most of my planning is based on the high order questions because that is where the learners overlook it and do not try other efforts and loose marks.

What is your view on formative assessment?

I think formative assessment is very important because it tells you about the temperatures of the learners, whether the job has been done, they understand you or whatever.

What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?

I think traditional assessment was more interested in taking the learners to the next level or class. Whether the learner knows different skills or types of questions. Regarding the alternative assessment the focus is to make sure that the learner has the knowledge more especially the ongoing question from grade 9 they must make sure that when you teach the learners in grade 10, he or she is going to go through or come across the very same type of question that were asked in grade 9, 10, 11 and 12.

History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week, what is your opinion on the latter?

For me, the three tasks per week are fair enough because as we are learning different skills in History, you can for the first task deal with the definition of the concept for example. The second one you can choose a source and ask the learners to answer the question about maybe the usefulness of the source and another one the comparison of the source and at the end of the day you have covered the skills and when it comes to the essay you give the learner the essay question. You teach them the content; you give the learners a question based on the introduction. They write an introduction of about eight lines. The second task deals with a conclusion. Then you are done. At the end of the day your learners will be able to write an essay. I am fine with it. It works for me.

Were you content with the way the curricula were implemented?

OBE implementation was not satisfactory, as that part was only done for a short period of time and the revised one there were some few changes here and there, but again the implementation part of it was not up scratch. But with the CAPS at least there are lots of changes, like you can follow the guidelines and plan accordingly and assess the learners and when it comes to implementing it you have something that is guiding you unlike in the previous curriculum.

As a history -teacher to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post - 1994 curricula?

For me, like I explained in the past it was to a lesser extent, because the person who was leading me then was less interested, as a result if you are the neck, and the head is not prepared to look right and backward, so?

What is your understanding of curriculum implementation?

All stakeholders are supposed to be informed about that; and because at the end of the day teachers will be the ones who will be implementing that, and I think it is very important for the

teachers to be part of the design of the curriculum because they are the ones who will be in the classroom.

Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?

Lack of support from the relevant stakeholders. Resources like books also is a cause of lack of support. There need to be ongoing training, workshops, in-service training and follow ups.

Teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards the impact of curriculum change on assessment practices

Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?

Yes, it is good for teaching and learning. I will elaborate. As a teacher you are marking the work of the learner and you see that the learner failed. How can you assist the learner? You will be able to identify the problem of this learner. Maybe the learner needs special attention, so that will inform you.

Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?

Not at all. Especially when you get into the teaching fraternity, most of the teachers whom we found there were older teachers. So, they were less interested. They were not welcoming.

What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?

The rubrics, especially the rubric of the research, the rubric of the paragraph and they essay are ok. But the rubric of the research I think it should be structured differently because after all these learners when we give them research, they are going to plagiarize. They are not going to use their own understanding. So that rubric for me cannot assess the research and the assignment. As for the essay and the paragraph rubrics I do not have a problem. Because you read the essay of the learner, after reading it you read again and after checking all the levels from 1 to 7, the presentation, the content of the essay and then check the rubric where you can place them. Even the paragraph one is the same because you check whether the learner was answering the question, understands it, or the learner demonstrates thorough understanding. Novice teachers need training to use the rubrics fortunately for us as history teachers, our subject advisor used to have marking orientation. He took the dummy scripts, and the novice teachers would mark them before they can get into the live scripts of the learners in that school. These tools are difficult for the novice teachers to use. Even some of the teachers who have been long in teaching, they cannot make use of the tools.

What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?



For OBE, when it started, the school was not ready for it to be honest but as time goes on because now there was another principal, he was supporting that the school was ready for the teachers to attend workshops, but the challenge was the finance because sometimes the allowance from the department took too long to be at schools and the teachers had to pay for their own transport. The school was supportive. We also asked the parents to contribute towards the buying of duplicating paper so that we can make copies for the learners. That practice is still followed. The school bought ink. We also got donations from some companies.

Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?

No, it did not. It assists me to abandon the old methods that I was using to assess and to use the new methods which relate to what is being asked.

In conversation with other history-teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?

Let me say that the old history teachers said they are not ready for the curriculum that has been changing year I year out after some five or four years. Before, they were assessing the learners according to that curriculum [, but after, or when they are used ow here comes another one. For them they think it is going to affect the way we assess the learners, but as teachers they say you are lifelong learner, so you just must be innovative.

Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?

Yes, I think it did. Because with the new curriculum you can assess your learners differently. You use many methods; you also make learners to be the participants. To be the ones who interact more. It did improve the history teachers' assessment practices because some other learners will come with suggestions of how to do things.

As an individual, to what extent did the post 1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.

No, it did not affect the way I assess. I must be innovative and add the new ones to the old ones.

In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?

Teachers need to be informed about these changes and be part of the planning of the new changes. When they are part and parcel of that their input must also be taken into consideration. Whereas almost all the teachers attended the workshops according to the clusters, many teachers did not attend the OBE training. In most cases, when something is new, the first day people will be there but as days go by, numbers declined. That affected the implementation of the curriculum because of poor attendance. What will those teachers implement if they have not attended the workshop? Attendance numbers declined especially because he people who

wer trainers did not understand it, to be honest, from the beginning of C2005. So they need to inform and involve teachers so that their inputs can be considered. Another thing is that the department should not copy from other countries that have funds. They cannot copy the methods of countries that are developed and bring it to us as a developing country because it demands more.

How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?

The design of the curriculum is an important aspect for the curriculum implementation to be successful. Monitoring is equally important because you must monitor to see if the policy is properly implemented, and everyone is doing his/her part. You cannot just design something and send out people to go and preach about it and at the end you are not interested, there is no monitoring, no follow up, there is no support. They need to provide human and financial resources. All these are important in the successful implementation of the new curriculum. Involve all the stakeholders and focus on South Africa and no other countries. For History, future curriculum must make history a compulsory subject. I say that because the youth of this country do not know the history of their country. As a subject history also offers critical skills.

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How do you feel about the post -1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?

The pre-1994 curriculum was alright but because it was having some gaps saying that the learner will learn while playing. Maybe it was changed because it did not benefit the teachers and the learners. Most of the teachers by then were not up to date with the OBE, but when it was changed to NCS, I think it is still alright because it is a planned curriculum which is drawn from the above; and then given to the teachers. It is implemented and it is strictly monitored, even the standard can be properly measured to see what the actual performance of the learners is. That one says it is a lifelong skill that is why it never sustained or took long in South Africa. But again, that one of after 1994, it is good, but it has got a lot of work, and it is quite demanding.

Do you think that the introduction of Curriculum 2005/ or the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system was necessary?

Yes, for standardization it is fine. There was a need to have a new curriculum which is accommodating to all the racial groups in the country. That one was discriminating because you know where we come from. So, this one at least covers everyone, it is applicable to all the black learners, the white people, so it is standardized. It does not discriminate.

What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with NCS in 2002?

First of all, teachers were not trained for OBE; so the whole education system was frustrating to the teachers. Originally remember we are from apartheid and that one I think it was

implemented, which was something new. Well, we were told that it was from somewhere, even the training was very limited. So, teachers did not acquire enough information about OBE so it never succeeded in that way. It was a challenge to the teachers, and it was difficult for them to implement.

Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?

I think the challenging issue was the implementation. It was designed or maybe copied from another country you know the politics, but when it comes to the teachers, remember I said the kind of training the teachers received by then, it was a very limited kind of training, so it was difficult even for the teachers to implement. They did not understand it well.

What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011?

Yes, CAPS is fine but is full of paperwork. In terms of the curriculum, the kind of work stipulated to for teachers is very demanding because you are given the scope in terms of the curriculum coverage, you are supposed to cover a certain part formed by the curriculum specialists or departmental officials, and you are supposed to comply with those; how many you are supposed to address; they should be marked; how many formal tests; you don't just assess your learners on your own, you are being dictated to.

Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?

I remember that in 2005 I was trained. Trained for what? For only two or three days. That was the kind of training I got during the training that time. I remember after two to three days training, I going to teach something for the rest of the year. Teaching something that I am trained for two days or three days. It was not adequate. So, I felt so many challenges in implementing it.

What is your opinion about the training that you received?

It was difficult because it was done within a very short space of time. You can't say ok, it was included in our training at higher education and training, or done yearly or annually, not something to be done in three days, and you can implement it to the learners. It was a challenge to me including many other teachers.

How do you feel about curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS?

