AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT IN THE HISTORY CURRICULUM IN GRADE 11 IN THE FORT BEAUFORT DISTRICT OF EDUCATION

BY

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A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Education in the School of Postgraduate Studies, University of Fort Hare

Promoter: Prof. S. Rembe

2011
DECLARATION

I hereby solemnly declare that “An Assessment of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in History at Grade 11 level in the Fort Beaufort High Schools” is a product of my research. The dissertation has not been submitted to any other tertiary institution as a diploma or degree before and all the sources used in the study, both published and unpublished, have been acknowledged within the text and in the list of references.

Nombulelo Constance Zingela

September 2011

Signed............................................  Date.........................
ABSTRACT

This study assessed the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District of Education in Grade 11. The study arose as a result of the dawn of the democracy, in South Africa in 1994 which necessitated innovations in the education sector. An educational approach known as the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) was introduced in 1998. As such many changes were eventually made in the History classroom (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002). History in a school curriculum is often understandably used by the government education authorities to present and promote a particular world view. History curriculum documents in South Africa have long been under fire for being content-heavy. The new Further Education and Training History Subject Statement has dealt with these challenges and produced manageable subject content (Bertram, 2006).

This study is located in the post positivism paradigm and adopted a mixed methods approach to research that incorporated concurrent procedures in the collection of data. It employed a triangulation mixed method design to collect data that gave useful information about the implementation of NCS History in Grade 11 in the Fort Beaufort District. Seven high schools in the rural area of the Fort Beaufort District of Education, in the Nkonkobe municipality in the Eastern Cape were purposively selected for the sample in this study. Questionnaires were used to collect the quantitative data, while the qualitative data were collected using interviews, focus group discussions, document analysis and classroom observations.

Questionnaires were administered to 33 respondents in the Fort Beaufort District in schools where History was offered at Grade 11. Face to face interviews were carried out with three Grade 11 NCS History teachers and 3 focus groups with, 6 from each with a total of 18 learners; classroom observations and document analysis were also carried out in in the same schools. Another interview was carried out with the History Subject Advisor, based in the Fort Beaufort District Education Office. Fullan’s Model of Change and Rogan and Grayson’s Implementation of Change Theory were used to discuss and analyse the data.
The participants were Grade 11 History learners, Grade 11 History teachers, school Heads of Departments and Deputy Principals as curriculum supervisors and a Subject Advisor. They were selected randomly for quantitative data and purposively for qualitative data.

The results indicated that, although Grade 11 History teachers were qualified as teachers and had specialised in History, they were not trained for the implementation of the NCS in History curriculum and that not all the History teachers at Grade 11 used the learner-centred approach which is the key to OBE education in teaching. The study found that History teachers in Grade 11 selected the learning-teaching material on their own without support from their HoDs and that there was no supervision and evaluation of History Grade 11 work either by the HoDs or the Subject Advisor. Key recommendation of the study: The government should fund the retraining of History teachers towards an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) with History specialisation as part of the in-service training, that the DoE should provide teachers with training on how to select the LTSM, monitoring and class visits.
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- My colleagues in research, Master’s and Doctorate students in the Faculty of Education at Fort Hare
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- Teachers who participated in the research and many others I cannot mention by name.

Above all, my profound gratitude goes to my heavenly Father, God almighty, whom through His strength and wisdom I learned that I am what I am because of His Grace.
DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late husband, Zweliyaduma Wiseman Zingela, who supported me through my first degree, but could unfortunately not experience what was to follow. I am a Master's student because of all his efforts. To my children, Sifanele, Baxolile and Similile as well as to my grandchildren, Kwangakungakhanya, Sanginceba and Okhokela, for the love and support they gave me when I came home tired. Without you I would not have done all these.
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<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>ACE</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate in Education</td>
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<td>ASs</td>
<td>Assessment Standards</td>
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<td>CASS</td>
<td>Continuous Assessment</td>
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<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continued Professional Development</td>
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<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>Further Education and Training</td>
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<td>Head of Department</td>
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<td>South African Qualifications Authority</td>
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Chapter 1

Background to the study

1.1 Introduction

History does not merely or even principally refer to the past only. On the contrary, the great force of history comes from the fact that we carry it within us, are consciously controlled by it in many ways, and history is literally present in all that we do (Chisholm, 2005). History therefore can be explained as a study of the past that manifests itself in the present and is thus a continuity of the past (Schoeman, 2000). The History Subject Statement defines history as, the study of change and development in society over time and space (National Curriculum Statement (NCS), 2003). From this definition it is clear that history concerns itself with how a society has evolved over time and how the lessons from the past can help direct the present and the future.

There are many benefits of studying history. The report of the History and Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education (2002), views history as central to practical human values including tolerance. As such, when taught by imaginative teachers, the richness of history has a larger capacity to promote reconciliation and reciprocal respect of a meaningful kind, because it encourages knowledge of the other, the unknown and the different Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education (2002).

The purpose of studying history is also to build the capacity of people to make choices in order to contribute constructively to society and to advance democracy (NCS 2003). This brings with it the knowledge that, as human beings, learners have choices and that they can make a choice to change the world for the better (Department of Education, 2003). Reeves,(2002), adds that studying history offers a key vehicle for understanding the roots, nature and manifestations of different cultures, identities and trajectories in the making of common societies in our modern age. History thus is important as part of any school curriculum, although studying history has been viewed as advantageous by many scholars, it is important to state
that this was not the case with the former history syllabus in South Africa. Many people during the apartheid era perceived the history curriculum as a tool used by the apartheid government to instil the views of the past (Husbands, Kitson & Pendry, 2003). In this regard history lessons were viewed as a tool for the mental enslavement of the people.

1.2 Curriculum changes after 1994

1.2.1 The traditional approach to education in South Africa

During the apartheid era, education for the blacks, from kindergarten to tertiary as well as vocational education was the responsibility of the central government. The organisation of the schools was seen as part of a plan of social development. According to Chisholm, Motala & Vally (2003), if curriculum is seen as a process of cultural transitions, then curriculum represents that selection from the culture which is presented to the learner in the school. The selection is made at different levels by a variety of people in a wide range of contexts, which includes activities generated by the school or by a higher authority for the school. The process includes the inculcation of knowledge as well as the generation of skills and attitudes which are communicated through teachers, by materials, by other children, through direct teaching, individual learning, informal contact and examples. This definition by Chisholm et al (2003) fits the Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953 (Smith, 1993). This Act dealt with the principles and aims of education together with its inherent racial inequalities, distinctive characteristics, aptitudes and needs. This was an essential component of the overall policy of separate development for racial groups propagated and implemented by the National Party from 1948 onwards.

The decline in the quality of education for blacks in 1950s was almost entirely a result of inadequate financial provisions made for it. Lodge (1985) posits that, under the apartheid government it became clear that quality education was only for the chosen few and that the majority group remained poor and illiterate as a result of the low quality of education they received. Pretorius (1999) describes education under the apartheid regime in the following way:
The traditional curriculum process was too structured, prescriptive and not easily adaptable. It made no room for the stakeholders' participation in the decision-making process. The curriculum was content-based with the result that the teacher instructed and learners memorised. It was teacher centred and not learner centred. Learner achievement was measured in symbols and percentages which were often no real indication of the actual performance. Learner achievement was compared to that of other learners which led to unhealthy competition (viii(ix).

The previous education system therefore was disadvantageous to learners, as it did not promote acquisition of problem solving skills, but surface learning. As a result of these limitations, the advent of independence in 1994 brought about change in curriculum in order to allow all stakeholders to participate in decision-making and to consider learners' individual differences. The new education system became biased towards child-centred approaches as shall be shown in the subsequent section.

1.2.2 A need for change in the South African education system

Given the above discussion, it became clear that there was a need to redress the imbalances of the apartheid regime. Thus, the National Qualification Framework (1996) states:

"South Africa’s economic systems are rapidly undergoing significant changes and as it re-enters the international arena, it is critical that the education and training system keeps pace with international standards, thus doing away with the old system of education was necessary" (pp.12).

The adoption of the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) provided for curriculum transformation and development in South Africa. The preamble states that the aims of the Constitution are:

- To heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental values, and fundamental human rights.
- Improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person.
- Lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law,
• Build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations (DoE: 1).

The adoption of the new Constitution reconstituted the education landscape, bringing together the different classroom practices under one administrative body in all nine provinces. Different levels of responsibilities for curriculum matters were allocated within the education system, and while the norms and standards were of the domain of the national department, implementation was a provincial competence (Chisholm, 2005). According to a report by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2008), the 1996 Constitution required that education be transformed and democratised in accordance with the values of human dignity, equality, human rights and freedom, non-racist, non-sexist and guarantees the right to basic education for all. Explaining the curriculum reform process in the education system, Chisholm (2005) says that it followed a number of clear steps:

The first step followed immediately after the 1994 elections and concentrated on ironing out variations in curriculum used by the different education departments. Second step was presented as an emergency intervention while the new curriculum policy was developed- purged the curriculum of racially offensive, sexist and outdated content. The third wave of reform shifted the focus away from the content and onto assessment with the introduction of continuous assessment in 1996 (pp. 215).

Chisholm (2005) further elaborates that the master plan, Curriculum 2005, was launched in March 1997 and was scheduled to be phased in Grade 1 in 1998 and was to be phased in progressively so that it would cover all schooling sectors by 2005. According to the OECD (2008), Chisholm (2005), and Pretorius (1999), the new curriculum had three design features. Firstly, it was outcomes-based, and this feature was positioned so centrally that outcomes-based education (OBE) became synonymous with Curriculum 2005. Secondly, subjects were replaced with ‘learning areas’ which reframed the traditional subject disciplines into an integrated knowledge system. The curriculum would begin to integrate education and training-incorporating a view of learning which rejects rigid divisions between academic and
applied knowledge, theory and practice, as well as knowledge and skills. (DoE: 1997). Thirdly, the curriculum promoted a learner-centred pedagogy.

1.2.3 The South African History syllabus prior 1994

History taught under the apartheid system was symbolic of the system and the authoritarian pedagogies typical of many schools was also seen to have their home in history as taught in schools (Chisholm, 2005). It was primarily the history of a certain dominant minority who attempted to construct and impose a version of the past according to the dictates of Afrikaner nationalism. According to Ross (2001), the emphasis was on teaching content behaviours and values that reflected the views of the dominant society.

There was no uniformity in what was taught in schools. Rehman (2008) illustrates clearly the differences in the syllabus offered to children of the same standard, (6-8) in white schools and black schools in the Transvaal region. On one hand, in white schools children were taught history as a subject where a child was to be taught some concepts to ‘fully’ equip him/her to contend with problems with which s/he will be confronted with. On the other hand, in the black schools, children were taught Social Studies, which included History and Geography. What was included in the syllabus for Bantu Education was among other things, Citizenship and Good Conduct (Evans, 2002). The main aim of this curriculum was to build unquestioning citizens.

During history lessons, memorising dictated notes and regurgitating this information without necessarily understanding it was the norm. Children were taught ‘facts’ and were not encouraged to question the selectivity or reliability of the material presented to them. Coutts (1996) refers to this approach to teaching as transmission, where learning was teacher-centred, rooted in the teacher’s authority and knowledge. This disempowered learners and made them susceptible to control by political forces that were seeking to maintain their authority and domination (Carr, 2001).
Husbands et al (2003), looking at the academic background of history teachers during apartheid, noted that in most cases history teachers were people with an inadequate academic background in the discipline. This is because, principals entrusted non-specialists with the task of teaching the subject on the assumption that anyone can teach the subject. This approach disadvantaged many students in terms of the content of the subject and often frustrated many teachers who sometimes ‘dodged’ classes or just gave the learners notes to write until s/he (the teacher) has memorised enough to ‘pour’ into the heads of the learners. The training of teachers was closely controlled by the government using the selfsame textbooks and methodologies employed in schools (Rehman, 2008).

Textbooks with ‘relevant material’ (relevant because they suited the aims of the dominant group), were chosen by the curriculum developers (Foster & Smith, 2001). Teachers were to use such textbooks even if they were inadequate, ideologically distorted or even incomprehensible, because they were prescribed (History and Archaeology Report, 2000). There was no other material to provoke the thinking of learners, and if there was any, like the cartoons, they were already explained to be in line with what was said by the textbook, and no other view. There was no need to understand the document known as a syllabus because teachers were called to training sessions to be drilled on what they had to teach their learners.

Examinations were used as the only measure to progress to the next level, and this depended on the learner’s success in regurgitating the version of the past as required of him/her by the dominant society. Sutherland (2000) mentions some of the methods used to assess History as follows;

- The use of long essay type questions.
- Marks being awarded for each fact, which suggested that students make meaning of their world by rote learning a set of pre-ordained ‘facts’ that have been subjectively selected by someone in authority.

For this reason history as a school subject lost its ground and became less important as it did not challenge most students. The Carnergie Reporter (2008) says that some schools even came to regard history as a subject for less able learners or those with
a low IQ and, even among teachers, history became a kind of dumping ground. The reporter adds that when teachers advised students on what subjects to take, they would send the ‘slow learners’ to history classes, and many students were referred to history classes because Mathematics and Science were only for the ‘chosen few’ (Foster & Smith, 2001). This resulted in large numbers in history classes, which sometimes the teacher were unable to pay individual attention to, and at the end, resulted in a high failure rate in the subject (Coutts, 1996).

Most teachers also observed that in the past history as a subject was given an inferior status in some schools. The subject was given a slot in the teaching timetable after the long break, by which the learners would have used their energy in the so called ‘tougher’ subjects that were taught in the earlier hours of the school day. By this time learners would be tired and have reduced concentration span. This resulted in high a failure rate in history (DoE, 2008).

1.3 The history syllabus in South Africa since 1994

After 1994, the previous history syllabus was put under attack because of its racist content. There was a general call to eliminate inaccuracies and distortions in the subject content and to establish a common core curriculum (Bertram, 2008). This new curriculum, the Interim Core Syllabus for History was introduced from 1995 (in grade 10 to grade 12) and was in operation until the release of the National Curriculum statement in 2003, which started to operate in 2006 in Grade 10 (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002). The Interim Core Syllabus was the first history syllabus to depict the history of Black people, their struggles and achievements against apartheid and the oppressors in the industrial field (Bertram 2006). It scrapped out most Afrikaner nationalist perceptions of black history, however, it did not change the way history was taught. Teachers still used the old methods of teaching and assessment. Furthermore, teachers were instructed to search for the additional content as there would be no new textbooks (Carr, 2001). Coupled with this problem, there was a serious lack of human resources at the district level to give proper guidance and support to teachers regarding the implementation of the new content (History/Archaeology Panel Report 2000). The new syllabus, thus, had
characteristics of the old one, e.g. the fragmentation of the content into European and South African history.

As a result of the limitations of the Interim Core Syllabus for History, a major curriculum reform was affected by the launch of Curriculum 2005 (C2005) in 1997 (Bertram 2006). It was to be informed by outcomes-based education (OBE), and represented a shift from content-based teaching and learning to skills-based learning. However, according to Chisholm (2005), there were some problems with the C2005, and it was also reviewed because it did away with all the content that the learner might want to use in order to interpret the present situation. Teachers and learners were to look for specific topics which applied most to their situation from broader aspects of the curriculum, known as Specific Outcomes which applied to all Learning Areas. The review process culminated in the production of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (Grade R-9) and the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (Grade 10-12). In the RNCS History and Geography are combined in the Social Sciences learning area, and in the Further Education and Training Band (Grades 10-12), these two subjects are separated (Schoeman and Manyane: 2002).

1.3.1.1 History in the National Curriculum Statement

In the NCS History curriculum there are four learning outcomes that are prescribed in the subject statement, which is the History syllabus (DoE, 2003). These are:

(1) Enquiry Skills (Practical Competence), where learners are expected to raise questions about the past, identify issues relating to the past and use a range of enquiry skills in order to extract and organise evidence from a variety of historical sources of information. (2) Historical Concepts (Foundational Competence), where learners are expected to work progressively towards acquiring an informed understanding of key historical concepts as a way of analysing the past. (3) Knowledge Construction and Communication (Reflexive Competence), where learners are expected to work with and draw conclusions from a variety of forms of data, and synthesise information about the past in order to develop, sustain and defend an independent historical argument. (4) Heritage (Reflexive Competence), where a learner is expected to engage critically with issues of heritage. Assessment
standards are set out for each learning outcome in each grade, which will be an indication of whether the desired learning outcome in History has been achieved. These are supposed to be addressed in the taught and learnt curriculum.

Within the same package of guidance given to a teacher, the subject statement is further broken down into a document called the Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG) in the Further Education and Training Band (FET), which is comprised of grades 10-12. The LPG is a plan which assists teachers in their planning for sequenced learning, teaching and assessment in grade 10-12 so that all learning outcomes are achieved in a progressive manner (DoE, 2005). Another important document supplied to the educators is the Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG), which specifies what, when and how to assess. Implementation of NCS in the History curriculum means, among other things, the proper use of these documents as guidelines to assist teachers (Bertram, 2008).

Teachers were sent on a four-day training workshop on the implementation of the NCS in History for Grade 10, 11 and 12 in July 2006 (DoE, 2006). According to the Training Manual for History (DoE, 2006), this workshop concentrated on the planning of teaching than the content. The document further stated that, teachers were to be given support targeting subject-specific training, which was to address new content areas the district officials and Subject Advisors. It was claimed by teachers that this did not happen because there was no Subject Advisor for History in the district until the end of 2007 and, for almost three terms in 2008 there was a dispute between the department and the teachers’ union and schools were ‘no go’ areas for district officials.

Teachers raised concerns that they emerged from these workshops confused instead of gaining clarity on what exactly was to be done in class. Hence the teachers felt that they could not link the subject statement (syllabus) with the content and thus some of them could not progress in class. Du Plessis (2007), citing an expression by one teacher, calls this ‘microwave development’, where professional development is taken as an event that occurs in a particular day of the school year or over a two-week school holiday. This might be further aggravated by the fact that some teachers were, in the first place, not qualified or under-qualified to teach the
subject and, therefore, not conversant with the content (South African History Report (SAHR), 2000).

Additionally, teachers were asked to choose teaching materials they would like to use, according to the subject statements and their context, and requisitions were sent to schools for this purpose (DOE Circular No 7/2005 on Learning and Teaching Support Material). Book publishers went to schools and left samples of books from which the teachers could make a selection after which they ordered textbooks and learning-teaching material of their choice (Department of Education Requisition of Learning Teaching Support Material for Grade 10, 2005). However, there are concerns that some of the teachers do not use the learning materials they have ordered because they do not understand how to use those (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007). As a result they continue using old books and other materials despite the fact that they are teaching a new curriculum with a different orientation and objectives.

The History Assessment Guidelines for this new curriculum states clearly that there has to be continuous assessment (CASS) (SAG History 2007). This will give the educator a clear picture as to whether learning has taken place. In the new curriculum, assessment is not to be judgemental, but rather remedial (SAG). However, there are complaints by the DoE officials that some educators still use the old method of assessing which only requires the recalling of facts. The outcome of this is that when learners are assessed externally, according to the requirements of the NCS, they fail. This has been revealed in the District Analysis of Results for History, Grade 10, 2006, Grade 10&11 2007 and Grade 10-12 2008, (DoE, 2008). Hence, despite the above changes, performance in history remains poor (Manyane 1999). This is apparent despite the fact that history has been elevated to a higher status and is allocated more time. In light of the above information, it is evident that teachers have been trained and oriented into new ways of teaching and assessing the curriculum, however, they still lack the capacity to deliver the new history NCS curriculum. In addition, they are able to choose their own materials but they do not use this material opting to use old materials. These realities make it necessary to assess the implementation of the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools.
The study was conducted in the Fort Beaufort District. The district is located in one of the rural areas of the Eastern Cape, where most learners can spend up to a year without having been to town. Unemployment is rife and therefore some learners have to go to neighbours to watch television (Municipality Records, 2006-2008). Out of 46 schools with grade 11, 27 offer History. It is a vast district with only one subject advisor, who started working in June 2008, and between 1997 and 2008; the district had been operating without a subject advisor. During all these years, history has had poor results (Fort Beaufort District Analysis of Results, 2008). At school level, at time there is only one history educator, who has to teach history and other subjects as well, and because such teacher is overloaded may end up not doing justice to all his/her classes.

In the district, some of the educators have not specialised in teaching history, but have done it as a subject at high school level. In most cases, people who are supposed to be monitoring/supervising the work do not have any specialisation in history. For example, in some schools you will find the Head of Division is a Mathematics and Geography teacher and knows nothing about history. This results in her not monitoring at all or takes what I have done as being the right thing. Sometimes even if the teacher needs the support, the supervisor cannot offer the required support because s/he is not familiar with the contents of the subject. It is under these circumstances that the researcher seeks to assess the implementation of the History National Curriculum.

1.4 Statement of the problem

In order to meet the requirements of Learning Outcomes in History, learners have to be taught, among others, to question the past, use authentic sources, extract, analyse and synthesise information from sources (SAG, 2007). To achieve this, classroom activities need to be based on investigations, discussions and debates in class, language and communication skills and developing arguments supported by historical evidence. In order to meet the above outcomes the schools should have
professionally qualified and specialised History teachers who are able to interpret and implement the NCS History curriculum (DoE, 2003).

Despite the fact that educators received initial in-service training and textbooks have changed, there are concerns raised by some teachers ruling that they still lack the capacity to deliver the history curriculum (WCDOE, 2005), as they still use the old teaching methods. Moreover due to the lack of sound knowledge of the subject matter, of some educators choose the wrong Learning Teaching Material, as a result a number of textbooks remain unused in most school cupboards (Task Team on the Review of the National Curriculum Statement, 2009). Districts have to monitor and provide support to teachers but there have also been some concerns raised by principals and History teachers that most districts have staff shortages in education support services and there is also no capacity among many of the current staff (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002). Hence despite all the changes that have been introduced in terms of the content and delivery of the subject, History has not achieved the required outcomes (SAHR, 2000). It is under these circumstances that this study seeks to assess the implementation of the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools at Grade 11.

1.5 Research questions

1.5.1 Main Research Question

How is the History National Curriculum implemented in the Fort Beaufort High Schools?

1.5.2 Secondary Research Questions

i. What teaching methods are used by teachers in their implementation of the NCS History?

ii. What training have teachers received in order to implement the new history curriculum?

iii. Do teachers understand and use the Subject Guidelines?

iv. How do teachers select and use materials and resources?
v. What monitoring and support mechanisms are provided to teachers by the department and schools to enable them to implement the new history curriculum?

1.6 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to assess the implementation of the History National Curriculum in the Further Education and Training Band. Given the fact that the results have not improved since the apartheid system of education, the study seeks to assess whether there has been any change in the way in which history has been taught in schools during the implementation of NCS in History Curriculum.

1.7 Objectives of the study

The study seeks to assess:
1.5.1. Whether the methods used by teachers in implementing history are NCS compliant.
1.5.2. Whether teachers understand the Subject guidelines as guides to implementation.
1.5.3. Whether teachers know how to select and use relevant LTSM.
1.5.4. Whether there are any support and monitoring mechanisms offered by the schools and department to NCS History teachers in Grade 11.

1.8 Assumptions of the study

The researcher assumes that:
1.6.1. Teachers are not giving learners NCS related tasks.
1.6.2. Teachers are not using the relevant learning-teaching material.
1.6.3. There is no proper monitoring and support from the District office, and within the schools, offered to the NCS History teachers at Grade 11-level.
1.9 Significance of the study

The findings of the study would make the following contributions to education: Educational policy makers and planners of curriculum might be inspired to revisit issues raised in the study and incorporate some of the recommendations envisaged in it in the implementation and supervision of the new curriculum as a whole. It also serves to highlight the fact that, for any system to be successful, thorough training and empowerment of its implementers has to be undertaken. Furthermore, the study brings about awareness on the part of educators, that they also have a responsibility to move away from the narrow prescriptions of the past and to exploit the new opportunities that exist in the field. Curriculum improvement depends on teachers being more thoughtful about their work, thus they have to be change agents. Ross (2001) sees teachers as makers or breakers of implementation efforts and further adds that if they receive proper training to make it rather than break it, it would be fine.

1.10 Rationale for this study

The researcher knows for a fact that there were some aspects of the old History Syllabus that some teachers ignored. When the researcher was still at secondary school, she was never taught African History: the Scramble for Africa and the Decolonisation of Africa. She was only confronted with this aspect of History at tertiary institutions, and had to battle with it as she had no background/foundation of it. This study serves to highlight the gaps in the implementation of the NCS from the beginning so that the curriculum does not only look smart on paper, but as something that works. The researcher is of the view that it is educationally and morally incorrect to let things go on as in the past.

With regard to previous studies that deal with the implementation, Bertram (2006) conducted a study on how the new curriculum differs from its predecessor. She found out that the new curriculum, NCS, was totally different from the Interim core Syllabus, in that the NCS is learner-centred, whilst its predecessor was teacher-centred. This study in contrast looks at the implementation of the new curriculum. Other aspects of the curriculum, like assessment had also been looked into by Bertram (2008) in her research in KwaZulu-Natal Province. The researcher has not
identified any prior study that focuses on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum particularly in the rural context of South Africa. Other studies which have been conducted looked at the implementation of the OBE while those that focus specifically on History looked at the difference between History in the Interim Core Syllabus and History in the NCS in the Further Education and Training Band (Bertram, 2006). These studies did not look at variables such as teacher capacity, teacher support and how monitoring could facilitate or act as a barrier in implementing the NCS History in the Fort Beaufort High Schools or in the rural context.

It may be that NCS (History) is not clearly understood, interpreted and complied with across the district, because the interpretation varies from one school to another. If so, this will confirm the findings of a study conducted by Bertram (2006) on Knowledge, Pedagogy and Assessment in the old and the new Further Education and Training History Curriculum documents. According to the findings of that study, teachers interpret any curriculum document according to their own beliefs, their skills and their experience and the resources available. The study will help to demystify these misunderstandings. There may also be the issue of an attitude towards change in the education system. Some educators may be resistant, and some are confused about the number of programmes being introduced within a short space of time. If principles, processes and procedures are not adhered to, or if schools do not comply, there will be a significant impact on the results of the learners and the failure rate may escalate even further.

1.11 Delimitation of the study

The study focused on the implementation of the National Curriculum in History by Grade 11 teachers. The study was conducted in two circuits, 7 High Schools of the Fort Beaufort District and face-to-face interviews with 21 respondents, (3 NCS History teachers in Grade 11 and 18 NCS History grade 11 learners from three high schools), all from previously disadvantaged areas. The study participants included; Subject Advisors, HoDs, teachers and learners doing History subject in Grade 11.
1.11.1. Definition of terms

1.11.1.1 Assessment
Assessment is universally conceptualised as a process of which the quality of an individual’s achievement can be judged, recorded and repeated (Du Plessis et.al 2007). Assessment in this study meant finding the extent to which the History National Curriculum is being implemented in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools.

1.11.1.2 Implementation
Ham and Mill (1984) define implementation as those actions by the public or individuals, or groups that are directed at the achievement of the objectives set forth in prior policy decisions. Implementation, in this study refers to the role of teachers in Fort Beaufort district in delivering the History syllabus, as planned in the History Subject Statement, in the classroom.

1.11.1.3 History National Curriculum Statement
This is a government policy document that lays the foundation for the achievement of the goals stated in the constitution, stipulating Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards, and spelling out the key principles and values that underpin the curriculum (DOE 2003). This is an important document for this study as it provides a written curriculum for the implementation of the subject under analysis, which is further defined in the same document as the study of change and development over time and space.

1.11.2 Organization of the study
The study consists of six chapters as follows:

1.11.2.1 Chapter 1: The problem and the setting
This chapter discusses the background of the study, where stakeholder concerns and complaints regarding the implementation of NCS History curriculum are raised. This section further discusses the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, and it presents the research questions. The objectives, assumptions, significance and limitations of the study are also discussed in this chapter.
1.11.2.2. Chapter 2: Literature review
This chapter discusses the curriculum implementation models used in this study. It also discusses literature on issues such as: teacher capacity, selection of students learning materials of the NCS History curriculum, financial and material resources and monitoring support in the implementation of NCS History curriculum.

1.11.2.3. Chapter 3: Methodology
This chapter presents and justifies the research methodology used in the study. It also discusses the philosophical assumptions underlying various methodologies and the one in which the study is placed. The research design, population and sampling procedures, research instruments used to collect data and ethical considerations are discussed in this chapter.

1.11.2.4. Chapter 4: Data presentation, analysis and interpretation
In this chapter, the researcher presents and analyses all the data collected by means of questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis as well as observations. The data is presented using frequency tables.

1.11.2.5. Chapter 5: Discussion of findings
This chapter discusses the findings of the research. The discussion includes the comparison of the findings with the data found in the available literature. The objective of this chapter is to bring the findings into the fold of the existing knowledge of the implementation of the NCS History curriculum in Schools.

1.11.2.6. Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations
This chapter summarises the findings in relation to the problem, the methods used to reach the findings and how they relate to the research questions. Conclusions and recommendations reached, and their implications for policy makers as well as further research required in the area, will conclude the chapter and the study.

1.12. Summary
This chapter set out to outline the background to the study, discussing the differences in curriculum implementation before and after 1994. It also stated the problem as well as the research questions, the purpose, the objectives, the assumptions, the significance, the rationale and the delimitation of the study. It
further outlined the organisational structure of the study. The following chapter focuses on literature review as well as other studies conducted in relation to the research questions of this study.
Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

2.1 Introduction

The chapter begins by discussing curriculum, curriculum implementation and curriculum paradigms as well as the theories and models which underpin this study. The study will use the Rogan and Grayson (2003) implementation theory and the Change model of implementation to explain the data collected on the implementation of the NCS in History. This study will show how the theories and models apply to the implementation of NCS in History. In the chapter, the researcher will also review other studies within curriculum implementation and especially in the field of History. These studies will be used to explain and compare findings made by the researcher. The discussion in this chapter will focus on the following questions which guide this study:

1. How is NCS implemented in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools?

   The sub-questions to this main question are as follows:

   i. What teaching methods are used by teachers in their implementation of the History NCS?

   ii. What training have teachers received to implement the new History curriculum?

   iii. How do teachers select learning and teaching support materials?

   iv. Do teachers understand the Subject guidelines?

   v. What monitoring and support mechanisms are provided to teachers, by both the school and the district department of education, to enable teachers to implement the new History curriculum?

2.2 What is curriculum?

A curriculum is a ‘plan or programme of all experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of school’ (Tanner and Tanner, 1995). According to Gatawa (1990:158), it is ‘the totality of the experiences of children for which schools are responsible’. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2003) concur with this view, saying a
curriculum is ‘that which a student is supposed to encounter, study, practice and master...what students learn’. For others like Apple (2001) a curriculum outlines a ‘prescribed series of courses to take’.

2.3 Curriculum implementation

Curriculum implementation is a process “involving the reduction of the differences between the existing practice and practices suggested by the innovators or change agents” (Lorber 2009). It entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects (Commonwealth of Learning). In South Africa, the National Curriculum Statement was implemented to guide the education system of South Africa. This education policy is in line with the constitution of the country. The adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) provided for curriculum transformation and development, according to which the National Curriculum Statement Grades, 10-12 (General), was, formed (DoE, 2003). It is this policy that will be under scrutiny in the study.

Policy implementation is not a simple matter. Correct implementation strategies should be identified and used in order for implementation to be successful. Fataar (2006) elaborates on this view saying “policy implementation is much more demanding than policy formulation. Policy formulation does not come to an end once policy is set out or approved by decision makers, because it needs to be carried out by service providers”. Policy implementation involves putting what is on paper into action, hence, Van Niekerk, Van der Waldt and Jonker (2001) state that, the implementation phase entails translation of decisions into actions.

Curriculum is put into practice to achieve learning and knowledge, or experience, on the part of the learner. During this process the learner should acquire the planned and incidental experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling him/her to survive in his/her society. Wright (1991) supports this view by arguing that implementation is an attempt to put into operation the plan or intention embodied in the curriculum proposal.
While curriculum provides an overall plan handed down from the central control, which in the case of South Africa is by the Ministry of Education, the syllabus is a subject plan which provides guidance to the teacher regarding a particular subject in the curriculum. The syllabus refers to the breaking down of the curriculum proposal or plan into manageable topics and materials to be covered over a period of time (University of Zimbabwe, 2005). In the South African context, the new syllabus is known as a curriculum statement or policy document. Each subject has its own curriculum or subject statement with its own definition, purpose, scope, education career links, learning outcomes, assessment standards, content and contexts (DoE 2003). Understanding curriculum implementation is crucial to this study as this study focuses on the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in History Grade, 10-12 (General) and the factors that enhance or hinder such implementation.

### 2.4 Curriculum Implementation theories

Curriculum-related theories are developed after examining research, and can be used in order to develop models of change in an attempt to explain why some initiatives are less or more successful than others. This study will be guided by the theories of Rogan and Grayson (2003) on the Implementation of Curriculum and Fullan’s Curriculum Implementation Change Model. These models will be used to discuss the findings of this study.

**Rogan and Grayson’s (2003) implementation theory**

Rogan and Grayson’s (2003) theory was adopted in this study to explore how schools implement the History NCS in the History curriculum because it puts into consideration current realities that exist in different institutions of learning. There is diversity, in various institutions, created by different reasons such as funding policies of the past government and socio-economic conditions that exist in different communities. The theory builds on the strengths of various educational components present in the education system, such as teachers, learners and the school environment, in the implementation of curriculum.
The theory introduces three major constructs, namely; Profile of Implementation, Capacity to Support Innovation and Support from outside. The three constructs will be used to discuss information gathered on the implementation of the NCS History. These constructs attempt to look at whether the ideals of a set curriculum are put into practice (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). Firstly, the Profile of Implementation looks at what constitutes a good practice, that is, what teachers and learners do in class. It deals with coverage of learning areas, the nature of classroom interaction, examinations and practical/models made by students (curriculum issues). This refers to the interaction of students with teachers and their use of teaching strategies as well as the learning materials used to produce the desired learning outcomes. The quality of the product depends on the quality of the teachers, materials and student factors. Therefore, implementation of a new History curriculum involves a number of things and the course it may take is hardly predictable. The profile of implementation is important for this study as a theoretical framework because it will help the researcher in discussing classroom interaction between teachers and learners with regard to the implementation of the NCS History. It also gives room to discuss the teaching methods used by the teachers and class observation of such activities.

Secondly, the Capacity to Support Innovation in Rogan and Grayson’s model, attempts to “understand and elaborate on the factors that are able to support or hinder the implementation of new ideas in a school system” (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). The indicators of the Capacity to Support Innovation are grouped into four categories: physical resources, teacher factor, the learner factor and the school ecology and management which are the school discipline and tone. These may affect curriculum implementation. Capacity factors include teacher capacity, which refers to the teachers’ qualification, specialisation, the physical resources, that is, school infra-structure such as classrooms, libraries, furniture and other learning materials used by learners which are procured by parents and responsible authorities (Ottenvanger, 2002). It is necessary for schools to have adequate classrooms and materials for use by learners in History classes so that learners could have rooms where they can hold debates and group discussion even after school. Learner factors focus on attitude and class size, willingness to learn, background, the kind of strengths and constraints that learners might bring to the learning situation (Rogan & Grayson, 2003).
Another factor that can hinder or enhance innovation is the general ecology and management of the school. The school ethos and management are not the same, yet they are considered together as they are closely intertwined, particularly in schools in developing countries (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). If the school is in disarray and not functioning well, innovation cannot, or will not, be implemented. This could be determined by the qualification and experience of the school heads of departments. Research has also shown that the leadership role of the school head is critical in reform implementation (Rogan & Grayson, 2003)

Lastly, the Capacity to Support Innovation is useful in this study because it provides a guide to three most important aspects of the research, namely; physical resources, the teacher factor and the learner factor. This construct addresses three research questions:

i. How do teachers select learning teaching support material?

ii. What training have teachers received to implement the new History curriculum?

iii. How do learners perceive the implementation of History in the new curriculum?

Support by Outside Agencies in Rogan & Grayson’s model on curriculum implementation, focuses on the monitoring system, professional development provided by district education subject specialists to History teachers, and the provision of material resources from the district, parents and other stakeholders. The support from outside agencies describes the kinds of actions undertaken by outside organizations, such as the DoE and district subject specialist, to influence practices (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). The role of the subject specialist is to see that standards are maintained. They are there as quality assurance officers, to provide schools with expertise and professional development courses. In light of the information provided above, this theory will therefore assist the researcher in better understanding the implementation of the History NCS in schools in the Eastern Cape, more specifically, Fort Beaufort. Another implementation theory that will be used in this study is the Educational Change model which will be used to complement Rogan & Grayson’s model on curriculum implementation. This framework is discussed in the following section.
2.5 Educational Change Model as an Implementation model

Just as schools differ from one another, so do notions of how to bring about changes within schools. Current efforts to implement the NCS in the History curriculum are based on the assumption that all schools are essentially the same and will therefore benefit from the same kind of in-service training (INSET) and implementation strategy.

People who wish to implement the new curriculum need to understand the characteristics of change being considered. In Table 2.1 below Fullan (1991) discusses key factors of change that affect implementation.

Table 2.1: Factors Affecting Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Characteristics of the change</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Need for and relevance of the change</td>
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<td>2. Clarity.</td>
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<td>3. Complexity.</td>
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<td>4. Quality and practicality of program.</td>
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<td>B. Characteristics at the school district level.</td>
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<td>5. History of innovative attempts.</td>
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<td>6. Adoption process.</td>
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<td>7. Central administrative support and involvement.</td>
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<td>8. Staff development (in-service and participation).</td>
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<td>9. Timeline and information systems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Board and community characteristics.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C. Characteristics at the school level.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Principal characteristics and leadership.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Teacher characteristics and relations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Student characteristics and needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D. Characteristics external to the local system.</td>
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<td>15. External funds.</td>
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</table>
In the Educational Change model, Fullan (1991) states that when implementing change one has to look for the characteristics of change. The implemented programme should be seen as relevant by the people who implement it and it should have clear goals and objective. People should understand it.

In addition, innovation should consider the characteristics of the district level, that is, who are the people to implement it and what support will they need (Fullan, 1991). The model further states that staff development (in-service training) is of great importance to people who will be implementing innovation as well as the time frames for implementation. The information systems involved in the implementation process are very important to facilitate change and make sure that information on the implementation of change reaches the implementers in good time.

Fullan’s (1991) model also considers characteristics at the school level. It considers things such as principal characteristics and leadership, teacher characteristics and relations among teachers. This includes teachers’ qualifications, motivation and level of understanding. The model also considers learners’ characteristics and needs. This includes their background, level of understanding as well as their motivation to learn (Fullan, 1991).

The researcher used the following aspects of Fullan’s model of change to discuss the data gathered. The characteristics of change are considered relevant since the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum is an innovation. This will assist the researcher in understanding how NCS History is implemented. The characteristics of implementation at district level were used to discuss how the District Subject Advisors monitor, give support and conduct in-service training given to the History teachers. This will assist them in implementing NCS in the History curriculum.

The characteristics at school level which comprise teacher’s knowledge and subject content as well as their specialisation were used to assess and analyse the data.
related to the qualifications of teachers, experience, specialisation and their teaching approaches. The researcher also explored the support given by HoDs to teachers in the History department. The level of understanding of change in the new History syllabus by teachers was assessed. This model also assists in the analysis of data on the training received by these teachers in preparation for implementation of the NCS History. External characteristics to the local system, such as the National Department of Education, were also be adopted to help bring insight into the nature of assistance it provides to schools in terms of physical material and the Learner Teacher Support Materials (LTSM) in the NCS History.

2.6 Other Studies Conducted in Assessing the Implementation of Curriculum

This section concentrates on what other researchers have unearthed regarding the factors that affect the implementation of the NCS in History as guided by the research questions. The studies reviewed include those that have examined the teacher factor, that is the training they have received as implementers of the new curriculum, teaching methods that the teachers use to implement curriculum, learner teacher support material, support that teachers receive from both the district and on-site.

2.7.1 The Teacher Factor

2.7.1.1 Professional Qualifications of Teachers

The capacity of teachers is determined by their qualifications, experience and ability to communicate. Teachers must be central to any curriculum improvement (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Giroux (2005) argues that teachers are integral to the thinking that drives programme creation and implementation. They are directly involved with the implementation in the classroom. Giroux further postulates that teachers possess clinical expertise. As Campbell indicates, curriculum expectations emerge from their capabilities to enact curricular and pedagogic actions “with discretion, judgement and proficiency” (Summers in Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009: 342).

Although teachers do not usually initiate change, they have been identified as the key agents of change, as they have to implement curriculum reforms in their
classrooms and reinterpret the curriculum (Hoadley & Jansen 2010). Successful implementation of the new History curriculum and high quality of learning depends primarily on the capabilities of teachers and the effectiveness of the school system. Du Plessis (2005) posits that, should teachers not be trained in the curriculum and the implementation at classroom level is not supported, there will be little achievement regarding the high expectations of reform. It can therefore be observed that there is a need for History teachers to be trained in order to possess the right skills and qualifications. Brandy (1995) further adds that OBE will be unsuccessful if there is not appropriate, good quality training of educators. Malada (2005) supports this view by citing a number of authors, like Kelly (1997), and Mokaba (2005) who argue that whatever the quality of the curriculum itself is, its success depends largely on teacher quality.

According to Heck (2007), teaching quality refers not only to the teachers’ credentials, but also to the perspective teachers bring to the classroom, the instructional strategies that they use, and the surrounding organization of the school and community. Another study by Okoye, Momoh, Aigbomian and Okecha (2008), shows that the combined variables of teacher quality and instructional strategies are correlated with student achievement. Torff (2005) purports that lack of pedagogical skill and knowledge is a bigger threat to teacher quality than are certification issues.

Berliner (2005) describes teacher quality as a teacher who shows evidence of certain qualities of teaching in the lives of students. These qualities include more than assessing knowledge on a certification test. Teacher qualities must include: the logical acts of teaching ((i) defining, (ii) demonstrating, (iii) modelling, (iv) explaining, correcting, etc.); the psychological acts of teaching ((i) caring, (ii) motivating, (iii) encouraging, (iv) rewarding, (v) punishing, (vi) planning, (vii) evaluating, etc.); and the moral acts of teaching (showing honesty, courage, tolerance, compassion, respect, fairness, etc. (Berliner, 2005:206)

Teachers differ in many respects, including their qualification, expectations, values, work ethics and their experiences. Teacher education must be determined by acquisition of a general professional education and a specialised education in a given subject matter. Almost all teaching candidates must have experience in these
areas to be certified as teachers (Siedentop, 1990). Hardman (2008) concurs that generally, a bachelor’s degree or a diploma is the prerequisite for teaching History. A teaching degree and diploma qualification are usually acquired at universities and colleges of education. This, according to the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), will put such a person between National Qualification Framework (NQF) Levels 5-8. This qualification requirement is also confirmed by the South African Council of Educators (DoE, 2000).

For the History curriculum to be properly implemented, teachers should be professionally qualified. Studies by Husen, Saha and Nooman, cited in Psacharopaulos and Woodhall (1985), reveal that the quality of teachers is another vital determinant of pupil performance. Laukkanen (2008) posits that in order to cope with learner diversity, a teacher has to be a highly educated pedagogical expert. This means that for History teachers to deliver in terms of the history curriculum they should be specialists.

As far back as 2002, the findings of the South African History Project (SAHP) from workshops held in various provinces, articulated that the majority of History teachers were either unqualified or under qualified. It is against this backdrop that this study seeks to find whether this situation still prevails.

According to Rogan and Grayson (2003), there are factors which influence whether teachers change and how fast they change; such as the teachers’ content knowledge and training. If teachers are well trained to do their job, they will be able to accept any change that will enhance the teaching of their subject. Empirical evidence from a study by Bajah (1991), cited in Phakisi (2008), indicated that well-trained teachers are better able to understand the complex structure of their curriculum, while it can be confusing to under qualified teachers. Thus, teacher development in the implementation of the new curriculum in South Africa is very important. Glatthorn et al (2006) put forward a clear plan for effective implementation starting with what they called the initiation stage. They posit that the initiation stage is the period of time when the new curriculum is first introduced to teachers and used in the classroom. They maintain that providing the required staff development for those who will be initiating the project is important. It has to be observed that teachers
were to be in-serviced in line with the implementation of the new History curriculum. Hence the researcher will look at teacher in-service training.

2.7.1.2. *In-service training of History teachers*

In-service education/training means the development of the individual which arises from the whole range of events and activities by which serving teachers can extend their academic or practical education and their professional competence (Phakisi, 2008). The need for in-service education has become widely accepted when changes in curriculum or a teachers’ role are involved (Adams 2001). The importance of in-service education and continued professional development for the teaching profession is increasingly acknowledged in countries throughout the world (Fraser, Kennedy, Reid L & McKinney (2007). Glatthorn et al. (2006) propose that staff development sessions should give teachers who will be issuing the new programme complete information about the specific changes they expect. They cited an example of research findings, by Herriot and Cross (2001,) where they found that many innovations were not successfully implemented because teachers never fully understood the nature of change. They further argue that in-service training should focus on giving the users of the new programme specific assistance in translating curriculum development into instructional plans. Finally the staff development session should help teachers to improve their use of the instructional skills that the new curriculum requires (University of Zimbabwe, 2000).

Chisholm (2005) argues that the implementation of OBE rests upon adequately prepared teachers, who are motivated to teach and are supported in their work. Teachers can only be committed and motivated to do their work if they have been adequately trained and know exactly what is expected of them in class. According to the Western Cape DoE (2005), the national DoE had the following arrangement for the introduction of the National Curriculum Statement:

The curriculum will be phased in incrementally and systematically over three years; into Grade 10 in 2006, Grade 11 in 2007 and Grade 12 in 2008. All grade 10 educators will attend at least five days of intensive training for the implementation of the new
It is clear from the above plan that the national DoE planned to have an intensive training of the staff for the implementation of OBE and the NCS in schools, but the time that was allocated for the training of teachers was seemingly insufficient. Chisholm (2004) has this to say about what she calls ‘OBE training’:

Given the very short time between finalisation of the curriculum and its implementation, the National Department of Education and its various counterparts had no choice but to provide crash-course training for teachers. The model adopted was one that sought to cascade the training down through the system (p.200).

The cascade model which Chisholm (2004) talks about implies that a group of people are trained, who in turn are expected to train others. Chisholm (2004) further says that the cascade model itself had problems since many of the teachers who were trained at the top of the cascade were not sufficiently equipped to replicate the training within their districts and schools. The researcher is concerned whether new History teachers have received any training considering the above situation, or whether the serving teachers were prepared for the implementation of the new curriculum. Du Plessis et al. (2007) posit that there is always a problem with the cascade model of training newly qualified teachers. Ramphasard (2000) concurs with Du Plessis et al. (2007) when he states that the cascade training model resulted in information being diluted as it was transmitted from the National to the school level. This resulted in confusion, lack of adequate information and the selective interpretation of information.

From the National DoE plan, it is evident that there would be short courses conducted to train educators to implement the new curriculum, which were insufficient for deeper knowledge of such a complex policy. This short-course type of training is what Le Grange and Reddy (2000) cited in Malada (2005) refers to as the ‘hit and run’ strategy. Such courses do not allow for follow-up meetings or training to make sure that what was initiated is implemented as well as the problems that the implementers may have in the course. A study conducted by De Feiter and Ncube
(1999) on the Implementation of Educational Innovation provided a similar view by indicating that teachers had received short in-service training to inform them of innovation in the form of workshops which have very little impact on their classroom practice.

McLaughlin (2002) argues that the training of principals and educators in the new curriculum is deemed ineffective if it is concentrated and scheduled to take the form of what he called ‘once-off’ training. He further remarks that the advantage of such training is, lower costs, however, it does not address the critical fact that teachers cannot know what they ought to know. Ramphasard (2000) supports this view saying that the ‘once-off’ workshops which appeared to be wide-spread did not have the desired impact in terms of curriculum dissemination; that the training that was designed to empower the person to effect changes at the school has actually created a somewhat dysfunctional situation.

Almost immediately after the introduction of the curriculum, it was criticised for being too elaborate, in that it involved new unnecessarily complex terminology and depended on poorly trained and already overworked educators for its implementation (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2008). The curriculum was then revised and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS Grades R-9) as well as the National Curriculum Statement (NCS Grades 10-12) was the result of the revision (DoE, 2000). Teachers were retrained in the use of this new curriculum and the terminology was revised (Chisholm: 2005). However teachers still complain in the subject meetings about the type of training they have received even after the revision. Hence the researcher intends to investigate in this study, whether the same situation prevails in History?

Rault-Smith (2008) and Jansen (1999) support the view of the OECD (2008) when they argue that there was an assumption by the education planners, that teachers were competent and skilled in their profession and would respond enthusiastically to the development of skills in order to deliver the new curriculum. It was assumed that they would have the capacity and desire to acquire the theoretical understanding necessary to transfer the policy across different contexts. Rault-Smith adds that this has proved not to be the case and with increasing frequency, the gaps in the
knowledge and skills of teachers (as a result the poor education and training they received) are being revealed. She concludes by saying that, without intense intervention at the classroom level, OBE could become a mechanical model of behaviourism in the majority of South African classrooms.

Gulting, Hoadley and Jansen (2002), hold a similar view when they maintain that ‘one-shot’ training heavily concentrated at the beginning of the project was not effective. The findings of Motseke’s (2005) study entitled; OBE: Implementation Problems in the Black Townships of South Africa, indicate that the majority of his respondents who had received their professional training felt that it did not prepare them for OBE, because the government’s workshops were (i) too short (few hours or days, at most one week); (ii) too theoretical (only lecturing in one big venue, no demonstrations); and (iii) too late (in some instances up to three months after the induction/implementation).

A study conducted by Ramphasard (2000) on ‘A Strategy for Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development: Gauteng Department of Education’ revealed that, in order for the teachers to be fully involved in the curriculum implementation, the department needs to conduct a massive in-service training (INSET) on the curriculum implementation process. In the case of South African education, both changes have taken place, that is, the change from the apartheid education system to the OBE approach as well as the changing role of a the teacher from being the transmitter of knowledge to being the facilitator of learning activities. It is evident, therefore, that teachers in South Africa need in-service training to develop themselves further for the deeper understanding of the National Curriculum Statement and its underlying approach, OBE. Adam (1995) argued that this responsibility for serving teachers’ professional growth must be shared by the teacher him/herself, by his/her senior and his/her employers.

In History, as far back as 2001, the South African History and Archaeology Report (SAHR), recommended that a specialised in-service training programme for History teachers be offered by colleges of education and universities, guided by the principles of the discipline and by utilisation of the skills and proficiencies of an OBE
approach to teaching. However, even before this new approach to History teaching was implemented, there were evident problems with the training of teachers for implementing the new NCS. Teachers were trained when the NCS was phased in at Grade 10 in 2006. What this study seeks to establish is whether the type of training that teachers received was the one recommended by the SAHR as some teachers are still complaining about the ineffectiveness of the training during the subject meetings.

A study by Stein and Wang (1988) shows that teachers can successfully implement required changes if they are given appropriate training which provides the necessary knowledge and skills development. Training also helps to foster teachers’ interests and commitment to continue using the gained expertise.

Seleti (2002) maintains that the project on managing the transition in education aimed at training teachers to be better managers in the classroom further reinforced the view that the skills gap among teachers could be serious and could affect the transition. Furthermore, he observed that the available time was also limited and might not be sufficient for the training of grade 10 educators on OBE approaches. Seleti (2002), therefore concludes that, the time frames for the implementation of the programme were very tight and the training of teachers for implementing, would be a provincial competence. This study takes this discussion further and investigates the training provided to History teachers by the Eastern Cape Province and the Fort Beaufort District to enable them to implement the NCS.

2.7.2. Learner Factors
Learners are also a critical element in curriculum implementation. While teachers are arbiters of classroom practice, learners hold the key to what is actually transmitted and adopted from the official curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). The official curriculum can be quite different from the curriculum that is actually implemented (Commonwealth of Education, 2000). The learner factor influences teachers in their selection of learning experiences, hence the need to consider the diverse characteristics of learners in curriculum implementation (University of Zimbabwe, 2000). For example home background and learner ability can determine what is actually achieved in the classroom. This study therefore seeks to ascertain what the
learners’ perceptions are towards the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. It also establishes what learners are able to learn from what is taught by teachers as well as the challenges that they come across as they try to learn the NCS in History.

2.7.2.1. Learners’ perceptions in the Implementation of the NCS

Educational practitioners and researchers realise that learners possess unique perspectives of their own learning and on the nature and purpose of their schooling (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). In light of the demands of the new curriculum, it is important for curriculum leaders to maintain a clear focus on the student as a learner. The requirements of the NCS and the associated testing, may lead to a relative neglect of the broader aspect of learners at the expense of attention given to products instead of measurable performance in prescribed subjects. According to the National Curriculum, learners are to be at the centre of all learning activities. The Critical Outcomes state clearly what is required of a learner and what s/he should be able to (DoE, 2003):

Identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking, work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community, organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively, collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information, communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various models, use science and technology effectively showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others, and, demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation (Pg. 2)

Based on the Critical Outcomes nationally, the NCS History has the following Critical Outcomes for learners who study History NCS History Subject Statement, DoE (2003):

i. Young people who are independent thinkers, open-minded, good at problem solving, able to pick out essential from the trivial.
ii. Young people, who are able to assemble, organise and present information and opinions.

iii. Young people who understand the roles and responsibilities of citizens in a democratic South Africa and the values of democracy, equality, and human dignity, social and environmental dignity.

Van Niekerk and Killen (2000), concur by positing that the ultimate purpose of education is to perform complex tasks consistently well learners’ everyday lives. However, OBE and the NCS have brought with them a large volume of work. Learners are used to being spoon-fed by teachers and now that they have to do the reading, research, discussions and other work themselves, they complain about teachers not doing their work (OECD, 2008). The effect of the school curriculum on learners should bring about a desirable, positive change. If learners have a negative attitude towards the planned and deliberate learning experiences in the curriculum, the teachers’ objectives cannot be realised. It can be determined from the above statement that teachers have influence on the attitudes of their learners.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) argue that for learners to be involved in implementation, they must see the relevance of the new programme and feel that they truly have influence. Fielding (1997), cited in Bush and Bell (2007), supports this view by positing that a ‘transformative approach to student participation, where their involvement is a routine and normal part of the school life is important.

Bush and Bell (2007) further put forward the following as the main aspects of the effective dimension of learners in curriculum implementation:

i. Preferred learning styles. Young people have different learning styles. It is important for curriculum managers and teachers to review learners’ learning styles and consider the implication of how learners are grouped and how teaching methods and learners’ activities address the range of preferred learning styles.

ii. Learners’ attitudes towards school. It is important for curriculum managers and teachers to develop strategies to engage learners to plan and offer learning experiences that learners perceive as relevant to their own needs.
iii. Student motivation. Curriculum managers and teachers need to explore how to help learners to become more highly activated and engaged in their work. The issues mentioned above are vital to the implementation of the History curriculum because educators have to consider learners needs and attitudes and vary their teaching methods accordingly. Teachers have to consider learners’ individual differences when planning and delivering their lessons. Some learners prefer to learn by doing something, like in the History grade 10 syllabuses, where they are required to make models as part of the assessment (History LPG, 2007). If this is the way they would be involved in learning, the teachers and curriculum managers have to encourage it.

The second aspect that Bush and Bell (2007) put forward is that it is important for teachers to plan activities that will encourage learners to come to class and be engaged in the implementation of the curriculum. Even in the case of the NCS History curriculum, learners can be encouraged by engaging them in activities which they might like. For example, learners may go out to visit heritage sites. Other activities include what Adendorff, Gulting and Mason (2001) refer to as ‘negotiating the curriculum’ where learners are allowed to use even their language to discuss issues in their groups, thus giving them freedom of communication.

Perception on the implementation of curriculum can be influenced by a lot of factors, some being classroom-based, and society-based as well as personal (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2009). According to a study conducted by Rex and Singh (2003), on Inclusion of Learners, it was revealed that negative attitudes of parents are a major barrier to inclusion and children do not have attitudes until adults show them. Therefore, parents and teachers have great influence on what children learn and as such those attitudes held by parents and teachers can affect children. Therefore, if teachers have negative attitudes towards NCS History, their learners will also have a negative attitude.

Nevertheless, learners’ perceptions can be influenced by the job opportunities the studied areas offer. This is confirmed by Goodwin (1994). African students developed influence for studying academic subjects, because they were more likely to get a job with attractive career prospects in the country’s formal sector. Therefore, if the History curriculum offers better job opportunities for learners they would have a
positive attitude towards it. The use of child centred approaches by educators could influence learners' attitudes towards learning History (Nieman and Monyai, 2007). As active participants, they are likely to greet the implemented curriculum with interest and enthusiasm. The interest of learners can also be cultivated through the use of relevant learner-teacher support material (Ottenvanger, 2002).

2.7.3. Material Resources
Learning and teaching support materials are all the materials that a teacher uses in class and those which are used by learners in the classroom (LPG, 2007). It has been argued that for any officially designed curriculum to be fully implemented per plan, the government should supply schools with adequate resource materials. These include materials such as textbooks, teaching aides, maps charts and many others (as well as stationery) in order to enable teachers and learners to play their roles satisfactorily, in the curriculum implementation process (Ottenvanger, 2002). The implementation of the History NCS meant that the publication of textbooks had to be aligned with the NCS. Currently, all publishers who publish History school textbooks and a variety of educator support materials have to comply with the NCS (OECD, 2008).