Yes, we are supposed to do lesson preparations, but you can bear with me, as a teacher, sometimes you can plan on the paper that you will do this will do that. But when you are in the classroom, you are just directed by the level of understanding of the learners. I can plan that I am going to this topic from Monday. Maybe in two days' time I will be addressing that, but only to find that the learners did not understand equally at the same time. Sometimes I plan things to be done in a week, but I spend more than a week or more than two days. So, planning

at times well that is paperwork. But coming to the implementation part, you will find that I do comply with my planning, or I am moving ahead of my planning, or I am behind the planning. During OBE you can plan but remember we said the learners can learn while playing, it is continuous, but this one is assessment based, so it means that you must make sure that your planning, you teach according to the set curriculum so that when it is time to assess the learners you are ready for that. You are pushed behind by the curriculum.

To what extent was your school prepared for the post -1994 curriculum changes?

Like I said it was a challenge every teacher. It was not all the teachers who received that training. It was limited. And then some who did not it was a challenge. I mean our schools were fully not fully prepared. Some principals at that time were not teaching, but they attended one or two trainings; so, when they came back, they tried to make the impression that they understand, even though they didn't understand but it was because of the prevailing situation that they had to make sure that OBE is fully implemented.

How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS periods?

If I remember well, because it was a long time ago, there were no formal assessment, but now in the NCS there are formal assessments, and at times I don't know whether I am confusing the issues, but the assessment, the full responsibility is from the department; question papers everything is set nationally or provincially or even a cluster level. As a teacher you don't have to organize your own paper for the purpose of standardization. I think OBE it wasn't so formal.

How do you feel about assessment related to the CAPS (2011)

Assessment under CAPS is putting a lot of pressure on the teachers because it is also planned but we as teachers must implement it and we have to comply with the requirements under the CAPS. It is strictly monitored. If the learners are not performing according to the expectation there is a lot of accountabilities.

Do you think that curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?

Let me start with the teachers. It affects me as a teacher because the learners maybe they are for 2019. The learners pass and go and for 2020. Every year the learners are coming but the main challenge remains with the teacher. Well, the learners they perform differently. It depends on their level of understanding because we are unique as people. So, this year you can find good learners, do all the strategies you did with the previous ones, but you will find that the performance varies. When the curriculum changes the problem why they are not performing well started with the teachers. If the teachers do not know what to do ultimately it is going to suffer the learners.

What is your understanding of assessment practices?

Well, under the CAPS, assessment practices, that is the requirement for every teacher to assess the learners, making sure that whatever lessons the teacher taught, learners are with they are following her, unlike continuous teaching, leaving the learners behind. So, the strategy is that you must teach, and you must assess before you give the learners the formal activities which is a lot of work. The frequency, it means that you must make sure that the learners understand very well the content that you are teaching; because you can't present something once and expect the learners to master it. So, it takes time. It should be something done frequently. So, on the teacher that is pressure. Under the CAPS we are also told that I am sure it is a policy I don't know, that they are stipulated by the department of education, that at least in a week's time you must give your learner at least four activities a week; two class activities; and two home activities every week. But remember you are not only teaching one grade, but you are also teaching many grades. So that affects the teacher's assessment. I think teachers should be given their discretion. I should know what part of the assessment I should do; what part of the assessment I should do; which aspect, but not for complying; not for the sake of compliance, that when I am going to be monitored, I should make sure that I have covered four activities per week. These activities must be meaningful for the learner.

What informs your assessment planning?

What is important is the necessary skills that you want to impart on the learners. Let say for example in the subject that I teach I am teaching I am teaching the essay writing, I must make sure that the skill that I am assessing that day is the skill of writing an essay. Not just a general teaching. But specifically teaching the learners the structure of writing an essay, making sure that all the skills of writing an essay should be properly taught. Then coming to the source based I must also make sure that the learners must be able to work with different sources and be able to answer the questions. You also need to check your assessment plan to say in term I I am supposed to assess two activities, and second term how many activities. So, you should plan your assessment according to the assessment programmes, even though at times it can't be exactly those times that you have stated it should be around those times.

What is your view on formative assessment?