Teacher support materials serve as a compass that gives teachers direction on how to enact the curriculum (Schneider and Krajcik, 2002). According to Collopy (2003), teacher support materials are an integral part of the teacher's daily work as they support classroom instruction. Stronkhorst and van den Akker (2006) point out that curriculum material can play an important role in implementation as they clarify the implication of innovation. Suitable policy documents, textbooks and teachers’ guides can provide support for teachers, but policy documents are often more accessible for teachers than the other two resources. According to Jita (1988), cited in Phakisi (2008), carefully constructed syllabus documents make teachers’ work easier, facilitating changes in schools. In a study conducted by van den Akker and Kernstein (1994) it was found that the use of ‘specially designed teacher materials with concrete procedural suggestions’ on how to execute the innovation played an important role as they led to a higher degree of implementation.
The textbook is still a valuable resource used in the class since the apartheid era in South Africa; the difference with the NCS is that teachers have to choose which textbook they would like their learners to use, and are not given the textbook by an authority. Glatthorn et al. (2006), however, suggests that teachers be guided to review and select materials, they suggest that this should be done by a task team. They call such a committee the ‘adoption committee’, which should be trained in the following skills: (i) understanding the broad policy and district procedures; (ii) maintaining an ethical and professional relationship with the publishers; (iii) understanding current research in the field and teacher needs; (iv) evaluating materials and (v) monitoring the implementation and use of instructional material. Du Plessis et al. (2007) suggest the following questions as a checklist to consider when selecting and evaluating LTSM:

Is there evidence in the material that the National Curriculum Statement has been used to guide and design the material? Or have the publisher changed the cover and made some cosmetic changes? How do the materials help you to achieve the teaching and learning outcomes? Does the material offer up-to-date information, accepted theory and relevant methods? What activities can your learners do when they use the material? What skills will these activities help learners to develop? How will the material help to make your learner’s school experience enjoyable and challenging? Is there teacher support material available? Is the language level of the material suitable for your learners? In what way is the material relevant to your learners’ lives? Could you adapt it to be more relevant? (p. 170)

Furthermore the DoE had also issued some guidelines on how the LTSM was to be selected. These were the guiding principles for choosing textbooks as provided by the DoE (2003).
### Table 2.2 Guiding criteria for FET subjects from the National Department of Education

#### GUIDING CRITERIA FOR FET SUBJECTS: ALL SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION 1: CONTENT/CONTEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 The textbook covers all the Learning Outcomes (LOs) and the Assessment Standards (Ass) of the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 The textbook covers the suggested content and this is appropriately sequenced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 The content is suitably paced and the weighting of LOs is appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 The content is current and up-to-date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 The content places learning in context i.e. integrates Assessment Standards within the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 The content is appropriately scaffolded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 There is clear integration of theory and applied competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 The content is sensitive to diversity e.g., culture, religion, gender, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 The textbook provides a variety of meaningful activities for individuals, pairs and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10 The level of the content is appropriate for the specific grade.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.11 The language used and vocabulary are appropriate for the grade and language level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.12 Key concepts and terms are clearly defined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.13 The language and vocabulary are correct and appropriate for the subject.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SECTION 2: LEARNING ACTIVITIES & ASSESSMENT

| 2.1 Learning activities and assessment tasks are derived from Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs). |
| 2.2 The textbook presents the learner with learning and assessment activities appropriate to the subject |
| 2.3 Assessment tasks are aligned to the Programme of Assessment as described in the Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG). |
| 2.4 A variety of learning activities and assessment tasks are used. |
| 2.5 Learning and assessment targets learner achievement at different levels of complexity. |
| 2.6 Learning and assessment tasks are clearly formulated and unambiguous. |
| 2.7 Assessment tasks and learning activities provide for daily assessment. |
| 2.8 Learning and assessment tasks allow for expanded opportunities for learners. |
| 2.9 Learning activities and assessment tasks are appropriately scaffolded. |
| 2.10 Assessment activities reflect the integration of Assessment Standards (ASs). |

#### SECTION 3: LAYOUT, DESIGN AND OVERALL QUALITY

| 3.1 The text is structured, using headings and subheadings. |
| 3.2 The font and typeface are clear and easy to read. |
| 3.3 The illustrations and diagrams are clear and relevant, without bias. |
| 3.4 The paper is of a good quality and bound securely.¹ |
| 3.5 The textbook has table of contents with clear reference to chapters and page numbers. |
SECTION 4: TEACHER GUIDE

4.1 Provides clear and systematic guidance on the use of the textbook.

4.2 Provides examples of a work schedule which speaks to the content, sequence and pace of the Learner’s Book.

4.3 Includes an exemplar assessment plan for the grade which speaks to the formal assessment tasks in the Learner’s Book.

4.4 Provides memoranda, check lists, rubrics, etc. that match the assessment tasks in the textbook.

4.5 Provides suggested answers/solutions/memoranda/assessment tools for learning activities/exercises.

SECTION 5 – SUBJECT SPECIFIC ISSUES

HISTORY

5.1 The textbook provides learners with guidance of how to:

• Identify, select and access relevant sources of information

• Extract information from sources

• Analyse, interpret and evaluate information and data

• Engage with and analyse historical sources.

5.2 All sources of illustrations, diagrams, cartoons must be fully acknowledged as the acknowledgement also provides information needed

5.3 Topics are framed using key questions.

5.4 Organising themes of content are recognisable.

5.5 The volume of content suggested is appropriate for the 4 hours per week allocated to the subject.

(Adopted from the DoE Guidelines on the Selection of LTSM, 2003: 28)

If the LTSM chosen does not address the issues above, the new innovation may have a problem of implementation. Phakisi (2008), citing Carless (1997) maintains that if materials are not of good quality or do not accurately reflect the principles of innovation, their production may be counter-productive. The DoE had issued some advice on how to choose LTSM before the implementation of the NCS, saying that the best way for the teacher to get what s/he wants is to plan before choosing the resources, research texts and policy documents as part of the planning process (DoE 2002). This view is supported by the HSRC (2005) which claims that teachers have to know how they will make use of the material, whether such material will be used chiefly to teach skills and concepts or to provide guided and independent learning. The danger of planning ‘through’ the material is, according to Wright (1991), that the textbook will be taken as the ‘master’, there will be little room for improvisation and everything will be predetermined. Hence, Glatthorn et al. (2006)
suggest that teachers be trained in the use of resource materials to ensure that it correlates with the curriculum before schools begin. This was suggested by the National LTSM Consultative Forum as early as 2000; that teachers be trained in evaluation, selection and use of the LTSM (National LTSM Consultative Forum, 2000). If this does not take place, the material would stay dusty in the school cupboards, as reported by HSRC (2005) where a significant number of teachers in the Eastern Cape said they found the material in the textbook difficult to explain to learners. In light of this, this study seeks to establish how teachers select and use the LTSM to implement the NCS in History.

According to the Commonwealth of Education (2000), the central government must also provide physical facilities such as classrooms, laboratories, workshops, libraries and sports fields in order to create an environment in which implementation can take place. The availability and quality of resource material and the availability of appropriate facilities have a great influence on curriculum implementation.

2.7.4. Curriculum Issues

2.7.4.1 Planning of History lessons

Planning is one of the most important pillars of any implementation plan. There is a common saying that ‘if you fail to plan you plan to fail’. Without a plan the teacher will not have focus on what exactly is to be done in the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. Within a child-centred approach, the nature of planning of the teacher changes (Schoeman & Manyane, 2002). Firstly, the curriculum and instruction are organised around the learner’s progress towards national standards (Bradfield-Kreider, 1998). Child-centred approaches to learning need more time for both planning and implementation. This view is supported by Gore (2001), who argues that despite the extra time used for initial planning and resource gathering, a child-centred approach provides opportunities for teachers and learners to create powerful learning environments.
Curriculum innovation in South Africa has provided a planning document together with the Subject Statement called the Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG). The LPG is a tool to plan sequenced learning teaching and assessment across Grades 10-12 so that all four Learning Outcomes in History are achieved in a progressive manner (DoE, 2005).

This study seeks to determine whether History teachers do any planning as suggested in the Learning Programme Guidelines, because if they do not plan what to teach the implementation of the plans of innovation in the NCS History will not take place. This is in line with one of the sub-questions which seek to assess which teaching methods NCS History teachers are using in their teaching of the new curriculum.

2.7.4.2. Teaching Methods

The definition of curriculum implementation by Taylor and Henry (2007) is quite explicit. It spells out teachers’ roles in curriculum implementation and development by stating that:

The curriculum is a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities for persons to be educated. Plans have no impact until they are set in motion. Thus learning remain only opportunities until learners become involved with them (Taylor & Henry, 2007: 10).

Osokoye (1996), cited in Asikhia (2010) concurs with Taylor by viewing a teaching method as a strategy or plan that outlines the approach that a teacher intends to take in order to achieve the desirable objectives. He argues that teaching methods involve the way a teacher organises and uses techniques of subject matter, teaching tools and teaching materials to meet teaching objectives. Without instruction, which Taylor and Henry (2007) define as the actual engagement with planning learning opportunities, the curriculum has no impact. Thus the expected position and behaviour of the educator is emphasised in curriculum implementation.

The Curriculum Statement document (2003), states clearly the kind of educator that the country envisages: that all educators are key contributors to the transformation of education in South Africa. It further states that they are to fulfil the various roles outlined in the Norms and Standards for Educators document, which includes being
mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of Learning Programmes and materials (DoE, 2003). Du Plessis et al. (2007) define a mediator as someone who is in the middle of two things, usually a neutral person. A mediator therefore is expected to act as an intermediary, communicate effectively, resolve conflicts, show understanding of diversity and bring about change.

OBE regards learning as essentially an interactive process between and among educators and learners with the educator acting as a facilitator. The focus is on what the learners should know and do. Meir (2000) marks this as a learner-centred approach. He adds that this is one of the pillars of OBE which replaced the ‘chalk and talk’, or teacher centred, approach of apartheid education. The implication for teaching, according to Moll (2002), is that knowledge is not transmitted from the educator to the learner; it is constructed by the learner when s/he engages in the culture of learning at school. This is what he calls the constructivist approach of learning.

According to Schoeman and Manyane (2002), outcomes-based History teaching goes beyond memory-based repetition as it has some affinity with the work that historians do. That is, it sets out to investigate and discover a spectrum of voices, verifies arguments, stimulates debate, communicates ideas, engages such skills as extrapolation, judgement, comparison, empathy, and synthesis and fosters comprehensive reading and writing skills. Its most important features are those activities associated with the active life of the classroom, namely: reasoning, problem-solving, retrieval, comprehension and use of information, relating learning to existing knowledge, belief and attitudes as well as thoughtful reflection on experience (DoE Western Cape, 2000)

This does not mean that the educator has no role to play in the learning of his/her learners. Brophy and Allenman (1991) argue that certain roles and functions are basic to teaching, whatever grade, level or subject matter: managing the classroom and motivating learners, presenting information and demonstrating procedures, asking questions and engaging learners in content-related discourse, developing understanding through learning activities, providing for practice and application opportunities through additional activities and assignments, structuring activities and
assignments for learners and scaffolding their progress on them and assessing their work. Jansen (1999) supports this view by citing an undated document of the DoE, which states that, teaching and learning are the responsibility of the educator and must reflect the outcome. The teacher is not seen as instructor of passive learners or a reference or an authority of any particular subject matter. His/her job is to arrange proceedings in such a way that learning is encouraged and made easier.

In policy documents from the DoE, there are no specific instructions that tell educators which methods or media to use in any lesson. It is the teacher’s professional responsibility to decide on the appropriate strategy. What the OBE stresses, as mentioned earlier in this section, is the learner’s participation in all teaching and learning activities as the only way in which learners can attribute meaning to their own learning. It must be remembered that learners will not all learn equally and effectively through the same methods, hence Jacob, Vakalisa and Gawе (2004), state that the educator has to be flexible and from time to time experiment with different teaching methods. This view is supported by Van Niekerk and Killen (2004) who state that teachers should vary the circumstances and methods of instruction to suit the learning they want to occur.

The choice of a method is strongly influenced by the contextual analysis; hence Chapter 3 of the History Policy Document deals with Learning Outcomes, Assessment Standards, Content and Contexts (DoE, 2003). It further states that the educator should be aware of and use local contexts, not necessarily indicated, which could be more suited to the experiences of the learner. This means that history teachers are to embed the material into situations which are meaningful to the learner. This view is supported by Jacob et al, (2004) who argue that the use of teaching methods such as play, conversation, demonstration and doing assignments attempt to link the formal environment of the school with the informal teaching learning environment. Some well-known methods are: group work, question-and-answer, role play, brainstorming, experiments and games (Vakalisa et al, 2004). Below is a table of what the learning programme suggests as teaching strategies.
### Table 2.2: Teaching Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of teaching Skills</th>
<th>Features of Skill Acquisition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cognitive Skills</td>
<td>Teacher makes reference to aspects of content that provide foundational knowledge, skills acquisition and applied competences that impact on Historical actions and events, e.g. Acts, policies necessary for foundational knowledge etc. Source-based knowledge necessary for skills acquisition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Relational Skills</td>
<td>Teacher reinforces skills that learners have developed in interpreting key aspects, themes or events in History in terms of their commonalities and differences. Teachers relate different seemingly disparate sections of the curriculum to prevent discontinuity of thought, skill application etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mediation Skills</td>
<td>Teacher mediates the curriculum in terms of key periods of historical struggles, ideological streams, key historical figures and social developments that impact and are shaped by history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Orientation Skills</td>
<td>Teacher provides LSM and dialogue on chronological orientation, map interpretation, source-based interpretation, policy making and diction/conceptual clarity etc, that orientates the learner for areas of study and takes into consideration (i) recognition of prior knowledge and, (ii) clarity seeking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Facilitation Skills</td>
<td>Teacher constantly reinforces different approaches of assessing sections of the curriculum by articulating synergy between learner participation in the classroom, tests, examinations and research. Teacher supports the learner by infusing in the year past papers, a variety of LSM, sources and a variety of remedial programmes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adopted from the LPG for History Grades 10-12, 2005: 36)

In the table above one notices that almost all the teaching strategies that have been suggested by various studies and researchers are presented as a summary. What this means is that the history teacher is not compelled to use one method of teaching, s/he may use as many as possible s/he is to fulfil the stated outcomes. The main focus is for the strategies to be learner-centred and outcomes-based (Silen, 2003).
All the teaching strategies and approaches to History teaching seem too good if understood by the educators who are to implement the plans in the classroom. The question is whether the educators understand what they have to do to ensure that their learners acquire these skills and whether they were trained to implement these good ideas? The study therefore seeks to get answers to these questions; hence it seeks to know what teaching strategies are used by teachers to deliver History lessons in the NCS.

A study conducted by Cole and Barsalou (2006) on The Challenges of Teaching History in societies Emerging from Violent Conflicts, revealed that approaches which emphasise learners’ critical thinking skills and expose them to multiple historical narratives can reinforce democratic thinking. He goes on to say that in many cases what is learnt and how it is learnt receives less attention than the curriculum, especially in poor resourced settings.

2.7.4.1.3. Assessment in the NCS History

Assessment is a process of collecting, synthesising and interpreting information to assist teachers, parents and other stakeholders in making decisions about the progress of learners (National Protocol on Assessment for Schools, DoE, and 2005). Maree and Fraser (2008) posit that assessment is an ever present reality in the lives of teachers and is viewed by many to mean the process of determining learner achievement. Lloyd-Jones and Bray (1986) views assessment as an all-embracing term, which covers any of the situations in which some aspects of a learner’s education is (in some sense) measured; be it by a teacher, an examiner or the pupil. All these inputs on assessment are how assessment in the NCS is to be viewed.

Rault-Smith (2008), explaining the role of assessment in OBE, says that the process of assessment should be the key with which teachers can come to an understanding of what a learner knows and does not know, the gap between the learners’ knowledge and competency and the learning outcomes and assessment standards. One can therefore see the importance of assessment from the above definitions that no one can determine whether learning has been achieved without assessing whether the outcomes of such an exercise have been achieved.
In the NCS History, examining how knowledge is assessed also gives insight into how curriculum is implemented and understood. In keeping with the principles of OBE, the NCS places significant emphasis on assessment. Chapter 4 of the History Subject Statement covers assessment generics such as how to assess and when to assess as well as assessment standards. The Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG), (2007) put forward aspects that assessment in NCS History needs to caution the learners about:

that learners need to be taught to: question the past, use authentic historical sources, extract, analyse and synthesise information from sources; recognise and explain differing interpretations in history; construct their own history based on the evidence and communicate their new knowledge in different ways (pp. 7).

The SAG goes on to state the types of informal assessment per grade as well as the types of assessments which are regarded as formal assessment tasks and are stipulated in the programme of assessment, being: single source-based and extended writing, two tests, one mid-year examination, heritage investigation, oral history, research or enrichment assignment and end-of-year examination. Van Niekerk and Killien (2000) posit that the basic principle in OBE assessment is that the learner must demonstrate that they have achieved a particular outcome or a group of outcomes before they are considered competent in relation to that piece of learning. This therefore means that the assessment standards laid down in the SAG have to be taken into consideration to assess whether learning has been achieved. A study conducted by Motseke (2005) on the problems of OBE implementation in the South African townships, found that although assessment was an essential element of OBE, it was found to be among the OBE’s least understood activities. He adds that, apart from the respondents’ poor understanding of the meaning of the concept ‘assessment’, many viewed written work, tests and oral questions as the only forms of assessment. This study seeks to establish how teachers use assessment in the implementation of NCS History.
2.7.4.2. Class Size

One other important contributing factor to the implementation of curriculum is the issue of class size. Class size refers to the number of learners that the teacher has to teach in one class in a subject. Teachers need to see learners as individual persons, not merely in their collective role as a class full of learners. They need to take time to cultivate a rapport with the learners in their classes so that they can learn how they learn and what truly interests them and what they already know. The DoE, in South Africa requires that the teacher learner ratio be 1:35 at secondary school level. However, one wonders if this teacher-pupil ratio is maintained in all schools (DoE, 2000). A study carried out in one of the townships in South Africa, found that the ‘official’ number of learners per teacher were practically too many for OBE teaching (Motseke, 2005).

In many parts of Africa, there is a problem of overpopulation of classes. A study conducted in Kenya discovered that the non-conducive learning environment contributed to the poor results of some of the secondary schools, with classes of more than 250 learners (Asikhia, 2010). One of the results of overcrowded classrooms is that the class can become unmanageable and there could be a shortage of teaching learning materials. A study carried out by Blatchford, Russell, Brown and Martin (2006) in Britain found that learners in small classes were likely to be the focus of a teacher’s attention, they allow for more individual attention, while learners in large classes are more likely to be one of the crowds. A report by the OECD (2008) views smaller class sizes as having an influence on parents when they choose schools for their children and in this respect the class size would be an indicator of the quality of the school system.

However, evidence of studies conducted from the disadvantaged communities in Botswana, found that there was very little consistency in the belief that smaller classes have an impact upon specific groups of learners. A study carried out in Uganda by O’Sullivan (2006) on Teaching Large Classes, Observation of more effective Teachers in 2006, her findings were that narrow-based curricular are easy to deliver to large classes than broader-based curriculum with vocational elements.
In South Africa, the teacher-learner ratio in ordinary, public schools in many township schools where there is high population density, is still high, while in many rural schools, the class sizes are small (Jacobs et al, 2004). This study therefore seeks to find whether classes of History in the Fort Beaufort district have enough space to enable teachers to implement the innovations in their subject.

2.7.5. Monitoring and support

Monitoring is a continuous process of ensuring that the implementation of the plan is proceeding smoothly. It involves managing the project by tracking its progress and making adjustments as necessary (Walsall Council 2006). It improves efficiency and quality, tracks inputs and outputs and ensures that the job is done well. It concerns routine data, e.g. keeping attendance registers and is carried out by the staff of the organisation delivering the project with reports made to managers (Bryant and White, 1982). Hence, school heads and district officials as custodians of curriculum implementation, have to monitor it.

2.7.5.1. Support and monitoring by the HoDs and District Officials

2.7.5.1.1. Support by HoDs

At school level, the school head is the chief instructional supervisor. S/he provides the means for curriculum implementation through timetabling, classroom allocation, text-book allocation, syllabus and all instructional materials in addition to creating a conducive atmosphere for an effective teaching and learning process (Nkomo, 1995). Fullan (1992) argues that many good monitoring practices go unreported because of the isolation of teachers, schools, and districts from each other. Secondly, they expose new ideas to scrutiny, and help to weed out mistakes and further develop promising practices.

Both the manner of teaching and the content being addressed need oversight. The supervisor provides direction and guidance and makes sure that teachers have the skills to carry out the change. ‘Supervisor’, in this study will refer to the HoD, the immediate senior of the History teacher. Earley and Bubb (2004) argue that, central to effectual management of curriculum implementation, is the notion of support. Support, in the context of management of curriculum implementation, includes all the
activities pertaining to the development of the implementers’ advocacy. Support strategies should make provision for the training of implementers, observation of peers’ classroom teaching and scheduling of regular meetings for reflective discussions (Rhodes, Stokes and Hampton, 2004). This view is supported by the Department of Education (DoE), which emphasises the crucial role of the SMT in the management of curriculum implementation (DoE, 2003). This body needs to develop advocacy by clarifying the ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ of the implementation process. Role players need to be informed about the core rationale behind the new curriculum (DoE, 2003).

According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), effective supervisors need to be dynamic to realise that they must adjust their tactics to the situation and participants, and give experienced teachers much responsibility. However, they might have to give beginner teachers more structure; they might need to schedule more supervisor-teacher conferences and more in-service training for such staff members to deliver the new curriculum (Global Environment Facility, 2002). Doll (1996), cited in Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), points out that supervisors have three major tasks: (i) helping the total faculty articulate education’s purpose and monitoring professionals to see that they adhere to these purposes in delivering the programme; (ii) providing democratic instructional leadership; and (iii) keeping channels of communication open within the school and between the school and the community. What this author is suggesting is pointed out in the guideline for supervision provided for schools through the Manual for School Management (DoE, 2004), under the HoDs’ responsibility:

The co-ordinating of teachers’ work and managing their activities in the subjects they teach. Familiarising teachers with the curriculum documents (NCS) and the interpretation thereof. Ensuring that teachers develop and implement the work schedule and lesson plans. Monitoring the progress of teachers and provide support where required. Identify areas which need training or further development of teachers and communicate that with the Phase Head. Identifying LTSM and equipment required. Conducting regular meetings with teachers in the subject (p. n-15).
From the above statement it is clear that a head of department (HoD) is someone who has to provide leadership and direction for teachers in his/her department/subject. S/he can carry out his/her responsibilities in numerous ways. A few popular ways are classroom observation, demonstration teaching, supervisor-teacher conferences, staff development meetings, and grant-funding (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). If supervisors are effective, teachers are likely to commit to, and feel comfortable with the new programme being implemented.

However, it has to be noted that formal monitoring procedures do not on their own produce better results as revealed by Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis and Ecob (1988). They posit that all research on effective schools show that paying constant attention to learners’ academic, personal, and social development is essential for success. This is in line with the recent findings of the U.S. Department of Education (2004) that successful school heads “analyze instruction and student learning through regular classroom observations and provide detailed feedback to teachers in order to support instructional improvement”.

Fullan (2001) and Hargreaves (2000) see monitoring as a form of potential action research conducted by both the SMT and teachers, provided that the implementation process is informed by their daily and contextual experiences. Therefore, successful management maintains a learning cycle, in other words, reflection in action among the implementers (Rhodes, Stokes and Hampton, 2004).

Wanzare and da Costa (2000) support this by putting forward these as purposes of supervision:

i. Improving instruction
ii. Promoting effective teacher-staff development.
iii. Helping teachers to become aware of their teaching.
iv. Enabling teachers to try out new instructional techniques in safe, supporting environment.
v. Fostering curriculum development
vi. Encouraging human relations
vii. Fostering teacher motivation
viii. Monitoring the teaching-learning process to obtain the best results with students.

ix. Providing mechanisms for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (p.48).

According to Seleti (2003), the South African History Project (SAHP) did the evaluation in the provinces trying to initiate the establishment of History Teachers Network. What the members of the Project found was that history teachers in some schools were either unqualified or under qualified to teach the subject. In some cases Geography teachers teach History or are appointed as subject Heads for History, which makes it difficult for the teacher to have on-site support.

The study thus seeks to find out whether HODs are doing the supervisory and supporting work they are supposed to be doing amongst teachers in the NCS History curriculum, as the lack of such supervision may lead to non-implementation by teachers. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) posit that it is not only the manner of teaching that has to be supervised, but also the content that is actually addressed which needs to be monitored. They go on to say that if the head as an instructional leader is effective, it is likely that the teachers within the system will feel committed to and comfortable with the programme which is being implemented as long as teachers are satisfied that the school will run smoothly (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

2.5.7.1.2. Support by the District Officials/Subject Advisor

There are also more general issues pertaining to the role that districts play in the implementation of the curriculum. This is a crucial and often neglected level of curriculum implementation, which requires urgent attention (Task Team on the Review of the Implementation of NCS (2009). Duties of the Subject Advisors were not clear at the beginning of the implementation of the NCS and there were only posts and no people attached to them. It was not until 2008 that many subject Advisors were appointed in the district under the study. Duties of Subject Advisors (Provincial Curriculum Guidelines (PCG) 2009-2010.
i. Co-ordinate all curriculum functions relating to all subjects within the district and schools, with special focus on the exit points of grade 12.

ii. Administer all curriculum services and procedures and distribute policy guidelines regarding curriculum issues.

iii. Monitor NCS policy implementation and development.

iv. Guide and support teachers, organise on-site support, monitoring and evaluation of all curriculum programmes.

v. Co-ordinate the orientation and training of teachers to promote professional development.

vi. Effective management, co-ordination and implementation of assessment policy.

vii. Establish and maintain curriculum structures that will be instrumental in the implementation of the curriculum.

viii. Organise and manage proper utilisation of the section budget.

Educational evaluation is the evaluation process of characterising and appraising some aspects of an educational process. It concerns assessing how well the project is doing in terms of its aims (DoE Western Cape, 2007). Kelly (2006) supports this view by arguing that educational evaluation strives to assess the merits and impacts of educational programmes and initiatives. Evaluation is about the effectiveness of the project, assessing the project’s outcomes and/or the impact of the project in terms of social inclusion and ensures that the right work is done (Walsall Council, 2006). Implementation of an innovation needs support from within (school) and outside the school (National DoE and the District Education Department). (2003). Du Ploy and Westraad (2003) have observed in their study conducted in South Africa on Education and Training: Models for Best Practices, that many teachers have no one to turn to for help when they are trying to apply the principles of the new curriculum for the first time. To this the teachers suggest the following aspects of exploration:

The role of the officials in the decentralised district offices, the role of the cluster schools in which teachers from four or five schools meet on a regular basis in order to share ideas and collecting ideas and collectively address problem areas, and the role of ‘key teachers’ within a school (Du Ploy and Westraad, 2003:168).
School inspection and evaluation provide information on the performance of schools according to a variety of criteria. Requirements for school inspection are the legal frameworks that may operate from the central administrative level or from lower administrative levels such as regional offices or inspectors. A school inspection could be done by inspectors, visitation committees or review panels (OECD, 2008).

It is important, therefore, for this study to establish whether the History NCS teachers receive the support they require from both the Subject Advisor as well as the HoDs who are on site, and how often that support is given to them.

2.7 Summary

This chapter outlined the theoretical framework which informs the study as well as curriculum implementation theories. The chapter further reviewed other studies on teacher capacity, learner factor in the implementation of NCS in History, material support as well as monitoring systems in place. Finally, studies on continuous professional development for teachers were also reviewed. The following chapter discusses the methodology adopted by the study in order to find answers to the research questions.
Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was employed in this study. It looks at the paradigm in which this study is embedded, research approach and research design. The chapter further discusses the population, sample and sampling techniques and data collection instruments. The chapter also presents limitations and ethical consideration.

3.2 The paradigm and the approach of the study

According to Guba (1990), a paradigm is a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of everyday practice, variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the ‘world, the individual’s place in it and the range of the possible relationships to that world and its parts’ (1990:17). Willis (2007) supports this view by defining a paradigm as made up of general theoretical assumptions, laws and techniques that the members of a particular scientific community adopt.

Paradigms are the conceptual lenses through which researchers perceive reality. Whisker (2008:68), in his definition of a paradigm cites three terms which are key in explaining a paradigm. They are: ontology, epistemology and methodology. He further explains these terms by saying that:

- **Ontology** means ‘being in the world’ self, subject- how you experience and perceive yourself in the world, whether you believe for example that the world is knowable and you share the same sense of reality and personal solidity or whether you perceive it differently.

- **Epistemology** is the knowledge most particularly of the ways in which different disciplines interpret and represent knowledge in the world. Epistemology refers to the relationship between the inquirer and the knowledge. The way in which the inquirer interprets knowledge is critical as it shows the inquirer's philosophical orientation.
Methodology focuses on the best means for acquiring knowledge about the world.

In line with varying ontological and epistemological orientations, a number of paradigms of inquiry have emerged over time. They can be broadly classified as the positivist, interpretivist and post-positivist paradigms (Walliman, 2006).

3.2.1 The Positivist Paradigm

Positivist paradigm, associated closely in meaning with the scientific approach, claims one objective 'truth' with verifiable patterns that can be predicted with certainty. It assumes a 'prereality which is discoverable through methodical, rigorous, careful observation that can be proven through testable and repeatable methodologies (Maree, 2007:213).

Positivists use a naive realism, assuming an objective external reality upon which inquiry can converge. If there is reality out there, then research, according to the positivists must not influence that order, but must allow the nature to take its course. O'Leary (2004) proclaims that positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces around us. Nieuwenhuis (2007) shares the same view with O'Leary (2004) as he concedes that, positivist approach emphasises 'experimentation, observation, measurement, reliability and validity in various processes of research'. As Guba (1990), states:

The inquirer so to speak, stands behind a thick wall of one-way glass, observing nature as 'she does her thing'. Objectivity is the main point that permits the inquirer to wrest with nature's secrets without altering them (p. 21).

The positivism paradigm has been criticised for its technicist element that seeks to control and predict relationships within and between variables and its view that knowledge is absolute (Best and Kellner, 2001). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), researchers who use this paradigm have been criticised for their single view of reality that is measurable through objective and value-free scientific and
quantitative methods. Due to the above mentioned limitations this study has not been located in the positivism paradigm.

3.1.2. The Interpretive Paradigm

Contrary to the positivists, the interpretivists maintain the view that the world that we see around us is a creation of the mind, meaning that we can only experience it personally through our perceptions which are by our preconceptions and beliefs (Walliman, 2006). Interpretivists reject the positivist view that the same research methods can be used to study human behaviour (as those are successfully used in the fields such as chemistry and physics); because humans behave the way they do in part, because of their environment (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991). This paradigm has its roots in the hermeneutics, the study of the theory and practice of interpretation (Punch, 2005).

According to Kultar (2007), the main contrast between interpretivism and positivism is that, whereas positivism focuses on the way social reality exists externally to the people, the interpretivist approach stresses the way that people shape the society. This view is supported by Maree (2007) when he posits that, social life is distinctively human product as interpretivists assume that reality is not objectively determined, but is socially constructed, hence interpretive approach is sometimes referred to as a constructivist approach to research. Because existence is viewed in this way, interpretivists are committed to an epistemology which embraces social constructivism and knowledge as meaning in particular contexts and made possible by social interaction (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

Guba and Lincoln (1985) posit that in this paradigm the inquirer and the object of inquiry interact to influence one another, the knower and the known are inseparable. Given these interpretivist tenets it follows that their research interests will be concerned with people’s beliefs, feeling and interpretations and how they make their world through meaning. According to Willis (2007), interpretivists favour qualitative methods of collecting data such as interviews and observations because they are better ways of getting how humans interpret the world around them. However, this paradigm, like positivism, has its own limitations and critiques.
Most of the criticism levelled against the interpretivist paradigm is directed towards the subjectivity and the failure of the approach to generalise the findings beyond the situation studied (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). Human bias can never be underestimated, nor can the notion of objectivity/subjectivity. Cohen et al. (2000) concede that qualitative research, methodologies are criticised for being impressionistic (based on reactions or opinions, rather than on specific facts or details), biased, insignificant, ungeneralisable and idiosyncratic, subjective and short sighted. The subjective involvement of the researcher makes him/her share experiences with his/her research participants. On the other hand interpretivist methodology, with its emphasis on rich contextual detail and close attention to individual life experience and meaning-making, compliments the quantitative data and broad sweeping overviews. This study did not use either the positivist or the interpretivist paradigms, because of the limitations cited.

3.2.2 The Post-positivist Paradigm

Post-positivism is a theory of knowledge which holds that reality exists, but can never be fully understood or explained, given the multiplicity of causes and effects and the problem of social meaning (Shank, 2002). Guba (1990:17)) posits that it is best characterised as a modified version of positivism, as it moved from what is called ‘naïve’ realism of the positivists to one which is often termed ‘critical realism’. This view is supported by Ryan (2006), who refers to post-positivism as a reformed version of positivism, because as its predecessor it posits that there is a reality that is out there to be discovered, however, in contrast, the reality can only be known imperfectly within probability and not certainty which is the naïve realist position of the positivists.

This study has been located in post-positivism paradigm. The choice of a paradigm to guide this study was influenced by the nature of the problem being investigated, with the main objective being the assessment of the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum in Fort Beaufort High Schools at Grade 11 level. To get a more holistic picture of how the NCS is implemented in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort High Schools, there was need for the researcher to be objective so as to

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minimise researcher's biases whilst being subjective in order to have a deeper insight into issues surrounding the implementation of the NCS in History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort High Schools at Grade 11. Thus, a paradigm that adequately supports both the positivistic and interpretivistic ideas, at the same time, was considered appropriate to guide the study. Hence, the post-positivism paradigm was the philosophical foundation which supported the design of the research in this study because of its flexibility in the use of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches to research.

The post-positivism paradigm was preferred in this study because the researcher wished to maintain an interest in some aspects of quantification (positivism) yet at the same time wanted to incorporate interpretivist concerns around subjectivity and meaning. This is because the researcher was interested in the use of the pragmatic combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods in order to understand the phenomenon of interest properly (Maree, 2007). The post-positivism paradigm fitted well with the study because it opens doors to multiple methods and different worldviews as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis, which are dimensions that were key to this study.

3.3 Research Approach
3.3.1 Quantitative Research Approach

Maree (2007) defines quantitative research approach as a process that is systematic and objective in its use of numerical data from a selected subgroup of a population to generalise the findings to the population under study. Proponents of quantitative research approaches claim a ‘scientific method’ which has the characteristics of control, operational definition, replication, hypothesis testing, objectivity, standard procedures, reliability, validity, empiricism and reproducibility in social science (Denscombe, 2002).

The above mentioned are the characteristics of positivists which underwrote quantitative research approach. Adams, Khan, Raeside and White (2007) and Tashakori and Tedlie (1998) support this view saying that this type of research is based on both the positivist and post positivist paradigms which implies the
existence of one objective reality. A typical example of research study that employs quantitative research approach would be an experiment or a survey study (Maree, 2007). However, quantitative research approach is sometimes criticised for its inability to look at individual cases in detail and also due to its highly structured nature, it prevents the researcher from following up on unexpected outcomes or information (Ryan & Hood, 2006). According to Eisner (2001), quantitative data often fails to provide specific answers, reasons, explanations or examples.

### 3.3.2 Qualitative Research Approach

Qualitative research approach provides an in-depth description of a particular practice (Maree, 2007). Flick (2009) defines qualitative research approach as a situated activity that locates the observer in the world; it consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. This view is supported by Adams et al. (2007) who postulate that qualitative research approach aims towards an exploration of social relations and describes reality as experienced by the respondents.

Qualitative research approach relies heavily on language for the interpretation of its meaning, so data collection methods tend to incorporate human involvement and the creative process of theory development (Walliman 2006). This view is supported by Blaxter et al. (2003: 14), who state that ‘qualitative’ implies a direct concern with experience, as it is ‘lived’ ‘felt’ or ‘undergone’. The approach tends to focus on exploring as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples which are seen as interesting or illuminating and which aims to achieve “depth” rather than breadth (Adams et al., 2007).

Qualitative research approach yields detailed information reported in the voices of participants and contextualised in the settings in which they provide experiences and the meanings of their experiences. Creswell, (2008); and Creswell & Garrett (2008) argue that when researchers bring together aspects of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches, the strengths of both approaches are combined, leading to a better understanding of research problems than either approach on its own. For this reason the study adopted a mixed methods approach.
3.3.3 The Mixed Methods Research Approach

Mixed methods approach involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data is collected concurrently or sequentially and entails the integration of data at one or more stages in the research process of research (Tashakori & Tedlie 2003). This view is supported by Maree (2007), citing Creswell (2005), who says that mixed methods research approach is a procedure for collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of research process within a single study in order to understand a research problem more fully. He further explains this by saying that, in this approach, a researcher collects both numeric information through survey instruments or ratings, followed by information collected through, for example open-ended interviews or observation, to answer the study questions. The researcher in this study, adopted mixed methods approach by collecting quantitative data using questionnaires to solicit numeric information as well as interviews and observations to collect qualitative data so as to answer the research questions.

The mixed methods approach belongs to the post positivist paradigm that combines aspects of quantitative and qualitative approaches. They complement each other in that, findings from one method can be checked against the findings of the other thus allowing for a more complete analysis of the research problem through comparing the data produced by different methods (Creswell, 2005).

According to Robson (2005) seeing things from different perspectives with the opportunity to corroborate findings enhances the validity of data and provides the best understanding of a research problem. Above all the results from one method can help to develop or inform the other method. This view is supported by Tashakori & Teddlie (2003), cited in Creswell (2003), when they extrapolate that one method can be nested within another method to provide insight into different levels or units of analysis. Merthens (2005) consolidates this view of mixed methods approach when he proclaims that the methods can be used for a larger, transformative purpose to change and advocate for the marginalised groups and those who are poor. In this case, students' views and those of teachers can be heard in the implementation of NCS History curriculum. The same views can be considered for recommendations to
those in authority and other stake holders in the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum.

The mixed methods researcher combines quantitative and qualitative strategies within one study, collects both numeric and text data concurrently or in sequence, and chooses variables and units of analysis which are most appropriate for addressing the study's purpose and finding answers to the researcher's questions (Creswell, 2003, Tashakori & Tedlie, 1998 cited in Ivankova, et al., 2007).

3.4 Research design

Research design is the structure of the research. Peter (2005) refers to research design as the ‘glue’ that holds all the elements in a research project together. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) view research design as the ‘blue print’ for conducting the study. Hence, research design may be viewed as the manner in which the entire research process is planned and managed until its final stage of report writing. It provides guidelines and structure to the research process in order to prevent haphazard procedures.

According to Creswell (2003), there are six mixed methods designs: sequential exploratory design, sequential exploratory model, sequential transformative design, concurrent triangulation design, concurrent nested design and concurrent transformative design. Ivankova et al. (2007) concede that the most commonly used designs are: the explanatory design, the exploratory design, the triangulation design and the embedded design. Maree (2007) noted that the concurrent triangulation design is probably the most familiar of the six major mixed method designs. It can be selected as the design to confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within a single study.

Therefore, collection of data in a mixed method approach can either be sequential or concurrent. Sequential procedures imply that the researcher collects both the quantitative and qualitative data in phases (sequentially) while concurrent procedures mean that the researcher will collect both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time (concurrently). When the data are collected in phases, either
the qualitative or quantitative data can come first depending on the initial intent of researcher. However, concurrent procedures are less time-consuming than the sequential procedures. Integration of the two types of data can occur at several stages in the process of research, that is, the data collection (combining open ended questions in a survey with closed ended questions); the data analysis and interpretation (transforming qualitative themes or codes into quantitative numbers and comparing that information with quantitative results); or some combination of places (both during data collection and analysis).

The study used the concurrent triangulation design which enabled the researcher to collect both the quantitative and the qualitative data at the same time. Both types of data, were also analysed at the same time and were given equal opportunities. This design also helped the researcher to confirm, cross-validate and corroborate the findings of the study (Flick, 2009). The researcher collected concurrently quantitative data through self administered questionnaires and qualitative data through interviews and observations from teachers, HoDs, learners and Subject Advisor in order to best understand the implementation of NCS History. Concurrent procedures entailed collecting both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time during the study and then integrating the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2003).

The purpose of the concurrent triangulation design is to validate and cross check data from teachers, learners and Subject Advisor. The mixing of data occurred at the data analysis stage by transforming, and clustering the quantitative results from questionnaires as well as assigning them certain themes to compare with other themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis.

By using the mixed methods approach, the researcher attempted to legitimise the use of multiple approaches in answering issues of the implementation of NCS in History curriculum, rather than restricting or constraining the researcher’s choices (that is, being dogmatic). Denscombe (2002) and Robson (2005) concede that seeing things from different perspectives, with the opportunity to corroborate findings, enhances the validity of data and helps provide the best understanding of a research problem. Above all, the results from one method can help to develop or
inform the other method. This stance is supported by Tashakkori & Teddlie, (2003) who extrapolate that one method can be nested within another method to provide insight into different levels or units of analysis.

Finally, the concurrent mixed methods approach assisted the researcher in the reduction of time used for data collection. It also enabled the researcher to complete the study within the designated period of time.

3.5 Population and Sampling Procedures

3.5.1 Population

Singh (2007) defines a population as a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement. De Vos, Strydom Fousche and Delport (2007) add that a population is a set of entities from which all measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented. A population in other words, is the totality of persons, events, organisations, units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. This study was conducted in the Eastern Cape Province, in the Fort Beaufort District high schools. The population consisted of 26 high schools which offer History, 480 learners, 26 teachers, 26 HoDs and 1 District Subject Advisor.

3.5.2 Sample and sampling techniques

The researcher purposively chose the Fort Beaufort District of Education from the six districts of the Central Region of the Eastern Cape Department of Education, because although it is rural, it has a diversity of schools, which may be a reflection of rural schools. According to Creswell (2009), in purposive sampling the researcher purposively selects individuals who will best help them understand the research problem and the research questions. In purposive sampling, researchers handpick the cases to be included on the basis of their judgement of their typicality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). This type of sampling was chosen for it was found to be rich in the information relevant to the study.
3.5.2.1 Selection of Sample for Quantitative Data
The researcher used stratified sampling technique to select 3 out of 10 circuits to be included in the study. According to Tashakori and Teddlie (2003), in stratified sampling a researcher first divides the population into sub-populations on the basis of supplementary information. The circuits in the districts are either close to the urban area or on the periphery of the urban area or in the deep rural areas. Hence the researcher selected the sample randomly from the three areas. Of the 3 circuits selected one was closer or nearer to the urban area; the second one was on the periphery; and the third was in the deep rural areas.

Random sampling technique was used to select the 7 schools that were included in the study. Random sampling is a procedure in quantitative research for selecting participants; it means that each individual has an equal probability of being selected from the population, ensuring that the sample will be representative of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2005). The researcher selected the seven schools as follows: the first circuit close to the urban area had 7 schools which are offering History as a subject. Four schools were randomly selected for the study. The second circuit which is on the periphery of the town had 3 schools that offered History as a subject. Two schools were randomly selected for the study. The third circuit which was in the deep rural area had 2 schools that offered History as a subject. One school was randomly selected for the study.

Each of the 7 schools included in the study had 1 teacher teaching NCS History in Grade 11, and 1 HoD. They all participated in the study. In total there were 14 respondents.

3.5.2.2 Selection of Sample for Qualitative Data
The researcher had to further use purposive sampling technique to select respondents for the qualitative data, which was collected through interviews and observations. Six respondents were selected, namely, 3 History teachers and their HoDs. They were chosen on the basis of gender and experience, that is, some who were more experienced and others that had less experience. Three focus groups of
6 NCS History Grade 11 learners were also purposively selected on the basis of their performance as follows:

- 2 learners scoring between level 5 and 7 as high scorers
- 2 learners scoring between level 3 and 4 as medium scorers
- 2 learners scoring between level 1 and 2 as low scorers

In all there were 18 learners in three focus groups each made up of six learners. The History Subject Advisor was also purposively selected for his expertise in the implementation of the History Curriculum and because he is the only one in charge of History in the District.

### 3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher obtained a letter from the University of Fort Hare requesting for permission to collect data from schools from Fort Beaufort Education District. An application letter was sent to the District Director of the Fort Beaufort Education District to seek permission to carry out the study (See Appendix A). Permission was sought from the principals of the schools where the study would be conducted (See Appendix C). The questionnaires were given to teachers in their schools so as to avoid any delays that may be caused in returning them to the researcher. The researcher explained everything verbally and appealed to the teachers to ensure that the questionnaires were completed in the spirit envisaged. A letter explaining the purpose of the study and the aspects of confidentiality and anonymity of respondents was given to each respondent to read for him/herself before completing the questionnaire, as well as the letter from the District Director which granted permission to conduct the study (See Appendices B and D). Respondents were given two to three hours to complete the questionnaire, and the researcher explained some aspects which needed explanation in order to speed up the process. For the observation and the interviews, the researcher made some arrangements with the relevant authorities and respondents.
3.6.1 Data Collection Instruments

The researcher used the following instruments to collect data: questionnaires, interviews, observation and document analysis.

3.6.1.1 Questionnaires

Adam and Schvaneveldt (1991) define a questionnaire as a list of written questions which a respondent answers. It is a data gathering device that elicits, from a respondent, answers or reactions to printed (pre-arranged) questions. Bryman (2001) postulates that, one of the features of questionnaires is that the questions are fixed, that is to say, they do not change according to how the responses develop and they are the same for all respondents and the person posing them. He adds that the responses can be completely anonymous, allowing potentially embarrassing questions to be asked with a fair chance of getting a true reply. The researcher used questionnaires to determine the assessment of the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum with its aspects of anonymity and privacy so that History teachers may feel free to answer the questionnaires knowing that it will not be known ‘who does what’ and ‘who does not’. The questionnaire was administered to solicit data for sub-questions 1, 2, 3, and 4. The questionnaires were administered to History Heads of Department and History teachers. Questionnaires were used to save time as the research was conducted during school hours because it is relatively quick to collect information using them.

3.6.1.2 Interviews

According to Hughes (1992), interviews are encounters between a researcher and a respondent in which an individual is asked a series of questions relevant to the subject of research. Leedy and Ormorod (2005) maintain that an interview is a face-to-face confrontation between an interviewer and the respondent or a group of respondents. The respondents’ answers constitute the raw data to be analysed at a later stage. Maree (2007) adds that an interview is a two-way conversation in which
the interviewer asks participants questions to collect data and to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours of the participants. Face-to-face interviews were used in this study in order to find out about the perceptions of district education officers, heads of department, teachers and learners on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum.

The researcher used a semi-structured interview schedule to solicit data from the respondents. The semi-structured interview is a more flexible version of the structured interview in that, although the participant is required to answer a set of predetermined questions, it allows for the probing and clarification of answers (Maree (2007). De Vos et al. (2007) postulate that the purpose of probing is to deepen the response to the question, to increase the richness of the data being obtained, and to give the participant clues about the level of response desired. They further state that it is a technique used to persuade the participant to provide more information about the issue under discussion.

3.6.1.3 Focus Group interviews

In this study, 18 learners participated in three focus group discussions. Three focus group discussions were conducted in public schools. Each focus group comprised 6 learners including both male and female learners. These learners were studying Grade 11 and had been doing History in the NCS for two years. The learners shared their views and perceptions on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. Focus group discussions with learners was an essential data gathering tool for this study in that the responses provided an in depth view of the implementation of the NCS History.

Focus groups can be viewed as group interviews, only that focus groups do not rely on question and answer format as is the case with group interviews. Rather, they rely on interaction within the group. In this case, the researcher needs to create an environment that is conducive to the participation of members involved in the group discussion so as to solicit enough views on the subject under discussion. This is also
alluded to by Krueger & Casey (2009) who write that focus group interviewing is about:

Paying attention to what people have to say and being non-judgmental. It is about creating a comfortable environment for people to share. It is about being careful and systematic with the things people tell you. And people go away feeling good about having been heard (pp.xiii).

Hence Krueger & Casey (2009) define a focus group discussion as a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain the perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive and non-threatening environment.

The group interactions were productive in widening the range of responses, activating forgotten details of experience and releasing inhibitions that may otherwise discourage participants from disclosing information about how NCS History is implemented in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools (Maree 2007). This yielded data that gave insights into the implementation process of the NCS History in terms of time allocation; how the teachers implement it; teaching methods used during lessons; as well as the support History teachers receive from both the District Office and within the school in order to implement the NCS in the History curriculum. However, although focus groups are advantageous as a data collecting tool as shown above, they have a limitation of getting biased information as some members dominate the discussions (Maree 2007). The researcher overcame this by encouraging discussion from every member and maintaining focus on topic under discussion.

3.6.1.4 Observation

Observation is a method of recording conditions, events and activities through the non-inquisitional involvement of the researcher (Bryman, 2001). According to Maree (2007) observation is the systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. This means that the researcher does not have to ask any questions from the participants, but is able to gather information through their
actions. Maree (2007) goes on to say that as a qualitative data gathering technique, observation is used to enable the researcher to gain a deeper insight and understand the phenomenon being observed.

Ndebele (2006) views observation as a technique that can be used when data collected through other means may be of limited value or is difficult to validate. He makes an example of interviews where participants may be asked about how they behave in a certain situation, but there is no guarantee that they actually do what they say they do. The value of observation is that it permits researchers to study people in their environments in order to understand things from their perspective (Baker, 2006). Observing them in those situations is more reliable, it is possible to see how they actually behave. However, in observations, the researcher must always remember his/her role as a researcher and remain detached enough to collect and analyse data relevant to the problem under investigation.

Maree (2007) puts forward four types of observation that are used in research, that is, complete observer; observer as participant; participant as observer and complete participant.

In the complete observer approach, the researcher is a non-participant looking at the situation from a distance. The researcher is present in the scene, but does not participate or interact with insiders to great extent (Gorman & Clayton, 2005). His/her only role is to listen and observe. She/he cannot ask insiders any questions to qualify what they have said or to answer other questions that his/her observations of them may have brought to mind.

In observer as participant, the researcher goes into the situation but focuses primarily on his/her role as observer in the situation (Maree, 2007). There is more observation than participation in this kind of approach. While still involved in observing, the researcher may conduct short interviews.

In the participant as observer approach, the researcher becomes part of the research process and works with the participants in the situation to design and
develop intervention strategies. This is more common in action research. During this period the researcher may develop relationships with the insiders (Baker, 2006).

In the complete participant approach, the researcher gets completely immersed in the setting to the extent that those being observed do not know that they are subjects of the observation (Maree, 2007). In this role, the identity of the complete participant is not known to the insiders, which can be problematic for the researcher who may become so self-conscious about revealing his/her true self that she/he becomes “handicapped when attempting to perform convincingly in the pretended role”.

The researcher used the complete observer approach. She went to classes with the History teachers to observe which teaching methods and strategies were used by the NCS History teachers at Grade 11. She was present in class, but did not participate; she observed the classroom setting in terms of seating arrangements and the attitudes of learners as they were taught by their teachers. This instrument helped the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of what takes place in classrooms where the NCS is implemented in the History curriculum. Aspects like teaching methods use of LTSM, seating arrangement, teacher-learner interaction, assessment strategies were observed.

### 3.6.1.5 Document Analysis

Bell (1993) gives a tentative definition of a document by saying that it is a general term for the impression left by a human being on a physical object. Research can involve the analysis of films, videos, slides and other non-written material, but the most common kind of documents in educational research are written as printed sources. This view is supported by Maree (2007) who says that when one uses documents as data gathering techniques, one may focus on all types of written communications that will shed light on the phenomenon that s/he is investigating. This study used document analysis as an instrument for collecting data. The documents which were analysed for the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum include history Subject Statements (syllabus), Assessment Guidelines, Learning programme Guidelines, lesson plans, work schedules, mark lists, learners’
written activities (tests and research projects), monitoring tools (school and district office) and the district official’s report.

According to Bell (1993), these documents are primary sources because they came into existence in the period under research. She further divides the primary sources into deliberate sources, which she says are produced for the attention of future researchers, and these include diaries, letters or memoirs of politicians and educationalists, and inadvertent sources. Bell (1993) states that these are used by the researcher for some purpose other than that for which they were originally intended, they have been produced by the government for the everyday working of the education system, like the examination papers, examiners reports and bulletins. They have been produced for a contemporary practical purpose and would therefore seem to be more of a straightforward than deliberate source.

3.7 Validity and Reliability

3.7.1 Validity

De Vos et al. (2007) posit that validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. They further explain that the validity of a measurement procedure is the degree to which the measurement process measures the variable it claims to measure. The measurement process for this study is the research process. Denscombe (2002) explains that claims to validity involve some demonstration that the researcher’s data and his or her analysis are firmly rooted in the realm of things that are relevant, genuine and real.

There are two aspects to these definitions that are observable: First, is whether the measurement is accurate, and, secondly whether it actually measures what it is intended to measure. In other words, do the people who read your research consider it to be well done and worthy of the readers’ attention (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Lincoln & Guba, (1985), cited in Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003), use the term ‘trustworthiness’ to refer to validity.
In this study, in order to enhance the validity of the findings, the researcher considered engaging multiple methods of data collection, which according to Golafshani (2003), is known as triangulation. The researcher pilot tested the questionnaire on a small scale of teachers before their final use.

3.7.2 Reliability

Golafshani (2003) refers to reliability as the extent to which the results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is used. Reliability can therefore be viewed as a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples. This view is supported by Maree (2007), who states that when we speak of the reliability of an instrument we mean that if the same instrument is used at different times or administered to different subjects from the same population, the findings should be the same. In other words, it refers to a measuring instrument’s ability to yield consistent results each time it is applied, it does not fluctuate. De Vos (2007), citing Neuman and Kruger (2003), suggests the following procedures to increase the reliability measures:

- Clearly conceptualise all constructs
- Increase the level of measurement
- Use multiple indicators of a variable
- Use pre-tests, pilot studies and replications

To establish reliability of the research instruments, a pilot study was carried in in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools. It involved 5 teachers, using test-retest method. The two tests were administered at an interval of two weeks during the school holidays. This was done so as to find out the terms used resonate with teachers. The researcher also verified their content of accuracy, consistency and ensured that ambiguous information was removed while deficiencies and weaknesses were noted and corrected in the final instruments. Teachers who participated in the pilot study were not involved in the final study.
3.7.3 Member Checking

Member checking is the process of going back to the participants to find out if the analysis or interpretation makes sense to the respondents and reflect on their experiences (Creswell, 2003). The researcher returned to some of the respondents who participated in the study to comment on whether or not they felt the data were interpreted in the manner congruent to their experiences. It also helps in establishing confidence in the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

3.8 Ethical Consideration

According to Blaxter and Hughes (2003) research ethics are about being clear regarding the nature of the agreement you have entered into with one’s research subjects. It involves getting the informed consent of those one is going to interview, question, observe or take materials from. It involves reaching agreements about the issues of data, and how the analysis will be reported and disseminated.

Cohen et al. (2002) explains that informed consent is the procedure by which individuals choose whether or not to participate in an investigation after being informed of the facts that would be likely to influence their decisions. It requires that the respondents be fully aware of any consequences that might result from the research. In conducting the research the researcher observed the right of informed consent for both the adult participants and the learners who were to answer the questionnaires and those who were to be interviewed. For the learners the researcher first explained the intentions of the research to their parents, and then sought permission from them. The researcher issued each of the participants a form of consent which included among other things; a statement that the study involves research, along with the title, purpose and general description of the study.

The researcher adhered to the ethics of confidentiality, anonymity and the right to privacy. According to Welfel (1998), the researcher has to protect the anonymity of the research participants and the confidentiality of their disclosures unless they consented to the release of personal information. All information was treated with the strictest confidentiality. Interviewees had the opportunity to verify statements when
the research was in its draft form. The researcher explained to the respondents that the research was about the implementation of the new innovations in education and how that would benefit the entire nation after the research has been completed.

3.9 Limitations of the study

This study was limited by the financial state of the researcher to cover all the incidentals such as costs of materials and transport; however the researcher used her budget for some of these costs. Time was also a limiting factor as the schools were still continuing with their normal school programmes. The researcher then used the school mid-year school holidays for piloting the questionnaires and made appointments in advance for the interviews and class observations. Another limitation of the study was that the respondents were unwilling to provide more information, especially on the assessment of learners and their results, but this was taken care of by emphasising adherence to the ethics of confidentiality and anonymity.

3.10 Summary

This chapter set out to outline the methodology for this study. A number of paradigms, research design, and population and sampling procedures were put forward. The research instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures were covered. A quantitative and qualitative methodology was adopted for this study. The adopted mixed methods approach enabled the researcher to collect different types of data from the respondents. The sample used is thought to be a good representation of the population to produce acceptable findings. Data was solicited using questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis and these enabled the researcher to have an in-depth knowledge of the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. Data analysis procedures including frequency tables and narrative descriptive analysis were discussed.
Chapter 4

Data Analysis and Presentation

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the data analysis and presentation. The study seeks to respond to the main research question, which is: How is the NCS implemented in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools? The sub-questions are:

vi. What methods/strategies are used by teachers to teach the NCS History?
vii. What training did teachers receive for the implementation of change in the NCS History?
viii. How do teachers select materials and resources?
ix. Do History teachers understand the subject guidelines?
x. What monitoring and support mechanisms are provided to the teachers by the department to enable them to implement the new History curriculum?

As discussed in Chapter 3, data was collected through questionnaires, individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations and document analysis. Two main procedures were applied in the analysis of this data. Quantitative data from self administered questionnaires was subjected to statistical methods using the MINITAB. Frequency distribution tables were used in the presentation of the survey data collected from the respondents. Data collected from the open ended questionnaires was analysed thematically. Qualitative data was solicited from respondents through open ended questions, semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews. Data was collected using field notes and the analysis was undertaken using the same notes as there was no tape recorder used during the data collection process. The interviewed respondents were 3 teachers from public schools, 3 heads of department from public schools 18 learners in 3 focus groups of 6 learners each. One district education officer was also interviewed. The presentation of data is conducted concurrently.

The respondents are identified as follows:
HoD : Head of Department (HoD1 from school 1, in sequential order to HoD 7 in school number 7).
HT : History teachers (HT1 from school 1, in sequential order up to HT7 in school number 7).
FGD 1-3: History learners in school 1 start from 1-6, school 5, from 7-12and for school 6, from 13-18
\[ n \] Total number of respondents.