Usually, we say the learners does not pass at the end of the year as teachers. The learner should start passing right from the beginning of the year. So, all the assessments that you give your learners in term one, they should what, those are the learners' portfolios. You check, you track how the learner's performance in term I on the formal assessment and what I like is that for standardization, getting the standard results, those formal assessments from the department, not set by the the teachers can give us authentic results because you can see how he learners and even other schools are performing. So, for teachers there are those assessments that you should do each term before the summative assessment. So formal assessment should prepare your learners for summative assessment.

What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?

Yes, the traditional assessment was the one done by the teacher. It was not an intended one. The teachers were having the freedom to teach whatever they wanted to teach pertaining to the subject content and set their own papers and mark their own learners, develop their own memorandums, and give the results. But what I like about it is because it is uniformed. It can determine the authentic standard for the results of the country or the province or even the district. But the tradition one, the school could decide to formulate their assessment; and all learners can pass, or all can fail but this one is strictly monitored. Alternative assessment does not end with you as the teacher. It goes with accountability; parents must be informed; the district must be informed; the learners themselves should get their progress report of how they have performed. This one as I have said it gives the correct form of standardization of the results. But the traditional assessment was decided by the teacher. At times, the teacher did not cover much in the curriculum to teach the learners. But this one the system will ensure that curriculum is fully covered.

History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week, what is your opinion on the latter?

In terms of the internal assessment, we can, but I think it os too much. Like I said it depends on the kind of assessment you want to achieve. Let say for example teaching history. Let say I am teaching an essay question; because I will be forced to cover three activities per week, I have started to teach the essay question do I have to divide the essay into subtopics. I really feel that you are only complying. I think you should be given the chance that when I have covered adequate aspects inn the content that I am supposed to assess the learners. Let say for example is an essay question. I can divide it into small paragraphs. Well, I can combine one or two paragraphs. So according to me I will be assessing paragraphs 1, 2, 3 in one activity. Not for the sake of complying. Saying that the first paragraph should be task 1, paragraph 2 task 2 and so on. Only to comply so that when he monitors are here, they should find that I have covered three activities. But if I give that opportunity, I should assess my learners. I should be given a time, that when I feel that this is the right time to assess the learners I should assess. But not strictly told that cover three activities a week. We should check the volume of he works, the quality of the work.

Were you content with the way the curricula were implemented?

Everything that is implemented for the first time is a challenge. Now we are used to it but when it started it was very challenging. Something that you do for the first time is very challenging. Even some of the teachers they were even afraid to teach the senior classes because of that implementation.

As a history -teacher to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post - 1994 curricula?

They are full of documentation. As a history teacher I find that it was full of documentation. Portfolios keeping for the learners. Yes, we should keep it as evidence, but we used the

recording sheets previously, but not compiling the portfolios and it has got a bit of work because topics, a few topics are given to us how much you should cover, that is a huge challenge. History is not a simple subject like people think when you ask a learner a question all of them can give you one answer. No, you must look at different answers how they are approached. For example, in other subjects it is easy o mark. In history it is a challenging marking both sources based as well as essay questions. Other subjects, I am not undermining them, but let say for example they are asked to a question that require any substance that is released by tag, all of them are going to give you one answer, but in history just giving them a cocept to explain yu are going to get different answers from different learners. You must read all those assessments. So, it was really challenging, particularly in history.

What is your understanding of curriculum implementation?

My understanding of curriculum implementation is that it is a set of curricula that that is planned by our seniors or curriculum specialists and then is given to the teachers down to put it into practice to make sure that is is now operating. It is planned somewhere, and then it is given to the teachers to come and implement it, to teach it in class. Including the parents. Parents should also take part because whatever I gave done learners must do home activities at home and the parents must make sure that they extend that, so they should assist the children with homework. It is the teaching practice that should be implemented by all stakeholders; action in the classroom, which does not only concern the teachers but the learners, the teachers, the parents, and the department of education.

Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?

The first thing is he implementation of the curriculum. I am told what to do. I am given what to do. I am expected, I am given my expectation and I should perform accordingly. If I do not perform accordingly, every workplace goes with accountability. But coming to the implementation, it is quiet demanding, like I told you, implementing without complying at times, learners not preforming well, the challenges the teachers face, well the in-service-training are being conducted but at times I feel that they were not adequate. Availability of resources is another factor. At times, our schools are not having the same equipment as other schools. If the learners do not have the resources, they are going to struggle. Like in our township schools, you find that even the textbooks are lacking, so for the learners to read on their own they do not have, the only come to get the resources at school when they share, so at times more learners or two learners use one textbook, and they stay far away from each other.

Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?

Daily activities are good because that is the diagnosis where you see whether your learners understand what they are doing immediately in class. At times you can give the learners the whole activities so that they should go and do the research on their own, they should help one another there at their own space of time, but this one of the class activities you just wanted to address immediately whether th learners were listening to your lesson in the class. They are

very good because as the teacher, if you plan it very well you will track the performance of the learners. You will see whether the learners understand or not.

Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?

I can say most teachers because we are sharing the same sentiments. The majority were not happy. If you can find or search or look at the reports of the activities given to the learners most teachers do not comply. They are trying at least to meet the requirements, but I am hundred percent sure that some teachers do not comply with the number expected with those activities. So, it is difficult for them to reach those activities expected.

What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?

Well, let me start with the essay questions. Marking history essay at times you can find that now rubrics are alright. They advantage some learners; at times they disadvantage them because learners do not write the same thing. Even we as teachers we are interpreting those rubrics differently even though they are the level of descriptors you know that marking the essay I can get, I can mark the script and get some marks for the learner, but when the second person is going to mark the same script, we are going to differ with the mark allocation even the third one, but the range should be within. At times we differ with huge marks. So that is why I say marking the essay is quite challenging, using the rubrics. It is not fair like giving one simple answer. When it comes to source-based marking, there are those learners who can provide the expected answers, but there are also those who can come up with the answers that are similar. Well, they are accommodated with the last bullet that says any other relevant answer, but at times you find that it is difficult for some learners to answer such questions. The tools are quite challenging to even us teaches who say we are experienced teachers; we are still consulting even today.

What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?

We get extensive support from the subject advisor. From the school no. I did not receive anything. What they support me with is that if you want to assess the learners with a test, they will assist me with the copies or whatever, but in terms of the subject per se, the content, I did not receive anything. Oh well on the side of the training and workshops yes because I am given a chance when there is a workshop, they give me the opportunity to attend. The subject advisor has been very supportive, even more than he is supposed to. At times they even come to school. At times they even feel that they should assist you. You should go with them to class and observe how they are teaching. They give us a lot of support.

Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?



Yes, a lot. It is scheduled how many assessments I should give, while you are given the option whether to assess, how many essays, and how many source-based but you must make sure that it covered these aspects, whether in the source-based form or the essay form. It unlike in the previous one, one essay one source was enough. But this one they are combined in one assessment, seeing that it is a standardized test, you are supposed to mark an essay as well as a source-based in one test. It is quite demanding like I have said, history essays are very long because you have got lots of information to cover. Lots of content to cover. They are well structured. So it is not like even when you are supposed to give results, you will find that most history teachers are the ones that are left behind. History teacher's assessment practices were affected in a negative way mostly.

In conversation with other history-teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?

It has got a lot of work. To mark an essay is not an easy task. The fully structured one is not an easy task.

Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?

Oh no, it did not improve it because it adds more on assessment what is supposed to be done by the teachers. Well and it is increasing the amount of work and the pressure for the teachers. It did not assist.

As an individual, to what extent did the post 1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.

Like I said, I am not assessing my learners as I wish. I should comply with the curriculum requirements and the assessment criteria that is expected.

In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?

I think one of the plans that can be done to help teachers is that teachers must be part maybe or be represented somewhere and review all the assessment in history, so that teachers can be able to deal with assessment, the pressure of work, the time spent on that. I think if they can get the information directly from the teachers, that can help.

How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?

For history they need to reduce the workload. Instead of doing two essays and one source, or one essay two sources I think an essay and a source will be enough. All that I am saying is that three topics are demanding to the teacher. They can do one topic representing essay and one representing the source-based question. They will adequately give how the learner performed, unlike assessing many essay questions. Even one or two, they can determine how the learner is performing. They can give results and a true reflection of the learners' performance. There

should not be a greater number of essays or a greater number of sources. If the learner has been properly taught, I think an essay can be used to see whether the learner is performing or not even one source question. The other part should be reduced. In terms of the curriculum in general, like I have said, the curriculum implementation does not only concern the teacher, let say learners also, parents, teachers, even the school management, including the district officials. If they can conduct or share the information amongst these people all of them, I think it will be good for the implementation. learners will know their part; parents will know their part; teachers will know their part; the school management and even the district. It will be easy for it to be implemented.