4.1.1 Information about the schools

All the schools in which the research was carried out are public schools in rural areas of the Fort Beaufort District of Education in the Nkonkobe municipality in the Eastern Cape. All these schools are recipients of government subsidies. Public schools are classified under two sections, Section 20 and Section 21. Section 21 schools have their subsidy monies deposited into their bank accounts half-yearly, from April to July and October to January of each year. These funds must be used for the following purposes: Purchase of LTSM, payment of municipality services and day-to-day maintenance of the school buildings. Funds allocated to Section 20 schools by the Department of Education are held by the district office and all expenditure has to be requested through the district office. Hence the District office manages the subsidy monies on their behalf. The allocated amounts are known to the School Governing Body (SGB) for budget purposes and this amount must be spent on the same budget items as set out for Section 21 schools (DoE Manual for School Management, 2000).

All the schools that were included in the study were categorised as Section 21, which meant that they manage their own funds. All of them were also no-fee paying schools. According to Norms and Standards for School Funding, schools have been placed under Quintile 1, 2 and 3 because of the condition of the schools and the relative poverty level (DoE 2001). These quintiles mean that the school community is relatively poor, as confirmed by the previous census, and were thus exempted from paying school fees (DoE, 2000). Contrary to quintile 1 and 2 and 3, quintile 4 and 5 are fee paying schools because according to the rate of poverty they are medium and high rated in terms of income (Kanjee and Chudgar, 2009). Although all these
schools were quintile 1 schools they all had physical resources. This, according to Rogan and Grayson’s Theory of Curriculum Implementation (2003) is one major factor that influences capacity. They posit that the availability of classrooms and what is in the classrooms, in terms of furniture and other equipment can limit the performance of even the best of teachers and undermine learners’ efforts to focus on learning. All the schools that participated in the study had well-built schools with enough classrooms and some classrooms were even empty as a result of the drop in the numbers of learners. There were libraries (although the researcher did not go inside to look what was in those libraries), halls and laboratories.

Out of 7 HoD respondents, 5 were females and 2 were males. The gender of the respondents makes it easier to make inferences, as it is sometimes said that female supervisors are generally soft spoken and are therefore not taken seriously by those they are supervising (Olgiati & Shapiro, 2002). Equally important is the fact that gender has to be assessed in order to establish whether gender equity is implemented in our schools as the democratic government of South Africa has enacted the Employment Equity Act of 1998, which aims to promote equality, elimination of unfair discrimination and aims to achieve employment equity. Out of the 7 teacher respondents, 4 were females and 3 were males.

The researcher decided to choose Grade 11 to assess the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort District because people tend to pay too much attention on the matriculation exit class, which is Grade 12. They, forget that Grade 11 is a build-up to Grade 12, which makes this Grade as important as the exit point and should thus be treated as such. The researcher therefore wanted to assess how is NCS implemented in the History curriculum in Grade 11.

Eighteen learners in 3 focus groups of 6 each were interviewed from three schools. All the learners said that they were not forced or selected to do History, but rather chose it themselves because they liked it for different reasons. Among the reasons they cited were:

One History learner in Focus Group Discussion (FGD)2 commented: “I chose History because I want to be a lawyer, and when I enquired from people they said that among the subjects that I must do is History”
Another from the same group (FGD2) also commented: *I like telling stories from the past, and I thought that studying History will give me a chance to look at different stories of what people did in their countries.*

One respondent from FGD3 said: *I like my country, and I have always wanted to know about how the people of South Africa and other countries in Africa got their independence from the Whites.*

A member of FGD1 had also commented thus:

*I chose History because I want to be a politician, and from the History I learnt in Grade 9 I was made to understand that some of the changes in our political life are brought about by politicians. I also would like to be like ‘Tat’ uMandela’ who sacrificed his life so that we can have a better life.*

All the learners were a product of the RNCS and NCS and as such they understood its relevance to their career pathway. It can be observed that learners in the studied area held positive attitudes towards the History curriculum.

### 4.2 Capacity of teachers

Teacher capacity involves the knowledge and dispositions that are required of teachers to teach in the classroom. It is the core knowledge, skills, and dispositions that teachers should possess in order to teach in today’s classrooms. To be more specific, we can define this knowledge and set of skills as the command of subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge. Teacher capacity, however, is contingent upon a number of factors such as technology, policy and changing demographics; hence this study considered it a major variable in the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum (Taylor and Prinsloo, 2005).

The capacity of teachers includes variables such as one’s academic qualifications, specialization and experience in the job or position as well as teaching strategies
used by that individual (Nyabanyaba, 2005). Experience enables one to execute duties in a prolific manner. Above all, the experience is an obligation for both teachers and administrators as they are to build the capacity of their students, peers and juniors. One has to use a variety of strategies teaching methods and techniques as an instructional leader. Hence, there exists a need to solicit information regarding the professional qualification of teachers.

4.2.1. Professional qualifications
According to the requirements of the South African Council of Educators (SACE), as well as the Norms and Standards for Educators (DoE, 2000), to be considered a professionally qualified teacher in South Africa, one should either possess a Certificate in Education (CE), a Diploma in Education (Dip. Ed), or a Bachelor of Education Degree (BEd). This professional qualification is attained after three to four years of training. The professional qualifications of teachers were investigated to establish whether History teachers were professionally and adequately qualified. The table below shows the results on professional qualifications of teachers and HoDs.

**Table 4.1**: Professional qualifications of teachers and HoD respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Teachers (n=7)</th>
<th>HoDs (n=7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education</td>
<td>0  0.0</td>
<td>0  0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education</td>
<td>6  86.0</td>
<td>2  29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>1  14.0</td>
<td>5  71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7  100.0</td>
<td>7  100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 reveals that 6 teacher respondents (86%) had a Diploma in Education and 1 teacher respondent (14%) had a professional degree (BEd). The information gathered revealed that all teacher respondents were professionally qualified.
Data was collected to investigate the professional qualifications of History HoDs. Table 4.1 indicates that 2 (29%) HoD respondents held a Diploma in Education and 5 (71%) HoD respondents had a professional degree (B.Ed.). All the History HoDs who participated in the study were professionally qualified as required by the South African Council for Educators as well as the South African government. This means that they were in a position to teach as they possessed the relevant qualifications.

4.2.2. Subject specialization of teachers

The study sought to establish the specialization of teachers since this had a direct bearing on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. The way one conducts lessons is dependent on the knowledge he/she possesses in that field. It becomes easier for an individual to teach a subject where one is an expert compared to a subject where one lacks knowledge and skills. The teacher may lack confidence in a subject where he/she lacks knowledge (Rogan & Grayson, 2003).

The researcher investigated the subject specialisation of History teachers. According to the information gathered, all teacher respondents specialised in History. Nonetheless, it was revealed in the interviews with teacher respondents that some of them, besides teaching History they also taught subjects which had nothing to do with their specialization, for example, Life Orientation, Technology and IsiXhosa. This could impact negatively on the learners, which was confirmed in the interviews with one of the teacher respondents, HT 5 who commented:

*I am teaching other Learning Areas which have nothing to do with my training as well as with my teaching of history. When someone leaves for various reasons, the DoE does not replace that person, and people left behind have to share her/his subject. As a result I ended up teaching Technology in Grade 8 and 9, as well as Social Sciences with History and Geography.*

4.2.3. Subject specialisation of HoDs

The main aim of this question is to assess whether History HoDs had majored in the subject that they were supervising so that they can offer support when necessary, be it to the teachers or to the learners. It is important that any person who supervises certain work is well acquainted with the contents of that particular subject/learning
area (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Table 4.2 below shows the specialisation of History HoDs and the subjects which they taught:

Table 4.2: Specialization of HoDs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialisation</th>
<th>Subjects taught</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>History &amp; English</td>
<td>History &amp; English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography &amp; English</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics, Needlework and Clothing</td>
<td>Life Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English &amp; Philosophy</td>
<td>English &amp; Life Orientation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

It was established that HoD respondents specialised in various subjects as indicated in the table above. Table 4.2 shows that only 2 (29%) of the HoD respondents specialised in History and English and taught those subjects. Two (29%) HoD respondents specialised in IsiXhosa and taught IsiXhosa. One HoD respondent specialised in Geography and English, but taught Tourism, while the other one specialised in Home Economics, Needlework and Clothing yet she taught Life Sciences. The other HoD respondent specialised in English and Philosophy, but taught Life Orientation.

It can be observed that most of the HoDs who supervised History had not specialised in History, except for two (29%) of the respondents. History is supervised by people who lack specialisation. This can have a negative impact on the supervision of the implementation of the NCS History as it is required of HoDs to:
(i) Familiarise teachers with the curriculum documents (NCS) and the interpretation thereof. (ii) Ensure that teachers develop and implement the Work Schedule and Lesson Plans. (iii) Monitor the progress of teachers and provide support where required. (iv) Identify areas which need training or further development of teachers and communicate that with the Phase Head. (v) Identify LTSM and equipment required (DoE, 2000: n15)

The researcher further enquired from HoD respondents on how they managed to supervise History teachers while they were not qualified in the field. Most of the HoD respondents revealed that they had problems in supervising History teachers. This was confirmed in an interview when HoD6 commented:

*Sometimes even if you would have liked to give support to the teacher you do not know where and how to intervene. It also becomes difficult in my case where the teacher although he has majored in the subject, has not been teaching it for many years, such a teacher would need more support than the others who have been teaching such a subject.*

It is important to know the employment status of a teacher, because it may happen that the HoD would not perform well because s/he was not appointed or paid for the work that s/he does at post level 1. The researcher came across such a case where one of the HoDs was not an employed HoD, but was asked by the SMT to perform the supervisory duties because of staffing issues. She commented thus: “*I am doing the work for which I am not paid for, the supervision job, but for the sake of the progress of the school, I am doing it*”

4.2.4. Experience and age of respondents

4.3.3.1. Experience and age of teachers

The experiences of teachers were sought as they had a direct bearing on the implementation of the History curriculum, whether new or old. The researcher noted that experienced teachers are conversant with syllabus interpretation. They understand problems faced by students in their different subjects and topics. They know which topics need more time and which topics usually cause problems for learners. The ages of teacher respondents were also sought as it is assumed that
young teachers are more mobile and may lack experience compared to their older counterparts. It is also assumed that old teachers are more mature and may be more experienced. The teaching experience of History teachers was also assessed and the results are revealed in the table below.

**Table 4.3**: Age and teaching experience of teachers in the service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-65</td>
<td>20+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.3 above reveals that the majority of History teacher respondents 4 (57%) were in the age range of 40-49 years and had 11-15 years experience, while those in the age range of 50-59 years had 16-20 years experience. There was only 1(14%) teacher respondent who was in the age range of 60 years and had more than 20 years of teaching experience. This data revealed that most of the teachers were mature and highly experienced. The data further revealed that there was a correlation between age and experience as old teachers had more years of teaching experience. This could suggest that these teachers who have been in the service for a long time and have served different types of education systems could use their experience as teachers to make the new innovation work. Nonetheless, others can use their experience to resist the change.

4.3.3.2. Experience in teaching History in Grade 11

The experience of a teacher in teaching any subject can either encourage the teacher to resist change, or can make it easier for him/her to implement change, as s/he will know how to adapt and adjust (Ross, 2001: 33). The Table below reveals the experience of History teachers in teaching History in Grade 11:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience in Years</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+ years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

The data revealed that the majority of teacher respondents, 3 (43%) had 20 or more years of teaching experience in History at Grade 11 level. There were 2 (29%) teacher respondents who had 1-5 years of teaching experience in History at Grade 11 level. One of the teacher respondents had 6-10 years and another had 16-20 years of experience in teaching History at Grade 11 Level. It is evident that the majority of teacher respondents were highly experienced in teaching History at Grade 11 Level.

In the old History syllabus as well as the Interim Core Syllabus (ICS) that followed, the History content was arranged into the General History (European and African) and South African History. However, the new History syllabus under the NCS has changed the format of how the content is to be presented (Bertram 2006). In the new History syllabus, History is divided according to themes, whether these are related to European or South African history. Information was solicited through interviews with teacher respondents on whether they were conversant with the new syllabus. It was discovered that all the teacher respondents were not conversant with the new syllabus. HT1 commented:

*I used to know that I will start teaching my Standard 9 History class on the first day with the General History, and continue to do so until June, and then start off with the South African History in July till November before they write their final examinations. Now there is no General History and no South African History, I am just confused. I simply teach those aspects that I am familiar with first and the see the rest after that.*
HT5 commented:

*I am not used to this new History syllabus. Sometimes I am even confused by the fact that I have to mix the European and the South African History. I am also unable to differentiate between Paper 1 and Paper 2, what is assisting me to differentiate is the previous years’ question papers. I am as good as a new teacher in History.*

It can be observed that such situations can have a negative impact on the implementation of the History curriculum.

4.3.3.3 Age and experience of HoDs

The experience of HoDs was assessed as they had an influence in the implementation of the History curriculum. Experienced HoDs are well versed in the implementation and interpretation of the syllabus and supervision procedures. The age range of the HoDs was examined and the results are shown in the table below.

**Table 4.5: Age and Experience of HoDs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-65</td>
<td>20+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.5 shows that the majority of HoD respondents, 4 (57%) were, between the ages of 40 to 49 years and had 11-15 years of experience in the relevant post, 2 (29%) were 50-59 years of age and had 11-15 years of experience. One (14%) HoD respondent was 60-69 years of age had 20 years of experience. Generally, History is managed by experienced HoDs although as indicated previously, the majority of them are not History specialists. There was also a correlation between experience and age. However, the majority of the HoDs were conversant with the old History
curriculum as revealed in interviews. The following are comments from some HoD respondents:

HoD5 remarked:
"My work was much easier in the previous education system because I knew exactly what my duty was. I was monitoring the subjects that I had deeper knowledge of because there were many other HoDs who were monitoring. But now that there is this new system I am just like a newly-appointed HoD. I am now the only HoD in the whole school because two other HoDs left the school through the redeployment of teachers’ process, and I have to monitor even the subjects that I am not familiar with."

HoD6 commented:
"When I assumed the duty of being an HoD, I was assisted by the teacher who was teaching History on some aspects as someone who had not specialised in the subject. But now that we are both on a learning curve it is difficult for me to even interpret what is said in the new History syllabus."

This data revealed that HoDs lacked experience in the supervision of the current History curriculum.

4.3 Delivery of the History curriculum

The training and qualification of a teacher may determine his/her instructional delivery strategies or teaching methods. These can also be determined by the calibre of students one has as well as the subject one is teaching. However, in some situations the choice of methods may also depend on the experience of the teacher and what he/she wants to achieve. This section of curriculum delivery focuses on:

i. Planning of History lessons by teachers.
ii. Teaching methods used to deliver History lessons.
iii. Assessment methods used, and
iv. The performance of learners.
4.4.1. Planning and delivery of History lessons

According to the History Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG), which is a tool to plan for sequential learning, teaching and assessment across Grades 10-12, there are three stages of planning in the FET Band (Schools). History teachers must follow this pattern in their planning for History teaching in this phase (FET):

i. History Subject Framework for Grades 10-12, the actual syllabus for the entire Phase (FET Band, Grades 10-12).

ii. History Work schedule for each grade and, where the teacher is now specifically planning for each he/she is to teach of the three grades, according to the contents that are mentioned in the subject framework, and

iii. History Lesson Plans for each teacher and for each History lesson in a grade.

(DoE National Curriculum Statement, 2005:16-17).

According to the LPG this type of planning assists in the demarcation of content for each grade. It also indicates the sequence in which the content and context is presented in History in a particular grade and the starting point for each grade. All three stages of planning have to be done by History teachers.

Information was sought on whether the teacher respondents did any planning before going to class.

The data reveals 100% of the NCS History teacher respondents did not do planning at any level. This therefore is an indication that there might be a problem because if teachers are not planning, they will not have a guide as to what to teach and when to teach it. The lack of planning by History teachers was confirmed by information solicited through document analysis which revealed that all the seven respondents did not perform the three levels of planning. The researcher further enquired why these teachers were not performing the departmental requirement of planning. It was revealed that plans were supplied by the district Subject Advisor. However, data from the document analysis revealed that there were no lesson plans in their planning files or in the school-based assessment files.

The non-planning by History teacher respondents was confirmed during interviews with teachers. All the respondents indicated that they had never prepared any lesson
plans, and what they simply did was some lesson guidelines to help them deliver their lessons. This was further confirmed by the lesson observations that the researcher conducted as well as the document analysis. The document analysis revealed that in their teaching files there were no prepared lesson plans. The non-planning was confirmed by HT6 who came into class with about three textbooks, but did not have any lesson plan. She lectured from her head assisted by some guidelines she had written on paper with some points she wanted to explain, mainly concepts. When the researcher tried to find out what the reason was for her not bringing the whole plan to class, she responded thus:

I cannot make lesson plans on top of others. There are some lesson plans that have been provided to us by the District Office, unfortunately I am unable to use them as they do not cater for our situations and the type of learners we have.

Interviews with the Subject Advisor revealed that all the History teachers in the district were provided with the entire plan according to the LPG, subject Framework, Work schedules and the Lesson Plans, neatly divided in terms, from term 1 to term 4, just before the learners write their end-of-year examinations. When asked what he thought the reason is as to why the teachers were not using the lesson plans he gave them, he replied thus:

The teachers do not want to link the lesson plans provided with what they want to teach. They see the lesson plans as something that is abstract, and simply reject them without even giving them a try. I have used my experience as a teacher to prepare these lessons, knowing full well that teachers do not have a chance to plan.

The researcher further enquired from the teacher respondents about the lesson plans which were provided by the District Office. Their response was that they did not understand the lesson plans very well and could thus not use them in their teaching. HT5 remarked:
The lesson plans do not cater for our situations/contexts. They start even earlier than we start teaching and they are mainly pace-setters more than teaching guides. Moreover, these lesson plans were never explained to us as Grade 11 teachers like the lesson plans given to the Grade 12 teachers. They were either given to the principals as part of the school mail or to the Grade 12 teachers when they attended their training workshops or meetings.

Nonetheless, although the issued plans were not in the files, data confirmed that the District Subject Education Specialist distributed them. This was confirmed later on during the interviews that some of the lesson plans were not directly delivered to them, but they were either given to school principals with the mail or given to the Grade 12 teachers when they attend their workshops. HoD5 remarked:

**I did not notice at the beginning of the year that there were History lesson plans in the package that the principal gave me. I thought it was all my Geography stuff when he said that it was lesson plans. It was only after I was clearing my table two to three months down the line that I noticed that there were History lesson plans for the first two terms. I have explained to the teacher and apologised to him for that mistake.**

It is evident therefore that teachers in the area under study did not plan. They were issued with guidelines by subject specialists from the district, which they did not use. The guidelines were found to be difficult to use as teachers indicated that they lacked context. They were considered as pace-setters instead of guidelines by teacher respondents. The situation which prevails in the studied area is of great concern as it may impact negatively on the implementation of the History curriculum.

### 4.4.2. Methods used to teach History

It is the duty of a teacher to identify a particular technique which he/she considers appropriate to a particular context and which will best contribute to the attainment of the educational goals. Hence, the researcher sought to establish strategies and teaching methods used by teachers in teaching history since they are an important
component of the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum. It is these methods which determine students' successful interaction with the taught curriculum. The table below shows the methods used in the teaching of History at Grade 11.

**Table 4.6: Teaching methods used by teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Lecture method</th>
<th>Whole class discussion</th>
<th>Group discussion</th>
<th>Demonstration/Presentation</th>
<th>Question &amp; answer</th>
<th>Text book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HT1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT2</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT3</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT4</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT5</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT6</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT7</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6 (86%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>4 (57%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.7 above shows that the majority 6 (86%) of teacher respondents used the lecture method which is one of the traditional approaches to education where the teacher tells the learners, who have to listen. There are no discussions with the learners in which they can voice their views or opinions on any particular topic. The table further reveals that some teacher respondents, 4 (57%), used the group discussion method and only 1 (14%) of the teacher respondents who participated in the study used the presentation or demonstration method to deliver lessons, while 1 (14%) of the teacher respondents used the textbook method.

Table 4.7 further indicates that only HT6 used a combination of 4 different methods; that is the lecture method, class discussion, group discussion and demonstration while three teacher respondents (HT2, HT4 & HT7) used a combination of the lecture method and group discussion. Table 4.7 further indicates that HT1 only used...
the textbook method and HT3 and HT5 used the lecture method only in her/his History lessons.

It was found that most teacher respondents used teacher-centred approaches to deliver their history lessons. Although some teachers preferred using child-centred approaches such as reading from text books for the students and group discussion methods, some used question and answer, whole class discussions as well as demonstration/presentation. However, there were a few who used a combination of more than two methods. Teachers gave various reasons for using teacher-centred approaches as indicated by the comments from interviewed teacher respondents.

HT1: the learner-centred methods are delaying the learners’ progress and when examinations come they are far behind in the syllabus as the Grade 11 papers are set by the Provincial Department of Education.

HT5: I did not have any other option, but to give the learners notes and then explains them afterwards because we do not have textbooks to give them to read.

From lesson observations conducted by the researcher, most learners in the Grade 11 History class seemed not to be involved in the lesson. As the teacher wrote notes on the board some of them were not writing because they were busy with other things.

HT6 remarked:

Lecture method is still the best according to me, especially for the Grade 11 History syllabus which is full of concepts which need explanation, so I cannot let them do it on their own because time to finish the syllabus is not on my side.

It can be observed from the data presented above that most History teacher respondents used a variety teaching strategies to deliver their lessons. Only a few used the lecture method. This is one of the traditional ways of teaching History and is mostly teacher-centred. Furthermore, the interviews revealed that the reason why teachers use this type of approach instead of a more learner-centred approach is
because it is the fastest and can help them to put up with the pace-setter. During the discussions, HT1 made the following comments:

_The learner centred approach does not work with our children, because they cannot learn on their own. They are used to being spoon-fed. If you do not teach them, they will know nothing, and you will have to struggle with extra classes trying to make for the time you have wasted. At the end of the year when the common paper comes, you will be left alone when they cannot answer it._

Although this type of approach saves time, the NCS requires that learners must do work and think for themselves so as to be able to solve problems in future. The teacher should be a facilitator of learning experiences and not the centre of learning (Harley, Barasa, Bertram, Mattson and Timm, 2000). The fact that teachers primarily used the teacher-tell method was further confirmed during the class observations carried out. Even when one of the respondent teachers made reference to sources after having delivered her lesson, she actually told them what to look for in the sources. She did not let them find out for themselves in order to link this with what she already told them during the lesson. When asked the same question as to why she did not use this teaching method, HT6 commented thus:

_It is no use to let them find out everything for themselves. There is a stage where you must tell them, because the History syllabus in Grade 11 is full of concepts which are difficult to understand for the learners at this grade unless they are actually taught by the teacher. Furthermore, to allow them to learn and find out for themselves will be a waste of time because even if I asked them to do a homework they to do not that._

The information collected revealed that the majority of the teachers used learner centred methods although a few used teacher-centred method on occasion.
4.4.3. Assessment methods used by teachers

According to the Subject Assessment Guidelines and the National Curriculum Statement (2003), assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning, and should therefore be part of every lesson. Teachers should plan assessment activities and such activities should complement learning activities. Examination of the assessment activities administered to learners by teachers was carried out as stipulated in the Programme of Assessment by the Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG) for History. There are six tasks undertaken during the year, which are: two tests, one mid-year examination, one source-based and extended writing, one heritage investigation and one oral History or enrichment assignment. Hence the researcher sought information from the teachers on how the learners are assessed. Table 4.8 below shows the results.

**Table 4.7: Assessment methods used by History teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Respondents</th>
<th>Source-based and extended writing 1</th>
<th>Tests 2</th>
<th>Heritage Investigation 1</th>
<th>Mid-year examination 1</th>
<th>Oral history, research for enrichment assignment 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HT1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HT7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 indicates that the majority of teacher respondents follow the programme of assessment as planned by the DoE, fulfilling the minimum requirements of assessment activities in History Grade 11. All teacher respondents said they gave their learners control tests and some were given even more than the required
number. The information gathered through document analysis revealed that some of the teacher respondents did not mark learners’ work. This was confirmed in a focus group interview with learner respondents. One learner from FGD2 stated: “We sometimes write many tests and do not get any feedback. Our teacher does not mark them”. The ensuing data analysis confirmed what the learners said, as some of their work which was still with some of the teacher respondents was unmarked. Data further revealed that teachers gave tests more than other forms of assessment. Teacher respondents indicated that they gave the learners more tests than the other types of assessment, because it allows for the speedy return of feedback. This was confirmed by HT6 who remarked:

*We have been used to this type of assessment since we were at school and see it as the quickest way of getting the feedback. Whenever one gives learners a test he/she makes it sure to get one answer from one question, unlike the new types of assessments where there are many possible answers.*

According to the DoE Assessment Instruction 18 of 2004 on the Regulation of Assessment in Schools, control tests have to be moderated before they are written by learners. The question papers together with the marking guidelines have to be signed by the HoD (DoE, 2004). This can be done after s/he has some discussions with the teacher concerned, gave him/her support, and where necessary altered certain sections so that it could meet the standard of assessment for the grade under question as well as the requirements per the work done. The documents analysed showed that all the tests which were not controlled before they were written and that in one school the question paper did not have a marking guidelines/marking grid.

The information gathered revealed that some of the tests were not moderated because of lack of knowledge by the HoDs. This was confirmed by one of the interviewed teacher respondents. HT1 explained thus: “Even if we took the tests to the HoD for moderation before it is written, she returns it as it is and tells us that she has just signed it because she does not know what to correct”.

The documents confirmed what one learner said about some of their work being unmarked. The response of the teacher was:
Sometimes you start marking the test, but along the way you find out that you have marked about four to five scripts in a class of 20 and find that all those you have marked are doing badly. You then become angry and stop marking the whole class to give them another chance to rewrite it.

The teacher went on to say that he knew what he was doing was wrong, but sometimes because of pressure of wanting the learners to pass you end up acting drastically. Sometimes one ends up not marking the whole class and asks them to re-write the test without being certain first of who had passed the test and who had failed.

The researcher further enquired during the interviews about whether the teacher respondents followed the Programme of Assessment that they were required to follow. Teacher respondents said that they did not follow it to the letter as revealed by HT1:

*It is difficult to follow the programme of assessment to the letter because some of the activities in the programme consume a lot of time. From the previous years’ experience, some of the learners do not co-operate in such activities as they do not keep the records of continuous tasks. Some do not submit and others submit late.*

4.4.4.1. Performance of learners

To determine whether learning is taking place, the demonstration of the performance of an outcome must be assessed in order to determine whether the learner has achieved the outcome at a specific level or grade (Maree & Fraser, 2008: 30). The performance of learners in the NCS History in Grade 11 was sought in order to determine whether the learning outcomes for Grade 11 were achieved.

The researcher did not get a positive response from the teachers regarding the recorded marks as not all of them were willing to give her these documents. From the few that she could access, the following could be noted:
The performance of learners during assessment was not as convincing as their participation in class. When the researcher looked at mark lists, she found out that only a few fared well in the exercises they had written during the year. Most performed badly, especially in the Mid-year Examinations. Asked about their performance during assessment, some learners said that sometimes the teacher would teach them for a long time before s/he assesses, and by then they would have forgotten most of the information. Others said that their teachers did not even tell them when they were going to write an assessment task. About the examination, learners said that a lot was asked of them, and even during the Mid-year Examination they had to write a common paper which was based primarily on the previous years’ papers with many unseen source-based questions. This was confirmed by some of the learners. One respondent from FGD2 commented:

*It is difficult to pass the tests because sometimes our teacher does not tell us where and when we are going to write the test in order for us to prepare for it.*

Another one from FGD2 added thus:

*The papers that are used in the examination are some of the papers from the previous years and they are sometimes difficult to understand as some of them have historical sources that we are not familiar with.*

The data gathered established that the performance of students in the implementation of the History curriculum was affected by language barrier, in that learners in all the schools which participated in the study were IsiXhosa first language speakers, yet they were taught in English. The amount of work and the language used in the source based questions, as well as the code switching used by teachers, was confirmed by learners.

One respondent from FGD1 commented:

*We have a problem to understand English especially during examinations as we are used to code switching during lessons. Teachers use IsiXhosa and English at the same time.*
One respondent from FGD3 added:

*Our teacher could not finish the syllabus and therefore most of the class scored lower marks than when we could have finished. There was still a lot of content that was to be done and our teachers told us that we must read some of the topics on our own because time was almost up for teaching.*

Another respondent from FGD1 commented,

*The other problem we have is the language used in asking some of the questions. We are also not familiar with the sources from which the questions are asked.*

Another respondent from FGD3 also commented:

*We do not do any practical that will relieve us from class. Unlike other subjects like Geography, Tourism, Physics and others which sometimes go to the laboratory, go outside to see the land forms or even go to hotels to find information, we are always indoors.*

### 4.4.4.2. Practical activities

According to the National Protocol on Assessment for the Schools in the General and Further Education and Training Band (Grades R-12) (DoE, 2003), classroom assessment should be undertaken to provide an indication of learner achievement in the most effective and efficient manner by ensuring that achievement is collected using various forms of assessment. This includes practical activities which should be conducted periodically. Classroom assessment should be both formal and informal. In both cases, feedback should be given to learners to enhance their learning experience. The table below shows the frequency with which teachers conduct practical activities.
Table 4.8: Frequency of conducting practical activities by teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practical activities done</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Respondents gave different responses on the frequency of practical assessment, ranging from weekly to once a year and never. Three teacher respondents (43%) said they gave practical work to their learners weekly while 1 (14%) respondent said that she conducted them monthly. The remainder each indicated quarterly, once a year and never, respectively.

Interviews with teacher respondents revealed that the teacher who conducted practical work only once, conducted practicals when they visited a Heritage Site with learners. The documents analysed revealed that this project was well planned. The learners were properly guided as to what to look for at the Steve Biko Institute. The information gathered revealed that there was confusion on the provision of practical assessment. Some teachers said they gave their History learners practical tasks weekly, because they thought that this was a continuous project and others thought that practical activities meant class discussion.

Nonetheless, an interview with the subject advisor clarified the issue. He explained that practical activities mean something that the learners engage with in class, for example, drawing maps and designing collage. He further explained that there was no need to consider the Heritage visits (excursion and field trips) a practical task because it was an aspect of the Programme of Assessment which stands on its own. The Subject Advisor remarked:
The fact that teachers were confusing issues confirms that they were not using the planning documents given to them, because if they were using them they will be able to separate Heritage from practical activities. Heritage is one of the core curricular aspects of the History syllabus.

However, according to information solicited from teacher respondents through interviews, this explanation is not provided in the document which they have to follow, nor did the Subject Advisor explain it to them. HT1 responded thus:

_We cannot know something that is not explained in the subject Statement which is supposed to be our guiding document. The Subject Advisor did not explain this to the Grade 11 History teachers either._

Nevertheless, it can be observed from this discussion that some History teachers do not know exactly what to do in terms of practical activities and when to do them. The fact that some of them could not differentiate between a practical and a Heritage activity confirms this.

The researcher enquired regarding informal assessment. All the above methods in table 4.9 are formal methods of assessment as stipulated in the National Protocol on Assessment (NPA). According to the NPA (2005), informal assessment is the daily monitoring of learners’ progress. This is done through observations, discussions, learner-teacher conferences, informal classroom interactions and short assessment tasks completed during the lesson by individuals, pairs, groups or homework exercises. The NPA document also states that, informal assessment should be used to give feedback to the learners. Informal assessment activities were also assessed during the lesson observation as well as document analysis as part of the learning experience.

The Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG) states that the results of the informal daily assessment tasks are not formally recorded unless the teacher wishes to record them as part of the programme of assessment (SAG, 2007). The same document also states that teachers may, however, use the learner’s performance in
these assessments to provide verbal or written feedback to learners, the School Management Team and parents (SAG, 2007).

The data from class observation, by the researcher, revealed that teachers during the lesson observation did not give their learners any of the informal activities, but taught the whole period of 55 minutes. Some teacher respondents did not even ask some questions to link their lessons with the previous ones. In their subject recording sheets, there are spaces provided to fill in the marks for the informal activities, which were left blank. This was confirmed by learners in one of the schools visited said:

*We sometime write class work or short class tests, but our teacher does not give us our scripts back. When we ask for them he would sometimes say that we have all failed or that he was just checking whether we understood what was taught and did not allocate any marks.*

The information gathered revealed that the HoDs did not check whether teachers carried out informal assessment because they had no guidelines. This was confirmed by HoD5 as she remarked:

*We do not have any guidelines as to what forms of informal assessment we have to look for, the exact number per term per year as well as the weight each informal assessment is in the total continuous assessment mark schedule. It is really difficult to evaluate the work when you are not given the tool to do so.*

The researcher further analysed the documents, looking into the teacher respondents' files/master portfolios for evidence of them giving the learners informal written assessment. They revealed that although, in some schools, there were marks of these informal assessment exercises they were not moderated or signed by the HoD and, in others, there was no evidence of such work.

### 4.4.5. Class size

Class size is an important factor in the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum as it determines the sharing of resources and it has an effect on the teacher’s management skills and teaching methods. The class size has a bearing on
the strategies used by teachers on instructional delivery as well as on teacher effectiveness. The Ministry of Education in South Africa requires that the teacher-learner ratio be 1:35 by the year 2000 for secondary schools (DoE 1995). A big class can be difficult for young and inexperienced teachers to manage. Hence information was sought from the teacher respondents regarding the sizes of classes they were handling. Table 4.10 below shows class size.

**Table 4.9: Size of classes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of learners in history class</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 and less</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

The researcher investigated the teacher-learner ratio as it has an effect on the learners and teaching methods of educators. The information gathered revealed that there was low teacher-learner ratio as indicated by the majority of teacher respondents in Table 4.10. Four (57%) of the studied schools had about 11-20 learners per history class. Table 4.10 further indicates that 2 (29%) teacher respondents had a normal class of between 21 to 30 learners, while 1 (14%) teacher respondent indicated that she/he had an abnormally big class of 51-60 learners.

Data on class size was also solicited from teacher respondents through interviews. One teacher respondent said that the class size had an effect on her teaching of History. HT1, who had many learners in her class, commented: *It is difficult to control the class, with many learners, let alone the class setting of a sitting arrangement. They are seated in the old style of looking in one direction instead of sitting in groups.*
Consequently, the effect of class size was confirmed by the researcher through class observation. The seating arrangement was the old style, with learners facing one direction. Since the class had 54 learners, it was difficult for the teacher to move in between the rows, and this made it difficult to assist learners in their groups.

Document analysis revealed that HT1 had difficulty assessing her learners through written tasks because of the marking load which was daunting. She said that mostly she gave learners oral assessments, especially the question and answer method to link lessons. When asked why she had such a big class in History, she responded thus:

> Initially the class size was not a problem because there were three class groups for History at Grade 11 until one History teacher left the school through the redeployment of teachers’ process and we then had to bring all the three class groups to one class.

It can be noted that the majority of schools that were included in the study had small classes. However, although only one teacher respondent had a high number of learners, others had relatively low numbers of learners. From the information gathered through the interviews, it was established that, although the teachers had few learners, there was no difference in the teaching load as they still have to prepare for these learners. One teacher respondent, HT5 had this comment:

> Even though I have a lesser number of learners, the work load is one and the same. I have to prepare for teaching as if the class is full. The problems I experience in the few learners equals to a full class. They are not manageable because they do not do what you tell them. When it comes to marking their work, the work is less as there are fewer scripts to mark.

4.4.6. Use of the Subject Guidelines

Subject guidelines, are the documents provided by the DoE to assist and guide teachers in their teaching of the subject. Subject guidelines are important in this study because they are the guiding documents for the implementation of the NCS in History. They outline exactly what should be done in class by whom and when it should be done. They include: Subject Statement for History, where the actual
syllabus is and all the changes that are stipulated and their rationale (DoE, 2003); the Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG); planning guidelines for the teaching of History (LPG, 2005) as well as the Subject Assessment Guidelines (SAG, 2007); the assessment guidelines and programme of assessment.

Information sought from teacher respondents revealed that all of them had the syllabus and yet none of them used it. Interviews revealed that although the schools had the new syllabi, they did not follow it. One teacher respondent confirmed the non-use of new History syllabus. HT5 remarked:

*I have not started to implement the new syllabus. This syllabus is demanding and it needs a lot of time and resources which we do not have. Furthermore there are no clear topics that are to be dealt with as it used to be with the old syllabus.*

However, one teacher respondent indicated that she would love to implement the new syllabus because when she compared the examinations question papers with the new syllabus NCS, she discovered that examination covers the new syllabus, and that it is more informative and has the latest information. HT6 had this to say:

*It is unfortunate that I did not receive training for the implementation of the new History syllabus; otherwise it is a good document if one can implement it. The problem I have now is that I am not sure whether I will be doing the right thing if I do as I think it to be.*

Interviews further revealed that, although the above-mentioned documents are present in all schools, they are understood by neither the HoD nor the teacher. When asked what they used as a syllabus to teach History in the NCS to the children in grade 11, one teacher said that she used the contents of the textbook as a syllabus. HT5 responded:

*These documents are not understood even by my HoD. She is unable to take me through so that I can use it. I am now using the contents page of a textbook to guide me to teach.*
One of the most experienced educators in teaching History compared the training in the use of this document to the ones that were used before the new curriculum was introduced, and commented thus:

_When the (Interim Core Syllabus (ICS) was introduced, teachers used to be called to Hlaziya Institute for In-service Training at the beginning of each year to be given new skills on how to implement that syllabus, step-by-step in each grade of History._

The non-use of the Subject Statement further highlights why learners are failing History in Grade 11. It is because the textbooks which they use as a syllabus do not approach certain aspects in the same manner. This also confirms why teachers did not have the required number of assessment activities, as they were not using the SAG.

Interviews with the Subject Advisor revealed that Grades 10 and 11 teachers were not taken through the use of these documents, as it was taken for granted that the Grade 12 teachers were also teaching Grade 10 and 11. He commented thus on the training for the use of the Subject Statement:

_We have been inviting Grade 10-12 History teachers to our workshops at the beginning of the year for training. However, I must admit that we have not gone through the document as we know that it was dealt with in the initial training._

He further noted that this should be considered as a matter of urgency. Document analysis which was carried out further confirmed that these documents were put in the teachers’ cupboards, not in their files. When the researcher asked if the NCS History teacher respondents did not have the Subject Guidelines, they confirmed the availability of these documents.
4.4 In-service training programmes for teachers (Continuous Professional Development of Teachers)

In-service Education for Teachers (INSET) is a term widely used to refer to planned activities practised both within and outside schools primarily to develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of professional staff in schools (Lloyd & Hall, 1988). This is sometimes referred to as continuous professional teacher development (CPTD).

In-service training programmes are important aspects of any school development programme as they are meant to build the capacity of the organization’s personnel. They are primarily meant to increase the level of competence of teachers, in syllabus interpretation, instructional delivery and classroom presentation (Rhodes et al., 2004). These programmes can either be conducted internally or externally, that is, by the school HoDs, Deputy Principals and Principals, or outside school agencies (District Subject Advisors, Education development Officers and other Education Advisors from the Provincial and National DoE as well as NGO’s) respectively. In-service training programmes in schools are conducted by the Deputy Principals and HoDs. Outside agencies like Subject Advisers, district education officers and other interested stakeholders can also conduct these in-service training programmes at school level. They are meant to improve teachers’ Instructional competence. At the school level INSET is primarily the responsibility of the deputy school head and head of department.

4.5.1. Training of History teachers

One of the aspects which determine the quality of education is the teachers’ training. Teachers need to constantly upgrade their knowledge of the subject (Ross, 2001). It has to be noted that majority of history teachers were given initial training to update their knowledge on the new History curriculum. Teachers were given the initial training at the beginning of the implementation of the NCS History and they were promised other workshops were to follow within the district. These courses were to range from two to three days a week at the most. The table below reveals the frequency in the in-service training of History Grade 11 teachers since the introduction of the NCS in 2007.
Table 4.10: Training received by History teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of times the teachers were trained</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One time</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two times</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(key: n=7)

Table 4.11 shows that the majority of educators, 5 (71.42%) have not received any in-service training on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum in Grade 11 after the initial training. Interviews revealed that the 2 (29%) who have received training are those teachers who are also teaching Grade 12 in their schools. It was also revealed that in schools where Grade 11 teachers were not teaching Grade 12 classes, no training was received.

Interviews with teacher respondents revealed that teachers were summoned to training on the implementation of the NCS in 2006; however, only one teacher per school was invited. Most schools sent the Grade 12 teachers and, in some schools, Grade 12 teachers are not teaching in Grade 11. This was indicated by one of the teacher respondents. HT1 commented:

*When an invitation comes to our school calling the FET Band History teachers, the Principal would only release the Grade 12 teacher to go for that particular event whether it is a meeting or training. In my school, each of the grades in the FET Band (Grade10-12) has its teacher, and because there is sometimes no time to share information, we end up not meeting. So even in this one we were not surprised that only the Grade 12 teacher was sent.*
HT5 commented:

*If the government wanted to train all the History teachers, it should have consulted the Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) forms which it consults when appointing markers and see who teaches History at which grade in which school. We teach even if we were not trained because we have to teach.*

Consequently HT6 remarked:

*It is so unfortunate that I am also teaching in Grade 12 but I did not get any training in preparation for the implementation. The teacher who taught History in the FET Band was trained, but he died. I am now battling with the implementation.*

Interviews also revealed that at the beginning of each year, Grade 12 History teachers are summoned to a 2-day workshop where they are given the examiner’s report on the previous year’s examination papers and a plan for that year is rolled out. Such workshops, as the Subject Advisor later explained are aimed at bridging the content gap. This was also confirmed by the Subject Advisor who indicated that when they summon teachers to workshops, they summon the phase teachers. They train the Grade 12 teachers on the assumption that they will teach Grades 10, 11 and 12. The History Subject Advisor commented thus:

*Whenever we issue out invitations we state that we want history teachers for the whole phase, which is Grades 10 to 12. We are not sure how the schools interpret that and in the workshops when there are few grade 10 and 11 teachers we take it for granted that Grade 12 teachers are also teaching Grade 11.*

Interviews with the Subject Advisor revealed that teachers were offered capacity building programmes on how to teach History in the NCS manner and how to assess learners. They were also trained on the participation of core curricular such as activities like participation in Africa Day celebrations and Heritage celebrations. He
further elaborated that he developed two sets of workshops which take the teachers through the teaching and assessment of History in the NCS. This data revealed that the majority of Grade 11 History teacher respondents were not trained on the implementation of the NCS History.

The researcher also asked about the evaluation of the training programme. On this issue HT1 remarked:

_The content of the Grade 11 History syllabus was not dealt with even in the workshops that the FET (Grade 10-12) teachers were invited. Only the Grade 12 content is emphasised in preparation for the final examination and trying to highlight what the examiners said went wrong in the previous examination. If the Grade 11 History cluster can be called and be given a clear guideline just like in the case of Grade 12, things could be easier._

HT6 remarked: _Training and discussions in these workshops are not mainly aimed at Grade 11; rather a large part is concerned with Grade 12._

4. 5. 2 Training of History HoDs

Among the people who had to be trained on the implementation of the changes in the History curriculum were the HoDs so that they can monitor and give support on the implementation of changes. This is what is known as the ‘survival guide’ for implementation. Information on whether the HoDs were given such a guide so that they would know where and when to give assistance to History teachers was sought. (‘survival guide’ - researcher’s term for a document guiding the HoDs on how they must go about monitoring the subject and giving support as well where needed to the History teachers). Table 4.12 reveals the results on whether the HoDs were trained before the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum.
Table 4.11: Training of History HoDs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of the workshops</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once yearly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.12 above reveals that none of the History HoD respondents were ever trained on how to go about monitoring and giving support on the implementation of changes in History, under the new approach. Interviews with History HoDs revealed that, it was only after some schools were included in the Matriculation Intervention Programme (MIP) that supervisors were called in and asked how they would go about monitoring the work. Even in these meetings, there were no specifications for subjects, and the questions were general. A comment made by HoD1 confirmed this when she said: *The Department of Education does not give training before the implementation, then when there is a crisis it will call in people and want answers as to why there is a high failure rate.*

HoD6 also voiced her frustration at the silence shown by the government on the training of HoDs, saying: *The government wants the school supervisors to be puppets who, although they are leaders are blind. It wants us to read all the files it gives us without giving us a clue where we have to feature.*

It was further revealed that the number of learners determines the number of teachers in a school, and this also affects the History HoDs.. The fewer the number of teachers the fewer the number of HoDs, but the number of subjects remain the same for each learner. It becomes difficult for a HoD to master all the contents of the subjects s/he has to monitor in the implementation of the new curriculum. Interviews also revealed that what the HoDs are doing in the moderation of Grade 12 work, is
just ‘mark audit’ rather than moderating the requirements of work to be covered in that particular grade, at a particular time. This was because they did not have the proper training on the implementation of the NCS in History let alone the content of the subject. The data revealed that teachers did not receive adequate training in the implementation of NCS History.

4. 5. 3 On-site workshops and staff development plans.

The on-site workshops are supposed to be conducted by History HoDs. The study sought to establish whether HoDs have conducted any on-site workshops. The respondents indicated that no on-site workshops were held in their schools by either the HoDs or the Subject Advisor. Some even said that these workshops were planned during their first departmental meetings but they never materialised, sometimes because there are many other activities that are taking place within or outside the school as indicated by one teacher respondent. HT6 remarked:

There are lots of unplanned activities to which teachers and principal are invited from the part of the District office. This disrupts the school plans, some of them one is forced to attend because there are many of changes that are brought by the implementation of this new curriculum. Sometimes one is afraid that she might miss out something.

The failure to conduct on-site workshops and staff development programmes was also confirmed by the teacher respondents and the Subject Advisor. HT5 remarked:

I invited the Subject Advisor more than two times to come and help us with some content and some tactics on the implementation of History on site with the Grade 10 and Grade 11 classes, but he did not come.

This claim by the history teacher was confirmed by the Subject Advisor who commented thus: It is sometimes difficult to visit all the schools for Grade 10 and 11. I am planning to do more of cluster training in future. It can be concluded that teachers lack support from both HoDs and Subject Advisors and that there are no on-site workshops and staff development workshops conducted by administrators. This could have a negative impact on the implementation of the History curriculum.
4.5 Classroom and teacher resource materials

Classroom Resource material support the learner's book/teacher's guide. This is material that is kept in the classroom for the learners’ use. This can be regarded as the classroom library (DoE, 2005). During the classroom visits undertaken by the researcher, there was no evidence of classroom resource material, not even some extracts hanging on the wall to enable learners to analyse pieces of daily news or news headlines in all the three schools. Teacher’s resource material is material designed to help teachers supplement the core texts of their subject. They provide valuable information to help the teacher improve on their facilitation skills and subject information delivery in the classroom (DoE, 2005). During the classroom visits and the documents analysis, there was evidence that teachers were indeed using the teacher’s resource material. They were also in their files and some have designed their own material, for example, collecting pictures from the current affairs and writing summaries for their learners.

Interviews with subject teachers revealed that teachers were unable to leave any material in class because some learners would damage them. HT6 remarked:

*It is difficult for me to leave History materials in class because not all the learners in the class are doing History. Some of the learners deliberately damage maps and paper clips left on the classroom walls. Even those who do the subject may damage the materials and make a scapegoat with those who do not do the subject.*

4.5.1. Learning and Teaching Support Material (LTSM)

The main teaching-learning support materials that a school needs to have for proper teaching and learning of History are: Subject Statement, LPG, SAG, textbooks and maps/atlases. The availability of the learning/teaching support material was also assessed to find out whether learners have enough resources to learn and whether the teachers have enough resources to assist them in giving them proper instructions. The results are presented in Table 4.13 below.
### Table 4.12: availability of LTSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LTSM type</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Statement</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPG</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAG</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.13 above reveals that the majority of the schools have resources. Only one school did not have textbooks as indicated by the percentage rate of available textbooks. Discussions with the school’s History teacher revealed that, textbooks were ordered by the school but unfortunately the teacher who had been teaching History in Grade 11 fell sick and there were no proper channels for the learners to return the departmental books.

Schools have policies to lend textbooks and other learning material to learners which they are required to return at the end of each year of learning after they have finished writing the end-of-the year examinations. Interviews with the History HoD of the same school revealed that the school was not aware that there were no History books in Grade 11. HoD5 had this to say on the absence of History text books:

*Records of departmental books that were issued to History Grade 11 learners are readily available in the principal’s office. So learners who did not return the departmental books can be asked to return them.*

She went on to say that she doubted if the issue was about History textbooks, and said that she suspected that it was all about the teacher not wanting to teach the subject. Interviews revealed that HT5 did not want to teach History because he had not been teaching the subject for a long time, as there was somebody who was teaching it. Hence he was not acquainted with the new History syllabus.

The information gathered revealed that all the schools had maps and atlases as teaching resources. Nonetheless, interviews with the learners revealed that the
maps and atlases were not properly utilised. In one of the schools learners said that they have never seen their teacher bringing maps/atlases into their History class. Learning Outcome 1, which is about the historical enquiry, requires that learners identify places where imperialism took place, and the only way in which they can identify such places is through the use of maps. Information gathered revealed that while the maps and other learning materials were available they were never used during History lessons. Teachers confirmed the availability of maps and atlases in their schools. They argued that they did not see the need of bringing atlases to class because the textbooks have maps. HT1 remarked: *The textbook that I use to teach has maps which I refer the learners to, which is the reason I do not bring any atlases to class.*

4.5.2. *Selection of learning-teaching support material (LTSM)*

All the teacher respondents said that they selected the LTSM for their Grade 11s, because they were given the right to do so. When asked whether they knew what aspects they had to look for when choosing the best learning teaching material for NCS History for Grade 11, they were not quite sure. However, history teachers said that they were given a number of samples to look through and choose that which considered most relevant. The response from the interviewees showed that History teachers were not given some guidelines on how to select LTSM. HT1 remarked:

*What was most confusing was the fact that there were many textbooks that one had to choose from, and I just chose without making any comparison. The result of that uninformed choice, I had to order another textbook as the one I had chosen did not assist me.*

Although they were not given the guidelines for the selection of the material, they said that the material they chose was relevant and user friendly in terms of content and the language used is understood by the learners. Some schools said that they used more than one textbook. HT6 commented:

*The reason I am using so many textbooks is that we are required to order textbooks almost every year. In the first year I ordered irrelevant textbooks as I lacked knowledge on the aspects to look for. Then the following year I*
discovered that a lot of things were missing in the textbook that I was using as such I had to reorder the relevant textbooks.

One of the duties of the HoD is to assist teachers in the selection of LTSM (DoE, 2000). Some HoDs were involved in the selection of such material, especially in schools where the HoD knows the subject. However, some HoD respondents indicated that there were many books that were not used in their schools although they were still new. HoD6 commented thus:

There are still new unused books and material in the library. It seems as if the government is aware that it had not done enough to train teachers on how to choose the LTSM and is now letting schools to top-up orders to fill in the gaps. Teachers then order material they do not know how to use.

Contrary to what the teachers are saying, the department claims that it trained teachers on how to select LTSM. Discussions with History teacher respondents revealed that only one teacher in each school was trained on how to fill in the order book and not on the selection and contents of each subject. HT1 remarked:

The invitation that schools received was mainly on book exhibition organised by the publishers. Either than that, one person was trained by the principal on how to order the LTSM chosen by the teachers.

It can be observed that although many schools had the necessary materials, they did not use them because they claim that they never got any training on how to choose these materials. The data further revealed that there was an overstock in terms of text-books.

4.5.3 Availability and Use of audio-visual equipment
Audio-visual aids are learning materials used by teachers to assist learners to understand a particular concept or topic. In the Manual for School Management, they are referred to as ‘labour-saving devices’ (DoE 2000). Such equipment includes television sets, DVD’s, Overhead Projectors, computers as well as cassettes. The assessment of the use of audio-visual equipment was carried out to check whether
the teachers of History in Grade 11 use them as instructional aides during teaching and learning. The table below shows the results.

**Table 4.13:** Availability of audio-visual aids in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of audio-visual aids</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television sets</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVD’s and cassettes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)

Table 4.14 shows that all schools which participated in the study had TV sets as well as cassettes and DVDs. 5 (71%) of the schools had computers. This means that all the schools could allocate time to view these instructional aides, if the cassettes and DVD’s ordered were relevant to the topics that have to be covered in History Grade 11. The data in Table 4.14 further indicates that there were few-3 (43%) schools with OHP. The researcher further inquired as to how often the teachers used these audio visual aids. The results are shown in Table 4.15:

**Table 4.14:** Regularity on the use of audio-visual aids by teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortnightly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.15 indicates that although television sets are present in schools they are not fully utilised by History teachers and learners as the majority, 6 (86%) of teacher respondents indicated that they never used them. Only one teacher respondent used them once a week. Interviews with teacher respondents revealed that there was not
enough time to take the learners to the audio-visual centres/computer centres to watch some of the cassettes. One teacher (HT1) mentioned another problem with the DVDs; that she ordered two sets of DVDs, which she viewed before taking them to class. She found out that they were not relevant to the syllabus. She further remarked:

*If at least the publishers can give us the CDs and DVDs to view before we order it will be fine, or even invite the History teachers to a preview. Publishers should not advertise titles of certain aspects of the History syllabus which are not on the DVD’s.*

The non-use of television sets for teaching purposes in History was further confirmed by learners in one of the schools. They said that they were always looking forward to going to the resource centre to watch History programmes which learners from other subjects like Maths and Physical Sciences did. They further said that they had only watched used television in English lessons and never did on History lessons. HL10 commented thus: *We have never been in the computer centre to view some cassettes on History lessons. I am not sure whether there are any video cassettes relating to Historical issues.*

The researcher enquired on how often the teachers used computers as instructional aides. The responses are shown in Table 4.16 below.

**Table 4.15: Use of computers as instructional aides by teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visiting Period</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortnightly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Key: n=7)
Table 4.16 indicates that the majority of teacher respondents 6 (86%), did not use computers as instructional aides. However, only one teacher respondent used computers as instructional aides and this was done fortnightly. All the respondents said that the reason they did not use computers is that they were never trained on how to use computers as instructional aides. One respondent said that he was unable to even use a computer, let alone use it to teach. HT1 commented, “I am not able to use computers as a result I cannot use them as instructional aides”. It was further revealed during interviews that two schools were each sponsored with 25 computers by MTN in 2010, and the facility was still new in their schools. They looked forward to the training by the sponsor. This information reveals that schools did not use computers because they were not trained.

4.6 Monitoring and Support

Changes in the education system need proper monitoring and support plans for those who will be on the ground implementing the curriculum. The people who are supposed to be monitoring and giving support to the teachers at the school level are their immediate supervisors, HoDs, Deputy Principals and the school principals. Schools can also get support from outside the school, through District Education Specialists and Subject Advisors (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

4.6.1. Class Visits

The role of the deputy principal of a school and HoD is that of getting things done effectively through class teachers. According to their job description, they are supposed to manage the curriculum section of the school and give support to teachers in addition to conducting some class visits (DoE, 2000). Class visits are mainly for developmental purposes and feedback. The HoD has to observe the instructional delivery by the teacher, check both learners and teacher records during class visits and provide feedback (DoE 2000). The staff will work well if they see that the administration takes note of their work and constantly reinforce them according to their performance. They will work well if they are properly briefed on what is expected of them and on changes taking place. The table below shows the class visits undertaken by the HoDs in order to monitor the teaching of History.
The table above indicates that 3 (43%) HoDs did not conduct class visits while the other 3 (43%) indicated that they conducted class visits. One of the teachers that were not visited in class indicated that he was only visited for IQMS purposes, and not according to the departmental plans the draw as a group. HT5 commented thus:

What the HoD does is to take the programme that has been drawn up by the IQMS co-ordinator and make it hers. She does not follow the plan that she makes us to draw at the beginning of the year.

HT1 remarked: Class visits are either conducted at the beginning of the year or towards the end of the year for IQMS purposes. During the year when one most needs support there is no time for such visits.

Data revealed that History HoDs did not conduct class visits because of lack of expertise, as already indicated in the previous sections. This was confirmed by HoD6 who commented that: Even if I go to class it will not mean anything because I do not know a thing about History.

The information gathered reveals that another reason why HoDs do not to conduct class visits was lack of time, lack of expertise and the shortage of human resources. HoD5 made the following comment:

The other problem that we have is that of limited time to do all these things that the government wants us to do. There is also shortage of human resources which makes it difficult for me as HoD to visit the class.
Implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum suffers from a lack of supervision as indicated in this data presentation.

4.6.2. Inspection of work by the District Official/Subject Advisor

There are four levels of evaluation for implementation, the school, the district, the province and the national levels for the work that is written as stipulated in the Assessment Guidelines (SAG, 2007). All the respondents said that there was no inspection done by district officials at their school. This was confirmed in an interview with one teacher respondent.

HT1 commented:

*Schools used to be evaluated by a panel of inspectors in the old education system. Inspectors would choose the school they wanted to evaluate and nobody would ask why because everybody knew that it was a routine to check whether the government policies were implemented. During this time of democracy everybody is doing as s/he pleases and inspectors have to visit schools by appointment.*

She went on to say that even the Subject Advisor would not come for on-site support, which s/he is supposed to be doing. An Interview with the Subject Advisor confirmed this concern regarding a lack of quality assurance by the District officers. He said: *although the requirements have been stipulated by the Subject Statement, the LPG and the SAG, there had been no plans to evaluate whether these were taking place in the schools at Grade 11.* This study established that there were no school inspections conducted by Subject Advisers. The implementation of History curriculum could be affected by the lack of quality assurance on the part of the district personnel.
4.7 Summary
The implementation of the NCS History seems to have many challenges. The data gathered revealed that Grade 11 History teachers were not trained in preparation for the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum. Only Grade 12 History teachers were trained on assumption that they were also teaching Grade 11. This can have a negative impact on the implementation of History NCS in Grade 11. It was also revealed that History teachers were not trained on the selection and use of the NCS History related LTSM. The solicited information revealed that teachers were not using the NCS related strategies to teach History in Grade 11. Finally, it was established that in most cases History teachers were not receiving support from HoDs, Deputy Principals, the Subject Advisors and the District education department. The HoDs, Deputy Principals and the Subject Advisor did not monitor the progress of the implementation of NCS History in Grade 11. The following chapter will discuss the findings of this study.
Chapter 5

Discussions

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a discussion based on the findings and results of the data presented in Chapter 4. The discussion is centred on five broad themes that formed the cornerstones of this study, namely: the capacity of teachers, (training of History teachers in preparation for the implementation of NCS History in Grade 11), the delivery of the curriculum, (methods used by teachers to plan and deliver lessons in the NCS History curriculum), the understanding of the curriculum statement by teachers, in-service training programmes in schools (continuous professional development), the availability and use of the learning-teaching support material (LTSM) and, monitoring and support given to NCS History Grade 11 teachers by the schools and by the District Education Office (Subject Advisor).