### **Teacher E**

How do you feel about the post -1994 curriculum changes in South Africa?

My feeling is that it was necessary for a change because remember before 1994 it was Bantu Education and then curriculum change that was learner centred. Remember when we went for OBE training or workshops, they told us that it is now learner centred. The education system was better now because it benefitted if I may say so, our learners more than in the past. So, I am for the change. I am happy that the curriculum changed. And then from OBE there were so many changes until now, NCS. I forgot the other one. My feeling is that it was necessary.

Do you think that the introduction of Curriculum 2005/ or the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) system was necessary?

I think so. Like I mentioned it was necessary because I remember once, I do not remember the course that we did but I remember studying that people like Kader Asmal went to other countries and studied the type of education, or curriculum that they practiced. That is why they came and made some changes regarding the curriculum. So, I forgot what curriculum 2005 was all about but yes, I am for the changes.

What factors led to the replacement of C2005 with NCS in 2002?

I really do not know.

Do you think that C2005 was reviewed mainly due to design features, development, or implementation?

Yes, that might be one of the reasons. If it is too complicated. For instance, we used to say this one is too much administration. The teacher will fail to do that administration because instead of focusing on the learner, the planning of the lesson and the presentation, effective teaching, and learning, you are concentrating on files and more files. Maybe because of the difficulty that they experienced they decided to change the curriculum?

What is your opinion about the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2011?

I think that CAPS is one of the best systems introduced because we teach, we assess, we teach, we assess. As a result, the learner will have more insight. When you assess them, that is the more they learn. So teaching, assessing more written work; that makes the learner to know, to understand better.

Were you trained to implement C2005/OBE?

Yes, I remember. We went for.... was it five days? We were trained for five days. Yes, I was trained.

What is your opinion about the training that you received?

It was not enough. Too much work. Little time. Too many much work...only five days. Remember we went to colleges of education or universities to be trained to become educators for three or four years. Now for five days. For us it was too little.

How do you feel about curriculum development process related to C2005 and NCS?

For me planning is planning. I just do not remember what we did when we planned for OBE. But with CAPS having that time to sit down and to plan for the whole week or term, I do not know what to say but its fine. They give resources we needed. You can choose or may add to those given to you.

To what extent was your school prepared for the post -1994 curriculum changes?

I do not think they were ready because to me it looked like they were resisting change., because we used to criticize. I was of them. We compared: during that time, we were doing that and now they want us to do this. Remember that when we said that the learner should do more work and the classes were full of noise, and you said that that is OBE. OBE should be learner-centred, the learner should talk more. And then some teachers, I think misunderstood because you will find that there is chaos in classes; there is no order because the learners were doing so much noise and some teachers used old methods of teaching. So, I think they were resisting.

How did you experience assessment during C2005 and RNCS periods?

Too frequent. We had to assess more than before. For instance, in history at least in a week you must have four activities. That is not negotiable. But in the past the subject advisor did not mind how many we did have but now is a big issue. You have less than four in a week then you must come up with a recovery plan; that is how you will recover. During C2005 and NCS it was easy.

How do you feel about assessment related to the CAPS (2011)

For the sake of effective teaching and learning I will say Yes, it is too much but better than before.

Do you think that curriculum changes affect your learners in a positive or negative way?

I think it affects the learners in a positive way because there are changes. It means that somebody noticed that something is not going the right way. It may not benefit the learner in one way or another. So, when they came up with the changes, it means they change for the better.

What is your understanding of assessment practices?

The types of assessment that we have, research assignments, homework, formal activities. Those are the types of assessments that we have.

What informs your assessment planning?

I check whether learners understand the content; the topic that we discussed or what I presented in class. I want to check whether there is understanding or knowledge or skills. That is what I check.

What is your view on formative assessment?

It is necessary. It is necessary because it also contributes towards the progress of the learner towards the end of the term or the end of the year, or to the next grade. So yes if it is standardized, formative assessment yes.

What is your view on traditional versus alternative assessment?

We need to combine them because all learners should achieve. We should not focus on the best learners and forget about the other learners, the so-called slow learners (if I may say that). I think both traditional and alternative assessments should be combined because remember we also have the progressed learners. We will have special programmes for those who achieve. Alternative assessment is however better.