5.2 Teacher Capacity

One major determinant of the quality of education is the teacher. In the design of training programmes, it is critical to pay attention to the level of a teacher’s knowledge of relevant subject areas and teaching experience. When courses fail to take the teachers’ level of knowledge into account, implementation of the reform will be hampered (Goodwin, 2010). Kareem, Bing, Jusoff, Awang & Yunus (2011) concurs with Goodwin (2010) as they point out that it is self-evident that professionals cannot perform their roles without specialised knowledge. The classroom teacher can be viewed as one of the key implementers of the NCS in the History curriculum. As curriculum implementers, teachers must be knowledgeable on curriculum issues such as syllabus interpretation, as well as planning all of which are dependent on teacher capacity.

According to Rogan and Grayson (2003), there are factors which influence whether teachers change and how fast they change, such as the teachers’ content knowledge and training. If teachers are well trained to do their job, they will be able
to accept any change that will enhance the teaching of their subject. Empirical
evidence from a study by Bajah (1991), cited in Phakisi (2008), indicates that well-
trained teachers are better able to understand the complex structure of their
curriculum, while this could be confusing for the under qualified teachers.

Teacher capacity includes characteristics such as qualification, teacher training and
teachers’ experiences. However, these qualifications alone, without motivation,
cannot produce the needed results. Teachers need to be motivated so as to be
productive. This implies that the quality of service rendered by an unmotivated
teacher could affect the academic achievement of learners (Asikhia, 2010). This
study sought to find among issues the professional qualification of NCS History
teachers.

5.2.1 Professional Qualifications of NCS History teachers

It is sometimes perceived that the qualification of teachers has an effect on the
performance of learners. It is critical to pay attention, in the design of training
programmes, to the level of a teacher’s knowledge of relevant subject areas and
teaching experience. However, there are contrasting views of the effect of teacher
qualifications on student learning. A study by Asikhia (2010) in Nigeria revealed that
teachers believed that learners’ poor academic performance was not influenced by
the teachers’ qualification while students felt that teachers’ qualifications did actually
affect their academic performance. The difference in perceptions could be because
students have high expectations of teachers who teach them and believe that any
teacher who does not meet such expectations will not aid their academic
performance. Khurshid’s (2008) report supports learners’ perceptions that their poor
academic performance is influenced by their teachers’ qualifications.

The current study reveals that the majority of History teacher respondents were
professionally qualified to teach History as they had the relevant diplomas and
teaching degrees (See p.81 Table 4.1). Most of these teachers had specialised in
History, hence they had the relevant content knowledge and skills to teach this
subject. Mosha (2004) and Rogan and Grayson (2003) point out that the teacher’s
level of training have an effect on the implementation of any programme. They
maintain that the level of training and the teachers’ content knowledge can influence how fast they change.

The study of poor performance in Grade 12, in one of the Provinces in South Africa by Legotlo, Maaga, Sebego, van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Nieuwoudt and Steyn (2002), revealed that the shortage of professionally qualified educators contributed towards the failure of learners. Contrary to this History teachers that were interviewed were all qualified teachers. Okoye et al. (2008), concede that no matter how efficient and well intentioned an administrator can, s/he can hardly achieve success without the support and co-operation of well qualified, dedicated and adequate staff.

5.2.2 Subject specialisation

The capacity of teachers includes variables such as specialisation and experience. The teachers’ own background, training and level of confidence and their commitment can affect the implementation of a programme (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). According to Rogan and Grayson’s theory of implementation, schools with non-specialist teachers might find it difficult to implement the designed programme.

The study found that all the teachers who taught History had specialised in the subject. This study further established that learners were taught by teachers with diplomas and degrees that were relevant to the subject content in the particular subject. This is contrary to what Seleti (2002) found in South African provinces on the implementation of NCS in History, that teachers in this subject were either unqualified or under qualified. These individuals were trained as teachers. Therefore, it becomes easy for them to impart relevant knowledge and skills to learners. Naturally, directed curriculum could be distorted by teachers who lacked knowledge, skill and initiative to adapt and adopt the curriculum plan. The success of the History curriculum can not only be achieved by these specialised teachers as they also have to be dedicated to the execution of their duties, for them to produce good results. The study found that some of the HoDs who supervised History had not specialised in History, except for only 2 (29%) respondents. Some of the HoDs who supervised
History had specialised in other subjects like Geography (see p. 86 Table 4.2). This study confirms the findings by Seleti (2002), that History is supervised by people who lack specialisation. The lack of specialised personnel is a cause for concern in this area as it may have a negative effect on the skills development of students. This could have a negative impact on the implementation of the NCS History curriculum. HoDs who supervise teachers have to be knowledgeable in the subjects which they are supervising, because they do not only have to monitor the work done by teachers, but they also have to provide support (Kelly, 2006).

5.2.3 Teachers’ Experience

One of the elements of the foundation of this study was that teachers’ experience had an effect in the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum as well as skills development. The findings of this study established that the majority of teachers had more than 10 years of teaching experience. Vonk’s (1991:70) study of the problems of beginner teachers revealed that:

i) many problems originate from the fact that beginners have too little pedagogical content knowledge, ii) the lack of overview makes classroom teaching so complex for most beginners that problems with classroom discipline, classroom management, are inevitable, iii) most beginners have a perspective on their role as a teacher which is too optimistic, and are not prepared for meeting and dealing with unmotivated learners; but in the case of respondents that the researcher worked with, this was not the case. Contrary to what Vonk (1997) said, these teachers were not beginners as they had many years of experience in service (see p. Table 4.3) and could easily deal with learner discipline and motivate them.

The experience of History teachers were in line with Fullan’s (2001) implementation of change model and Rogan and Grayson’s curriculum implementation theory, that it is the experienced teacher who is able to use the relevant teaching methods in class, understand the interests and learning needs of the students, and the content, as well as the use of the relevant materials (Fullan, 1991, Hunkins & Ornstein, 2004; Rogan & Grayson, 2003).
This study found that the majority of teacher respondents were highly experienced in teaching History at Grade 11 level (See p. 86 Table 4.4), which may assist them with the content of the subject. According to Kareem et al (2011) the teacher serves as a resource and an agent, developing curriculum in committees, implementing it in the classroom and evaluating it as a teaching team. Hence it is the teacher through his/her experience who has to translate curriculum from theory into practice. Therefore History teachers who have ten years of experience would find it easy to execute their duties effectively and efficiently as it could be easy for them to interpret the syllabus.

The study also found that teacher respondents had taught the same subject in the same grade for a long time. In most cases these teachers are perceived to be conversant with numerous teaching strategies and teaching methods as well as the interpretation of the History syllabus (Ross, 2001). However, teachers with a lot of teaching experience in the same subject and grade may resist change because they are comfortable in teaching the same concepts in the same way. Nonetheless, the findings of this study differ from those of Ross (2001) as it was found that History teacher respondents were not comfortable with teaching the new History curriculum under the NCS. In addition, experienced teachers have their own unique understanding of the education policy. Day and Smethem (2009), concedes that teachers present their resistance in unique ways. Many have been teaching for many years and have developed their own ways of doing things- "old recipes work', which are fitting in their situation. Teachers are basically reluctant to abandon tried and tested methods for new ones, which they are afraid may fail. This relates to teachers who doubt their own ability and fear that they may have to learn a lot of new things. Hence they will have to work harder and consequently they resist the policy process even more.

Additionally, the poor performance of learners in History could not be attributed to the experience of teachers as most of them were experienced. It could be attributed to other factors such as learner motivation, inadequate supervision by HoDs and the support of subject specialist.
As mentioned in Chapter 4, (see p. 86 Table 4.4) the majority of HoDs who responded to the questionnaires (57%) had more than 20 years experience as HoDs. This means that they were supervisors even before the present government since the Education Act no 97 of 1996 came into existence in 1994 (DoE, 2003). Their experience put them in a better position to know how to monitor, give support to those they were monitoring and evaluate the progress towards the implementation of the new curriculum. However, this experience could be the one that makes them rigid towards accepting changes in the system. This is because they may be more comfortable with the work they were doing in the old system of education as one of the History teachers commented:

I am not used to this new History syllabus. Sometimes I am even confused by the fact that I have to mix the European and the South African History. I am also unable to differentiate between Paper 1 and Paper 2, what is assisting me to differentiate is the previous years’ question papers. I am as good as a new teacher in History.

According to the Theory of Change on Curriculum Implementation by Fullan (2001), resistance to change can be as result of habit, that is, the familiar is preferred. Organisms continue to respond in their accustomed way. In a similar manner people enjoy doing things in the way in which they have always done them. Discussions with the HoDs revealed that some of the HoDs followed the old education system to the latter as one of them commented:

My work was much easier in the previous education system because I knew exactly what my duty was. I was monitoring the subjects that I had deeper knowledge of because there were many other HoDs who were monitoring. But now that there is this new system I am just like a newly-appointed HoD. I am the only HoD in the whole school and I have to monitor even the subjects that I am not acquainted with. This teacher-learner ratio system is killing education as two HoDs and Deputy Principal had to leave the school through redeployment of teachers.
As the HoD was saying these words one could actually see the frustration in her face. She went on to say that even if the SMT who were Post Level 1 teachers were helping, some other teachers would comment that they did work for which they were not paid. The only person, who is paid to do the job, is unable to do it due to pressure of work.

According to Rogan and Grayson’s (2003) curriculum implementation theory, school management plays a major role in the implementation of the curriculum. If the school is in disarray and does not function well, innovation cannot or will not be implemented (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). Evans (2002) argues that it is self-evident that professionals cannot perform their roles without specialist knowledge. The findings of this study also confirmed previous studies by Chisholm et al. (2003), which revealed that South African supervisors lacked knowledge of the subjects that they were supervising due to the redeployment of teachers’ process, as well as the mobility of young and energetic people to other fields like business.

5.2.4. Training of History teachers for the implementation of NCS History in Grade 11
The study looked at the training of teachers for the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. The main aim was to assess whether teachers were trained for the implementation of a new History curriculum as it was an innovation. McLaughlin (2002) argues that all successful curriculum change projects depend on implementation strategies that include effective staff training. A case study of Curriculum Reform and Implementation in Indonesia (1994) confirmed that the key to getting teachers committed to an innovation is to enhance their knowledge of the programme. The report goes on to say that this means that teachers have to be trained and workshops have to be organised for professional development.

Research suggests that professional development is an essential part of improving school performance (Hargreaves, 1994; Bolam, 2000 cited in Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney 2007). Coolahan (2004) argues that the best CPD should be conducted within the school environment and it has to consider both the interests of the education system; personal and individual needs of the teachers. Furthermore, a
study conducted by Flutter (2007) found that many innovations were not successfully implemented because teachers never fully understood the nature of change.

This means that History teachers have to be trained in the implementation of the NCS in the studied area. A study conducted by Schoeman and Manyane (2002) on Understanding the Introduction of Outcomes-Based History Teaching in South Africa, recommended that a specialised in-service training programme for History teachers should be offered by colleges of education and universities, guided by the principles of the discipline and by the utilisation of skills and proficiencies of the OBE approach to teaching.

This study found that there was no in-service training conducted to enable the Grade 11 teachers to implement the NCS in the History curriculum (See p. 108 Table 4.11). The study revealed that the invitation to train teachers on the implementation in 2006 was extended to only one teacher per school, and schools decided to send Grade 12 teachers for training. Non training of the Grade 11 teachers could affect performance of the Grade 12 learners. According to the DoE (2003), Grades 10-12 are to be treated as one education phase; the FET Band where a learner has to achieve the said LOs and ASs at the end of the Phase which is Grade 12. There are certain ASs for Grade 10, as well as Grade 11 and for Grade 12, which are supposed to build up from a lower level to the highest in the phase.

It also emerged that most of schools in Fort Beaufort District had only staff meetings and subject staff development workshops for Grade 12. These decisions could impact negatively on the implementation of the History curriculum by Grade 11 teachers as they may lack the relevant and modern teaching techniques. Above all, the implementation change model advocates for in-service workshops among staff members so as to equip them with relevant skills and to boost their confidence (Fullan, 1991; Ornstein, & Hunkins, 2004). A professional’s knowledge, therefore, also becomes outdated at an ever increasing rate, hence the need for a continuous updating of knowledge and skills.

Report of the Task Team for the Review of the National Curriculum Statement (2009), the teacher hearings and submissions were unanimous in suggesting that
current teacher development policies to support the curriculum were often too
generic and superficial and did not provide the needed support to teachers. They
made it clear that addressing the need to upgrade teachers’ skills would not be
appropriate with a ‘one size fits all’ approach. Similarly, Adhikari (1993) and Motseke
(2005), cited in Naong (2008:168), report that the majority of respondents in their
studies on Overcoming Challenges of the New Curriculum Statement carried out in
South Africa, mentioned that their professional training did not prepare them for
OBE, because the DoE’s workshops were:

(i) too short (a few hours or days at the most, one week), (ii) too theoretical (only
lecturing in one big venue, no demonstrations), and (iii) too late (in some areas, up to 3
months after the introduction/implementation).

If teachers lack support such as professional development programmes or in-service
training they might find it difficult to implement the desired programmes (Rogan &
Grayson, 2003). This therefore, jeopardizes the implementation of the NCS History
and students’ skills acquisition. Data presented reveals that the majority of history
NCS in Grade 11 did not receive any training to prepare them for the implementation
of the new curriculum. The Grade 11 History teachers were denied the chance to be
together during workshops and share their experiences and challenges in the
implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum. The lack of external support in
terms of staff development workshops has impacted negatively on the development
of skills for both teachers and learners leading to the poor performance of the
schools. In-service workshops, administered by the district subject advisors would
have afforded teachers opportunities to share ideas and discuss curriculum issues at
a wider spectrum and enhanced their skills for curriculum delivery.

The Rogan and Grayson curriculum implementation theory emphasises the need of
external support in order to improve the implementation process of a programme
(Rogan & Grayson, 2003). According to this theory, the failure to successfully
implement the curriculum could be attributed to the incapacity to support innovation.
Because quite a number of teachers were untrained on the implementation of the
NCS in the History curriculum this could lead to the new curriculum not being
implemented. This challenge is not only faced by South African schools, as
confirmed by Rogan and Grayson (2003), who concede that the lack of subject matter knowledge by teachers found in other parts of the world is also a major problem in those countries.

Among the people who should be trained on the implementation of changes in the History syllabus, were HoDs so that they could monitor and give support on the implementation of these changes. This study revealed that History HoDs were not trained to monitor and give support to history teachers. This could have a negative impact on the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum as HoDs will not know exactly what to look for when they monitor the situation and also they are not able to even offer support to the History teachers.

5.3 The delivery of the curriculum

Curriculum delivery in the new approach lies with the learning programme, which entails curriculum processes such as design, instructional planning, assessment and the development of learning to reach the outcome (Van der Horst & Mc Donald, 1997)

5.3.1. Planning and Delivery of History lessons.

According to the History Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG, a tool to plan for sequential learning, teaching and assessment across Grades 10-12), there are three stages of planning in the FET Band (Schools) (DoE LPG, 2005). This is a new approach to planning (Naong, 2005:168). This is confirmed by Vandeyar and Killien (2003) who state that when the new approach to education was introduced in the country, teachers were required to follow a new approach to planning, teaching and assessment. The study found that none of the teacher respondents were doing any planning in the 3 stages of planning as stipulated in the LPG. Such an omission could lead to poor delivery of History lessons as plans guide an individual in his/her presentation of lessons.

The study also revealed that the Subject Advisor gave History teachers some prepared plans based on the three levels of planning, namely: the Subject
Framework, the Work Schedule and the Lesson Plans neatly divided into terms, from Term 1 to Term 3. This move by the Subject Advisor was in line with the recommendations of the Task Team for the Review of the NCS (2009) in that:

The three levels of planning must be rationalized and duplication in the process must be addressed. Each teacher should have a single Teacher File for this purpose. The Teacher File should consist of an annual work schedule; assessment plan; formal assessment tasks and memoranda; textbook to be used; and a record of each learner’s marks per formal assessment task. Planning should indicate sequence, pace and coverage and teachers should be encouraged to use good textbooks and teacher guides for planning purposes. At the school level, the teacher-developed year plans and assessment plans need to be consolidated to form a comprehensive year plan for the school. There must be no duplication of administrative work (pp.29)

The study revealed that although the Subject Advisor has made this effort to develop the planning of teachers, they were not going according to the plan. An interview with the Subject Advisor further confirmed that the planning and delivery of NCS History lessons is encouraging, as it guides the teacher in what to teach in class that day. Jewell (1994) confirms that those who place a high priority on the learning process argue that it is impossible for schools to cover important matters properly. Therefore History teachers should deliver content in a systematic and progressive way which requires that learners grapple with what they are learning.

5.3.2. Methods used to teach History.

Teaching methods are devised to make learners autonomous and free them from constraining supervision. An emphasis is placed on direct motivation and involvement of the learners (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). The new approach to learning under the NCS is on the Outcomes-Based approach to teaching which requires learner-centeredness, as the learner is oriented towards reaching the desired outcome at the end of a lesson or phase in a Learning Area (DoE 2003). This is confirmed by Schoeman and Manyane (2002), who say that, a learning outcome describes what the learners should know, knowledge, information, skills, attitudes and values.
The outcomes-based approach to teaching is not something new in the teaching learning field. In Zambia, as early as the 1970s, Garvey and Krug (1977:2) introduced what can be labelled an ‘innovation concept’ in the learning and teaching of History. Their concept of ‘studying history’ encompassed a hierarchy of increasingly more complex ways of learning the subject, ways that could easily be conceived as broad products or learning outcomes. Therefore, the success of implementing the NCS in the History curriculum is dependent on the teaching strategies used by teachers, which aim at achieving the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards of History in Grade 11.

This study revealed that teachers used a variety of teaching methods to teach History in the NCS, some of which were learner-centred and others teacher-centred. The study revealed that some of the teachers used the child centred approach such as group discussions presentations and/or demonstrations which allowed skills development and learner involvement (See p. 92 Table 4.7).

Some teachers used a combination of the learner-centred and teacher centred approaches because they felt that there were concepts in the History syllabus which needed these approaches. The study also found that some of the older teachers were not using the learner-centred approach to teach History in the NCS. These teachers may be resistant to change (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). Citing the reasons which may lead to teachers resisting change, Nkomo (1995: 28), notes the following:

(i) Self distrust that is hesitation on the part of parents, teachers and administrators to correct malpractices. Many people do not have self-confidence and are therefore very hesitant to start doing new things on their own and as pioneers of the new ideas. (ii) Insecurity and regression, or in other words, the tendency to flee change by seeking security in the past or in fantasy life. (iii) Individual variables in knowledge utilisation. This is the sense of competence and self esteem. Individuals with less confidence in their abilities are less willing to try out innovations. They reject the new and strange because it constitutes a threat to their competence (fear of failure).

The problem of using a teacher-centred approach seems not only to be affecting the studied schools only as Sall et al (2009) concede that to improve the quality of education in Sub-Saharan Africa, it requires teachers to be trained to become
genuine educational professionals who are capable of using active and stimulating communication techniques that place students at the centre of learning. It has to be noted that History in the NCS is skills-based and therefore needs teachers to use relevant teaching methods in order for students to acquire those skills. The researcher has also discovered that faculty resistance to formalized instructional improvement and curricular change builds not because teachers lack desire or capacity to improve, but because, collectively, teachers value their autonomy, worry about their ever-increasing workload and time constraints, and are, by nature, averse to risk and change.

The findings of this study were that some teachers used perception instructional methods due to shortage of textbooks. The use of lecture methods did not allow students a chance to explore their environment thereby limiting learners’ creativity. Sall et al (2009) argue that pedagogical methods and strategies are feasible and efficient only if they are backed by adequate teaching materials, aids and equipment. It has to be noted that the use of strategies does not guarantee that students will acquire the relevant skills and knowledge. According to Brown (2004), learners’ characteristics can also be a determinant in the implementation of any educational change and teaching in general. Learners’ willingness to learn is one of those factors. The other important factor which can affect the learning situation is the class size. The pedagogical methods practised by teachers depend largely on the class size.

5.3.3. Class size

The size of the class and their modes of functioning are determined by political and economic factors. These factors are subject to numerous internal and external matters. The size of classes and effective modes of functioning depend directly on the number of schools and classrooms available, as well as the number of students and teachers available (UNESCO, 2004).

Class size is of paramount importance where students are to develop practical skills. These students have to receive teacher assistance and have access to adequate equipment. The quality of teacher-student interactions, the frequency of homework and the opportunities offered to students to discuss and exchange ideas in class
depends on the number of pupils in the class. The teacher-learner ratio as per government requirement in South African high schools is to be 1:35 (Motseke, 2005).

This study reveals that the majority of History teacher respondents had less than the stipulated teacher – learner ratio in their classes (See p. 103 Table 4.10). This gave teachers a chance to monitor individual learners and provide them with the necessary assistance. Small classes are manageable and there is high teacher student contact time. Class size remains a key topic in school quality debates. Evidence suggests that quality education (in terms of student achievement) is associated with a small class size (Darling-Hammond 1998).

According to Sall et al (2009), the quality of teacher-pupil interactions, the frequency of home work, and the opportunities offered to students to discuss and exchange ideas in class depends on the number of students in class. These researchers further argue that teachers are reluctant to resort to active and participative methods, and to divide pupils into small groups, when there are too many pupils for the space available.

On the contrary, this study also revealed that there was one school which had a high teacher pupil ratio. According to an interview conducted by Levy (March, 2011) to Bill Turque, it is better to have a class of forty students with one effective teacher, than a class of twenty-two with an ineffective teacher. This discussion goes on to reveal that smaller classes dilute the benefit of effective teachers. This study further noted that the teacher with more learners only used one teaching method, the textbook method.

5.4 Learning and teaching support material (LTSM)

One of the major objectives of this study was to investigate how History teachers selected these LTSM, the availability of LTSM, as well as the facilities in the NCS History curriculum. School facilities can determine the effectiveness of curriculum implementation. Teachers need adequate instructional resource materials which include textbooks, teaching aids and stationery which need to be supplied in large quantities and on time.
This study reveals that all the schools which responded to the study were well-resourced in terms of physical facilities like classrooms, libraries, laboratories as well as school halls where learners could have their discussions. The environment in these schools was conducive for learning. This is a factor over which educationists are generally in agreement. According to Mji and Makgato (2006), students perform well if there are adequate resources with regard to classrooms, libraries, textbooks, finances and relevant curriculum. This confirms Rogan and Grayson’s theory which argues that the shortage of materials is an important factor in the implementation of a programme and the capacity of teachers can be affected by this factor.

One of the most important LTSM in curriculum implementation is the curriculum guidelines (references). Curriculum guidelines are the actual syllabus and the documents that seek to guide the teacher through clear implementation steps. These curriculum guidelines are provided to all schools by the DoE. The guidelines that this study refers to are: The National Curriculum /Subject Statement for History in the Further Education and Training Band (Schools) Grade 10-12, which is the syllabus for the subject; the Learning Programme Guidelines (LPG), which guides teachers towards proper planning; and the Subject Guidelines (SAG), which guide teachers towards subject assessment plans and activities.

This study reveals that all teacher respondents had these documents (See p. 114 Table 4.13), but were unable to use them because they were not conversant with them in addition to being difficult to interpret. The failure of teachers to use guidelines could result in them teaching incorrect subject matter and would therefore impact negatively on the implementation of NCS History.

Stronkhorst and van den Akker (2006) point out that those curriculum material guidelines can play an important role in the implementation of a new curriculum as they could clarify for teachers the implications of innovations and how they can be implemented. They should provide clear guidelines about how lessons should be executed, as well as having a clear direction on how to go about implementing the new curriculum. They help to reduce the initial concerns of teachers regarding the implementation of the innovation. It can therefore be concluded that if History
teachers were not using curriculum guidelines and instead used the contents of different textbooks as a guide, it means teachers may have taught a different History curriculum from the planned one. This is in line with the views of Glatthorn et al. (2006) who concede that the planned curriculum is not the taught curriculum. Teachers interpret, change, ignore and selectively choose how they will implement curriculum policy edicts (Ball and Bowe, 1992; Cohen and Ball, 1990).

In the studied area textbooks seem to contribute immensely towards the development of both technical skills and knowledge as they are the source of information. Fullan’s (1991) model of change confirms that textbooks are an important factor in the implementation of curriculum. This study also reveals that History teachers selected the History textbooks themselves; unlike the old education system wherein the planners selected the textbooks that they wanted to be used, with the content they wished for learners to learn and teachers to teach (Van den Berg & Buckland, 1997).

Interviews with the respondent History teachers, however, revealed that History teachers were not trained in the selection of these materials, either by the District Office or by the HoDs. The Manual for School Management (2000) and the Provincial Curriculum Guidelines (2010), states that, assisting teachers with the selection of LTSM is one of the duties of the education officials. Because these teachers were not assisted in the selection of such materials, this has resulted in some material going unused because it was not relevant.

Teachers complained that they were expected to perform tasks, such as developing learning materials, which were best placed in the hands of experts (DoE, 2009). Other LTSM related complaints were that some provinces had not provided sufficient textbooks for learners over the years. Contrary to the findings of this Task Team, there were no such problems as shortage in the schools in which this study was conducted.

Another important LTSM in the implementation of the curriculum is the use of audio-visual equipment, which the manual for School Management (DoE, 2000) refers to
as ‘labour-saving devices’. This equipment assists teachers in instructional teaching, because they can take a few hours to explain what the teacher has taken a week to explain to the learners. These equipments include the television, overhead projectors and computers including the pre-prepared programmes used in them like DVDs and cassettes.

This study revealed that although most schools had these instructional aides (See p.117 Table 4.14 & 4.15); they were not using all of them. It was established that the only instructional aide used by schools was a television, despite the fact that many schools had other instructional aides. Another important labour-saving device that did not come up in the earlier discussion was the photocopier, which all the respondent schools had. Non-use of these audio-visual aids may be attributed to lack of capacity as confirmed by this study that teachers in schools with computers were to be trained in due course.

5.5 Monitoring and Support

5.5.1. Monitoring and support at school level (SMT)
The power base of an administrator is organizational authority and that of the supervisor is expert knowledge. With regard to this, the Deputy Principal and the HODs are primarily the experts as they are subject specific individuals (Hargreaves, 1998). The DoE (2000n-15 stipulates that, among the roles of school management including HODs, is the selection and ordering of LTSM, co-ordinating the work of teachers in the subject and managing the activities of teachers in the subject. It further states that the HoD is to familiarise teachers with the curriculum documents (NCS) and the interpretation thereof, ensuring that teachers develop and implement the Work Schedule and Lesson Plans as well as monitor the progress of teachers and provide support where required. The HoDs are to identify areas which need training or further development of teachers and communicate that with the Phase Head, identifying LTSM and equipment required. They also have to conduct regular meetings with teachers in the subject (DoE, 2000). This is in accordance with the views of Jenkins, Graff and Miglioretti (2009), who say that monitoring involves visiting classrooms, observing teachers at work and providing feedback.
This study revealed that the majority of HoDs did not execute some of these duties efficiently as stated in the Manual for School Management (See p. 120 Table 4.17). This was contrary to Rogan and Grayson’s theory of implementation which states that teachers need support from their supervisors. It emerged from this study that teachers did not receive assistance from their heads of departments since they did not visit classes to inspect teachers’ record books and learners’ exercise books. The study further established that although staff meetings were held in schools, there were no instructional development meetings within those sites.

Efficient management of curriculum implementation also implies attending to aspects of monitoring, assessment of the implementation progress and provision of regular feedback to the implementers (English and Larson, 1996, Hord, 1995). Miller (2000) argues that the results obtained from monitoring the progress facilitate ‘reviews of practice’. Fullan (2001) and Hargreaves (2001) see monitoring as a form of potential action research conducted by both the SMT and teachers, provided that the implementation process is informed by their daily and contextual experiences. Therefore, successful management maintains a learning cycle, in other words, reflection in action among the implementers (Rhodes, Stokes and Hampton, 2004).

The failure to execute the duties and roles of HoDs could be blamed squarely on the lack of training as well as ignorance on their part, as revealed by the results of this study. The study also established that the HoDs were overloaded. The findings of this study confirm those of The Task Team on the Review of the NCS (2009) which states that there is a lack of clarity around the roles and responsibilities within school management teams for the mediation and implementation of the curriculum. This pertains to principals, but is most crucial to HODs. According to this document (Task Team on Review of NCS) it is not clear to what extent schools deploy phase or subject heads, although their duties have been spelt out in the Manual for School Management (2000).