History teachers in the Motheo district are expected to give a minimum of three written tasks a week, what is your opinion on the latter?

I support that; because that keeps us on par so that all our learners are on the same level at the same time. I support it. Planning makes things easy. Plan and you should not experience any difficulty. You plan that this coming week this will be my assessment forms; this is what I will be doing. This will be the assessment plan. So, you plan, it is not difficult. I do not have a problem with the four tasks.

Were you content with the way the curricula were implemented?

No. Like I have said before there was too little time, but too much information that we

got. The changes that you come up with, the things you are not used to doing. So as a result, it was not easy.

As a history -teacher to what extent were you prepared for the implementation of the post - 1994 curricula?

I did not have any problem. I started teaching social sciences first; before I taught history. By the time I taught history it was easy because I had people who were trained and then I learnt from them. For me it was easy.

Which factors affected curriculum implementation in your view?

I think resources. We do not have resources. For example, at my school right now I have forty-eight grade 12 learners. But I only have eight textbooks. Now I need to copy, and you know the copyright and so on. Sometimes you need to project, you do not have the projector, you do not have a laptop. We do improvise but we still have lack of resources.

Do you believe that assessment for learning enhances teaching and learning?

I think it does. Before you go to class you tell the learners what you will be doing so that they can study before coming to class. You come and present your lesson. You give the learners the activity, informal activities which will lead to informal tests which will lead to formal tests. Every time you talk about something, the learners will get a clear understanding of the topic itself. So yes, it does enhance teaching and learning.

Would you say that many teachers welcomed assessment changes that came with the new curricula?

No. The teachers do not want to give more written work. That is the problem. They will tell you about marking. For instance, when you say there should be four class and home activities in a week and then every Friday there must be an informal test, for them it will be marking every week because if it is a test then it means you as a teacher should sit down and mark and be able to say something about the performance of the learner. As a result, they do not want to mark. Now they think it's too much.

What is your comment about the new rubrics and matrixes that were used to assess contextual and essay questions?

For me they are user friendly because you do not give the learner more than the other one. They guide you. Content presented for this level the learner qualifies for these marks. They are easy to apply. It is however not easy for the novice teachers, especially with the paragraph marking. Those dots, dots dots, allocate ticks at the end because they confuse that dots are mark allocation. For them it is not easy but if they give it their all or concentrate on what they must do it becomes easier.

What kind of support did you receive from your school to implement new assessment methods?

We were trained. We went to the workshops. The departmental head would call the subject advisor to come and direct us; and then being monitored time and again is also one of the supports because if we are not supported, if you are not controlled then it would be easy to do something. So that is the support that we got. The school made resources like ink, papers, and machines available.

Do you think that the new curriculum affected history teachers' assessment methods?

Yes, it did. For instance, the essay question I think for history teachers, when you are told that you must have those many activities in a week, we used to say no we will be writing these many essays in a week, not knowing that there are so many ways of assessing an essay question. I think it affected us. It affected us in a negative way.

In conversation with other history-teachers, how did they view the new curricula in terms of their assessment practices?

Mostly we are saying in a positive way because of the frequent assessment.

Do you think that curriculum changes benefitted history teacher's assessment practices?

Yes, it did improve the assessment practices like I said the frequency. Now we have more. It guides you in terms of the resources, the essay and so on.

As an individual, to what extent did the post 1994 curriculum changes affect your assessment practices? Please elaborate.

My way of assessing the learners was affected to a greater extent because like I said before with the other teachers, two weeks could pass without assessing the learners but now it does not happen. I make sure that every week I assess the learners.

In your view, how can the department of education best plan and prepare the teachers for curriculum change?

They should know when to start. They should give teachers more time so that after training the teachers should firstly implement whatever was taught. Maybe provide some resources. I have seen, for Maths, if I can make example, Maths teachers are given laptops, they are given projectors. They are given resources so that when teaching, there is effective teaching and learning. So maybe that is what they should do. They should give us more time to workshop, to train us and then provide some resources.

How can the department ensure that implementation of the new curriculum is successful?

Maybe they should have a pilot study. They should pilot the next change, not with all schools but some schools and then assess whether that will be successful or where are the challenges. So that when they implement it, they know where the shortcomings will be. I think that is what they should do.