Poor implementation of programmes through lack of clarity among the implementers is confirmed by the Fullan’s model of change (Fullan, 1991). Rogan and Grayson’s theory of implementation concedes that those charged with the implementation of
change need to be supported in a variety of ways, and need to be enabled to communicate and collaborate with one another (Rogan & Grayson, 2003).

According to Wanzare and da Costa the overarching purpose of monitoring is to enhance teachers’ professional growth by providing them with feedback regarding effective classroom practices. In the case of teachers in this study, there was no monitoring and this means there is no feedback and support for these teachers.

5.5.2. Support roles of Subject Advisors roles.
There are also more general issues pertaining to the role that districts play in the implementation of the curriculum. This is a crucial and often neglected level of curriculum implementation, which requires urgent attention (Task Team on the Review of the Implementation of NCS (DoE, 2009) The duties of the Subject Advisors were not clear at the beginning of the implementation of the NCS and there were just posts without any people attached to them. It was not until 2008 that many subject Advisors were appointed in the district under study. Duties of Subject Advisors (Provincial Curriculum Guidelines (PCG) (2010) includes the following:

i. Co-ordinate all curriculum functions relating to all subjects within the district and schools, with special focus on the exit points of grade 12.

ii. Administer all curriculum services and procedures and distribute policy guidelines regarding curriculum issues.

iii. Monitor NCS policy implementation and development.

iv. Guide and support teachers, organise on-site support, monitoring and evaluation of all curriculum programmes.

v. Co-ordinate the orientation and training of teachers to promote professional development.

vi. Effective management, co-ordination and implementation of assessment policy.

vii. Establish and maintain curriculum structures that will be instrumental in the implementation of the curriculum.

viii. Organise and manage the proper utilisation of the section budget.
Contrary to what was indicated in PCG (2010), this study established that Subject Advisors did not guide and support teachers, organise on-site support, monitoring and evaluation of all curriculum programmes for Grade 11 teachers. The study further found that they did not co-ordinate the orientation and training of teachers to promote professional development. It was revealed that Subject Advisors only concentrated on Grade 12, neglecting Grade 11 teachers who lay the foundation for Grade 12. This could be disastrous as a lot of the syllabus content could be misinterpreted and may not be covered by these teachers who lack the relevant skills for teaching the NCS History.

The study also found that the Subject Advisor could not carry on with his duties at Grade 11 effectively as a result of time constraints. This is contrary to Fullan’s model of change which states that any change should be allocated the correct time to be effectively implemented. According to the Task Team on the review of NCS (2009), Subject Advisors have also suffered from a lack of clear role specification. They are responsible for the collection and delivery of examination papers in some provinces, for training in IQMS in others, and with a number of other tasks not directly related to curriculum and its delivery. In other words, their role in supporting, mentoring and supervising the curriculum in relation to particular subjects and learning areas has been undermined. In addition, subject advisors are reported to be over-stretched in terms of what they are required to do, with some districts lacking Subject Advisors in certain learning areas and too few subject advisors covering too many schools (DoE, 2009).
5.6 Summary

In this chapter the major findings show that schools lack the capacity to support the implementation of the NCS History in Fort Beaufort High Schools at Grade 11, as propagated by the Rogan and Grayson theory of implementation. This has negatively affected the performance of learners in terms of skills, knowledge, values, and attitudes. The skills acquisition of learners has also been greatly affected by the non-use of the new NCS Subject Curriculum Statement for History and the accompanying documents on planning and assessment. The findings show that, as a result of the non-use of the Subject Guidelines History NCS teachers taught different curricular, because they used different textbooks content pages and not guidelines. Thus the planned curriculum is different from the implemented one. The study also revealed that there was no monitoring and support given to History NCS teachers, within the school. The study further established that Subject Advisors have failed to supervise curriculum implementation and improve classroom practitioner and teaching methods through CPD programmes.

The next chapter provides a summary of the study, the major conclusions that were drawn from the study as well as some recommendations that could be adopted by policy makers in an effort to address the problems facing the NCS History in Fort Beaufort High Schools.
Chapter 6

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

This chapter draws together the key elements, lessons and questions of the study. It is divided into three parts; summary, main findings and recommendations.

6.2 Summary of key ideas

The study sought to assess:

i. The training of History teachers for the implementation of the NCS.

ii. Methods used by teachers to teach the NCS History.

iii. The selection and use of the LTSM for NCS History by teachers

iv. The understanding and use of the curriculum guidelines by Grade 11 NCS History teachers

v. The monitoring and support given to History teachers by both the schools and District Offices of Education.

To achieve these objectives the researcher adopted a mixed method approach which is imbedded in the post-positivist research paradigm. The post-positivist research paradigm attempts to increase our understanding of the way things are and makes us realise that objectivity is an ideal which can never be achieved, and that research is conducted with greater awareness of subjectivity. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies assisted the researcher in striking a balance and between the two methodologies so as to avoid being subjective on issues like teacher capacity, teaching methods, monitoring and availability and use of LTMs. Post-positivists acknowledge that people can understand things from different perspectives and proposes a number of different answers to the same issue, as it is constructed in an individual’s mind. O’Leary (2004) claims that post-
positivists see the world as ambiguous, variable and multiple in its realities, “what might be the truth for one person or cultural group may not be the truth for another”.

This method assisted the researcher in seeking answers and views on the implementation of the NCS History in Grade 11, from different people in different communities. The choice of respondents was influenced by their engagement with the studied phenomenon, and their opinions were therefore sought. The strength of this method was that it used both quantitative and qualitative data. This gave the researcher a wide section of data collection instruments. The researcher had to opt for questionnaires, interviews, document analyses and observations.

The researcher was able to deliver questionnaires to History teachers and HoDs in the Fort Beaufort District of Education. This allowed respondents to offer their views, opinions and perceptions freely on issues of implementing the NCS in the History curriculum in Grade 11. The researcher also had an opportunity to interview History teachers, HoDs, History learners as well as a District Education Officer (Subject Advisor) on the implementation of the NCS in History curriculum. This method gave the researcher an opportunity to dig deeper with regard to the respondents on what teaching methods were used by teachers to teach History in the NCS, how they selected and used the LTSM, what support History teachers received from both within the schools and the District office of Education. It was not just probing deeper during the interviews, but the researcher went as far as going to the History classes to observe teachers teaching and learners learning. This was in line with the work of Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) who noted that observation is a technique that can also be used when data is collected through other means and is difficult to validate.

This methodology gave the researcher a chance to triangulate quantitative and qualitative data from the respondents. The mixed methods research is used as a triangulating method and data in seeking the convergence and corroboration of results from different methods and designs for studying the same phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The triangulation of data provided the researcher with balanced information from which the researcher was able to draw conclusions on the studied phenomenon.
In general, the methodology was appropriate in that it accomplished the desired results. The survey alone would not have given the researcher the chance to analyse some documents related to learners' performance as she compared what was said with what was happening, hence, producing a true picture of the implementation of the NCS History in Fort Beaufort District High Schools. The researcher would have been deprived of observing the real situation regarding the schools' infra-structure, classrooms, equipment, facilities and text-books if she used the quantitative approach only. She would have missed the detailed accounts which were received from the learners. On the other hand, a case study alone would not have managed to give information from these sparsely populated schools. Below are the main findings of this study.

6.2.1 Training of teachers

6.2.1.1 Professional Qualifications
It is mandatory for all teachers in South African schools to have at least a three-year education diploma obtained from a teacher training college, the Secondary Teacher’s Diploma (STD), or a four-year professional degree, obtained from a university. Some teachers initially qualified for academic degrees then later studied towards a one-year education diploma in order to qualify as teachers. All these qualifications are accepted as professional qualifications in South African secondary schools. This study found that the majority of History teachers were professionally qualified to teach History in Grade 11 as they had relevant diplomas and teaching degrees. Hence they had relevant content and knowledge of the taught subject.

6.2.1.2 Subject specialisation

Being a specialist in a certain subject helps the teacher to be conversant with the content of that particular subject, thus making him/her confident in delivering lessons to the learners. The study found that all the teachers who taught History had specialised in the subject. This study further established that learners were taught by teachers with diplomas and degrees that were relevant to the subject content in
History. However, some of the teachers felt inadequately trained to teach History in the NCS and suggested that they be provided with such training. One of the biggest challenges that the implementation of the NCS History is faced with is the fact that some History teachers also teach other subjects which have nothing to do with History. This overburdens them as they require extra preparation since teachers were also not trained in teaching subject such as Technology (Tech), Economic Management Studies (EMS) and Life Orientation (LO).

The study found that some HoDs who supervised History had not specialised in History, they instead specialised in other subjects such as Geography, isiXhosa and so on. The fact that the people who have to monitor the progress on the implementation of this new History curriculum lacks the content of History in the first placed, poses a challenge to the implementation of the changes and the entire curriculum.

6.2.1.3 Experience of history teachers

The findings of this study were that the majority of teachers had more than 10 years teaching experience. It is the experienced teacher who is able to use the relevant teaching methods in class, understand the interests and learning needs of the learners, together with the content and the use of the relevant material (Fullan, 1991; Hunkins & Ornstein, 2004; Rogan & Grayson, 2003).

This study also found out that there were History teachers who had a long service record of teaching History in the same grade although this experience was primarily in the old History syllabus. In most cases these teachers are viewed as conversant with numerous teaching strategies and the interpretation of the syllabus. However, teachers with a lot of teaching experience in the same subject and grade may resist change because they are comfortable in teaching the same aspects in the same way (Ross, 2001). However the findings of this study differ from Ross’s (2001), which found that the History teacher respondents were not comfortable in teaching the NCS History curriculum and the new approach to teaching it. The study noted that although History teachers were qualified to teach History had specialised in the
subject and had many years of teaching History in Grade 11, learners did not perform well in the subject.

This study also found that History was supervised by people who were experienced in the supervisory task. However although the HoDs were experienced in the supervisory task, they lacked knowledge of the subject as most of them did not specialise in History. Furthermore, schools lost teachers and supervisors through the process of redeployment of teachers which resulted in a shortage of supervisory staff. Due to the shortage of supervisory staff, some teachers who were not HoDs were asked to step in and supervise the work of other teachers as they were in the School Management Teams (SMT) (in some schools), however they were not paid for the work and these individuals were demotivated.

6.2.1.4 Training of teachers for the implementation of NCS History in Grade 11

This study found that all History teachers were professionally qualified. However, the training that this study refers to is in-service training which prepares them for the implementation of the new curriculum. This study found that there was no in-service training conducted for Grade 11 teachers to enable them to implement the NCS in the History curriculum. It also emerged from this study that most schools who participated in the study had staff meetings and subject staff development workshops solely for Grade 12 teachers. These decisions could impact negatively on the implementation of the History curriculum by History Grade 11 teachers. In a Report of the Task Team for the Review of the National Curriculum Statement (2009), the teachers’ hearings and submissions were unanimous in suggesting that current teacher development policies which support the curriculum were often too generic and superficial and did not provide the needed support to teachers. They made it clear that addressing the need to upgrade teachers would not be appropriate with a ‘one size fits all’ approach.

This study further revealed that History HoDs were also not trained on monitoring and providing support to History teachers. This could have a negative impact on the
implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum as HoDs will not know exactly what exactly to look for when they monitor the process and thus cannot offer support to History teachers.

6.2.2 The delivery of the curriculum

6.2.2.1 The planning and delivery of NCS History lessons

The study found that none of the teacher respondents were doing any planning in the three stages of planning as stipulated in the LPG. This omission could lead to the poor delivery of History lessons by these teachers as plans guide an individual in his/her presentation of lessons. This study further revealed that although the Subject Advisor has made an effort to provide teachers with lesson plans, none of them were using these plans and the teachers were therefore not teaching according to the plans. This further leads to them not finishing the Grade 11 syllabus.

6.2.2.2 Methods used to teach NCS History

This study revealed that teachers used a mixture of teaching methods in conducting NCS History; these included learner-centred and teacher-centred approaches. The learner-centred approach included group discussions, presentations and/or demonstrations which allowed for skills development and learner involvement. On the other hand, the teacher-centred approaches included the lecture method. It was found that some of the older teachers were not using the learner-centred approach to teach History in the NCS due to a lack of training. The use of lecture the method does not allow students a chance to explore their environment, thereby limiting learners’ creativity.
6.2.2.3 Class size

This study revealed that History teachers in Grade 11 in Fort Beaufort District had small classes. The teacher-pupil ratio in most schools is low. This allows teachers to monitor individual students and give them the needed assistance. Small classes are manageable and there may be a significant teacher-learner contact time. However, there was one teacher who had a large number of learners in her class. To show the negative impact that large classes have on the implementation of curriculum, this study revealed that this particular teacher was unable to use a variety of teaching methods hence she only used the textbook method.

6.2.2.4 Learning and teaching support material (LTSM)

This study revealed that all the schools included in the study were well resourced in terms of physical facilities like classrooms, libraries, laboratories as well as school halls where learners can have their discussions. The environment in these schools was conducive for learning.

This study established that all the History teacher respondents had the curriculum implementation guidelines like the NCS History Subject Statement (syllabus), NCS History LPG and NCS History SAG. It further revealed that although History teachers had such documents, they were unable to use them because they were not conversant with them, and they found them difficult to interpret. Failure to use these guidelines could lead to them teaching incorrect subject matter and would therefore impact negatively on the implementation of the NCS History. In summary, the current documents are not user friendly. They are also unnecessarily complex, partly because a number of documents need to be read together in discerning what is to be taught and learnt, and how. In several instances, there is a lack of alignment between the curriculum statements; assessment tasks subject assessment frameworks and guidelines.

The study also found that History teachers were using the contents pages of History textbooks that were written by different authors who may not be treating the same
content in the same way. It can be concluded, therefore, that should History teachers not use the curriculum guidelines and instead uses different contents page of textbooks as a guide, different curricular are taught. This suggests that the planned curriculum is not the taught curriculum (Glatthorn et al. 2006).

The researcher also noted that History teachers selected the NCS History LTSM themselves, assisted by HoDs where they had knowledge of History. However, it can be noted that not all History teachers were assisted by their HoDs because some were not conversant with the content of History. By not doing this HoDs were neglecting one of their duties, that of assisting teachers in the selection of the LTSM. It was further revealed that although the History teachers have selected the LTSM themselves, they were never trained by either the HoDs or the History Subject Advisor on how to select these materials as these individuals sometimes selected wrong material.

The researcher established that although almost all the schools had some labour-saving instruments like TV sets, DVDs, CDs and computers, they did not use all of them as instructional aides since they only used TV and DVDs.

6.2.3 Monitoring and support

There is evidence of the monitoring of teachers through the schools’ internal systems following the supervision schedule where subject teachers are supposed to be given more class visits so as to assist them through feedback. Teachers’ records as well as students’ exercises are also inspected by Deputy Principals and HODs. There is also monitoring, support and evaluation of the implementation of the History curriculum which is supposed to be done by the DoE through the District Education Offices. District Offices in return deploy the Senior Education Specialist for that subject (SES), also referred to as the Subject Advisor.
6.2.3.1 Monitoring at school level (HoD and Deputy Principal)

The majority of HoDs did not execute some of the duties stipulated in the Manual for School Management (2000). History teachers did not receive any assistance from the HoDs in terms of content; neither did the HoDs pay them any class visits nor monitor learners’ progress by examining their exercise books. This study further revealed that the failure to execute the duties and roles HoDs could be blamed on a lack of training, as well as ignorance, on the part of the HoDs.

6.2.3.2 Monitoring and support by the Subject Advisor

The History Subject Advisor did not execute his duties as indicated in the PCG (2009-2010) to the Grade 11NCS History teachers. These included guiding and supporting teachers, organising on-site support as well as monitoring and evaluating all the curriculum programmes for the said grade. It was revealed that the Subject Advisor had neglected the Grade 11 teachers and concentrated only on Grade 12 teachers. It was also revealed that the Subject Advisor could not carry on with his duties properly because of the time constraints as well as the size of the district. Schools lack quality assurance inspection from the district officers due to a lack of finance and transport problems. All teachers who participated in the study agreed that they did not receive sufficient support from the department of education to assist them in implementing the new curriculum in 2006 when the DoE was training teachers for the implementation of NCS.

6.3 Conclusions

The study found that teachers were not adequately trained to implement the new NCS History syllabus. It is not clear whether teachers understand and interpret the syllabus well enough to impart knowledge to students. It can also be argued that the support system offered to teachers is rather weak indicating that the subject advisors are also incapacitated in terms of interpreting and guiding teachers to ensure the successful implementation of the subject. This call for rigorous and continuous
training to be offered to teachers and their support system; provision of adequate and relevant resources and design clear guidelines to avoid continuation of the subject without changing students’ values.

6.4 Recommendations

This study has engaged with how the NCS History is implemented in the Fort Beaufort District High Schools (secondary schools. The recommendations are divided into two parts: those relating to the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum and those related to further research.

6.4.1 Capacity of teachers

South Africa needs a stronger and larger cohort of History education professionals. There is a need to consider updating and supplementing historical knowledge to enable teachers to understand the principles and concepts of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards. The knowledge that teachers hold has to be updated and supplemented in order to meet the demands of the NCS, in terms of pedagogy, concepts process and values in History knowledge focus areas. Teachers lack the required theoretical, practical and professional knowledge such as the conceptualisation of the NCS History as a discipline and a school subject/learning area. This study therefore recommends that the government fund the retraining of History teachers towards an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) with History specialisation.

The DoE should appoint more teachers as History teachers seem to be having a burden of having to teach other subjects which were not related to History, thereby putting more burden on them.

In-service teacher training should target those places where it is most needed and be subject-specific in addition to covering teachers in all levels and Grades. Deputy Principals and HoDs need in-depth training on roles, curriculum content and assessment requirements in order to effectively support teachers. All training, in all
contexts, must be underpinned by the principle that teachers should be actively involved in teaching for the minimum number of hours per day, every day, as specified in policy.

Unless teachers are recognised as part of the education system in terms of their social and historic context the real impact of policy implementation remains a puzzle. Teachers have to be acknowledged as people who construct, filter, mediate and shape educational practice and not as recipients of policy or naive readers.

6.4.2 Assessment in NCS History

The DoE, especially curriculum developers and Subject Advisors, should organise workshops to equip the NCS History teachers with skills on how to assess the learners’ activities especially at Grade 11 level. History teachers need to be trained on the alignment of learners’ performance with level descriptors.

6.4.3 Learning teaching support material

The DoE should provide teachers with training on how to select LTSMs. It should also provide training on the use of curriculum guidelines. The documents should be thoroughly edited for consistency, plain language together with ease of understanding and use. Content of what teachers are expected to teach at Grade 11 must be standardized and easy to retrieve from the Curriculum and Assessment Policy document.

In the documents, teachers should be given guidance and support on how to teach specific content / historical concepts and skills, particularly in areas of difficulty. Clarity on the appropriateness of certain methodologies, such as group-work, should be provided.

6.4.4 Monitoring and support

The subject advisors should ensure that all teachers are trained or attend all organised workshops by the district. Cluster meetings, for moderation purposes,
should be held annually and focused on sharing information and considering other schools’ examination papers and marking memoranda. This will ensure that the implementation of the NCS History at Grade 11 is evaluated. The study further recommends that each school be visited at least once in a year so that it can improve on the recommendations made by the district cluster.

6.5 Areas for further research

This research recommends that more research should be carried out on the relationship between the performance of grade 11 and 12 learners. There is a need to find out whether it follows that if learners do well at grade 11 they can also do well at grade 12, or if they do badly in Grade 11, they will do badly in Grade 12. What is the gap in learning and performance between the two grades?
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APPENDIX A: Request to carry out research in schools

Faculty of Education
School of Postgraduate Studies
Cnr Fleet & Cambridge Street
East London & Stuart Hall, Alice

Phone: East London: 043704 7219 | Fax: 043- 7047228
Alice: 0406022103
nsibeko@ufh.ac.za/abovu@ufh.ac.za

13 September 2010

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that N. C. Zingela is an MEd candidate at the University of Fort Hare. Her student number is 8714916. Her research title is “An investigation into the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in History Curriculum in High Schools in Fort Beaufort District”. She is due to collect data during the period of September and October 2010. Kindly grant her permission. I would also be grateful if you could kindly provide her with documents that may assist with information regarding the area of her study.

I would like to assure you that any information that will be collected will remain confidential and no name of school or person will be disclosed. The student will ensure that she does not disrupt ongoing activities during the period she will be collecting data.

Sincerely

Professor G. Moyo
Director, School of Postgraduate Studies
Faculty of Education
APPENDIX B: Request to conduct Research: District office

Jojozi Location
Alice
5700
8 October 2010

The District Director
Department of Education
Fort Beaufort

Dear Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT AN INTERVIEW

I am a registered student of the University of Fort Hare, Faculty of Education, studying towards obtaining a Master of Education degree. The study is assessing the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in the History syllabus at Grade 11.

The study requires me to visit seven schools in the district and the Subject Advisor for History to conduct both the survey and an interview. I therefore request permission to visit the sample schools to conduct the survey, interviews, classroom observations and document analysis as well as to interview the Subject Advisor in his office.

Sincerely
N.C. Zingela (Mrs)
Signature.
APPENDIX C: Letter From the District Director granting Permission to Conduct a Research in the Fort Beaufort School

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

CAPE COLLEGE BUILDING *Hawkdwn Road *Fort Beaufort *Private Bag X2041* FORT BEAUFORT *
5720 * REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA * Tel: +27 46 645 7811 Fax: +27 46 6452783 *+27 46 6457827
Website: ecprov.gov.za * Date: 19/10/2010* Enquiries: Mr Z. DAYILE

TO : HEAD OF SCHOOL, FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF FURTHER & CONTINUING EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

FROM : CES HRD & LABOUR RELATIONS

DATE : 19 OCTOBER 2010

SUBJECT : PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA: MRS N.C. ZINGELA
(STUDENT NO. 8714916).

- Your letter dated 13 September 2010 has been acknowledged.
- We are thrilled and delighted to note that your students show interest in the field of Education.
- Education is a dynamic phenomenon; hence, we need students to research in this field.
- The findings and recommendations will assist to improve the system of education.
- It is against that background that we welcome your students to come and conduct research in our district.
- We further wish to commit ourselves in giving Mrs Zingela the necessary support she might need.
- We wish her a success in her endeavours to pass her studies and please extend our humble plea to share her findings and recommendations.

Yours faithfully

MR Z. DAYILE
CES – HRD & LABOUR RELATIONS
APPENDIX D: Consent Letter for all Participants

CONSENT LETTER FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

I am Nombulelo Constance Zingela, a Masters candidate at the University of Fort Hare. I am conducting research on the Assessment of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort High Schools as part of my programme. As part of the process, I am inviting you to participate in an Interview/questionnaire survey. Please answer the questions honestly and truthfully by ticking what you think are relevant answers and also provide answers on the provided spaces. Should you find the provided space inadequate, use the back of the page.

I wish to guarantee you that if you agree to participate, any information you have provided will be confidential. At no time will your identity be known by anybody other than the researcher.

Thank you

Researcher’s signature Date
-----------------------------------------------------------------

I………………………………………………hereby give the consent to participating in the study on Assessment on the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in the History curriculum in the Fort Beaufort High Schools. I understand that I am participating freely without being forced in any way. I also understand that I can stop participating in this study and my decision to do so will not affect me negatively.

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APPENDIX E: Questionnaire For Heads Of Departments On The Implementation Of The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) In The History Curriculum.

SECTION A – GENERAL BACKGROUND
A1. Date of the questionnaire…………………..
A2. Position of the respondent.
Deputy Principal [ ]
HOD [ ]
PL 1 Teacher [ ]
A3. Subjects taught by the respondent……………………………………………………………
A4. Major subjects of the respondent……………………………………………………………
A5. What type of school is the respondent in?
Private [ ]
Public [ ]
Former Model C [ ]
A6. Location of the school
Urban [ ]
Semi-urban [ ]
Rural [ ]

SECTION B-PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF THE HOD.
B1. Gender of the respondent
Male [ ]
Female [ ]
B2. Age
20-29 [ ]
30-39 [ ]
40-49 [ ]
50-59 [ ]
60-65 [ ].
B3. What are your academic qualifications?
Grade 12 [ ]
Bachelor’s Degree [ ]
B4. What are your professional qualifications?
Certificate in Education [ ]
Diploma in Education [ ]
Bachelor of Education [ ]
Honours in Education [ ]
Masters in Education [ ]
Other (Specify)………………………………
B5. What is your experience as HOD?
Less than 1 year [ ]
1-5 years [ ]
6-10 years [ ]
11-15 years [ ]
16-20 years [ ]
20 years and above [ ]
B6. How long have you been an HOD in this school?
1-5 years [ ]
6-10 years [ ]
11-15 years [ ]
Above 15 years [ ]

SECTION C – CAPACITY OF TEACHERS
C1. Are all your teachers qualified as per government requirement?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]
C2. Which syllabus are you using in your school for History?
Interim Core syllabus [ ]
History Subject Statement [ ]
Both the above mentioned [ ]
C3. Explain your choice of syllabus…………………………………………………
C4. Were the teachers trained in the use of the subject statement (if they use it)?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]
C5. If yes, how long did the training take?................
C6. Are you familiar with the contents of the syllabus?
Yes [ ]
C7. Are the copies of syllabus readily available to teachers?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]

C8. Generally what is the performance of your teachers?
Good [ ]
Average [ ]
Below Average [ ]

C9. What is the average pass rate in History in the past 3 years?
2007...........
2008...........
2009...........

C10. What do you think are the causes of these results?
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

C11. What support mechanisms do you have for improving the teacher performance?
........................................................................................................................................

SECTION D – LEARNING TEACHING SUPPORT MATERIAL (LTSM)
D1. Is your department well resourced in terms of the following? (Leave whichever is not applicable)
Teaching rooms [ ]
Stock [ ]
Textbooks [ ]
Other support material (maps, models, DVD’s, wall charts) [ ]

D2. How are these resources used at present within your department?
Underused [ ]
Efficiently employed [ ]
Department over provided [ ]

D3. Are the LTSM appropriate for the existing courses?
Do they match the subject content? Yes [ ] No [ ]
Do learners understand them? Yes [ ] No [ ]
Are they user friendly in terms of language? Yes [ ] No [ ]
D4. Who is responsible for the choice of the LTSM?

Subject teacher [ ]
HOD [ ]
Subject Advisor [ ]
Cluster [ ]

D5. If not yourself (HOD) what role have you played in the selection of the LTSM?

SECTION E – MONITORING AND SUPPORT

E1. On the average how many class visits and exercise inspection do you make per term?

Once a term [ ]
Twice a term [ ]

E2. Do you usually give your teachers a choice to say when they want to be visited in class?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

E3. If ‘yes’, why?

E4. If ‘no’, why?

E5. Do you usually make post-observation discussions?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

E6. If ‘yes’, why?

E7. If ‘no’, why?

E8. Which of the following forms of INSET do you use in your team? (Tick whichever you use)

Meetings [ ]
Teaching collaboratively [ ]
Visits to other schools [ ]
Using external courses [ ]
School-based/Team-focused [ ]

E9. Which of the above form do you find most appropriate for your team?
E10. Why?......................................................................................................................
APPENDIX F: Questionnaire For Teachers On: Implementation Of The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) In History Curriculum In The Fort Beaufort District High Schools.

SECTION A: GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION
A1. Date of the questionnaire distribution: .................
A2. Type of school: Public [ ] Former Model C [ ] Private [ ] Any other (specify)............................
A3. Location of the school: Urban [ ] Peri-urban [ ] Rural [ ]
A4. What is your gender?: Male [ ] Female [ ]
A5. What is your age?: Below 20 years [ ]
                   20-29 years [ ]
                   30-30 years [ ]
                   40-49 years [ ]
                   50-59 years [ ]
                   Above 60 years [ ]

SECTION B: TEACHING METHODS
B1. Which methods do you use in your teaching?
    Whole class model/ teacher tell [ ]
    Group work [ ]
    Practical [ ]
B2. Which of the above methods do you use most frequently? And why?...........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
B3. How often do you engage your learners in practical activities?
    Daily [ ]
    Weekly [ ]
    Monthly [ ]
    Quarterly [ ]
    Other (Specify)...........................................
    Never [ ]

B4. How often do you assign group projects to learners?
Daily [ ]
Weekly [ ]
Monthly [ ]
Quarterly [ ]
Other (Specify)………………………………………………
Never [ ]

B5. How often do you assign projects to individual learners?
Daily [ ]
Weekly [ ]
Monthly [ ]
Quarterly [ ]
Other (Specify)………………………………………………
Never [ ]

B6. How often do you use each of the following for instructional purposes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>TV set</th>
<th>Video</th>
<th>Cassette</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Never [ ]

B7. In general, how often do you assess your learners?
Daily [ ]
Weekly [ ]
Fortnightly [ ]
Monthly [ ]
Quarterly [ ]
Other (Specify)………………………………………………
Never [ ]

SECTION C: TEACHER CAPACITY

C1. What is your academic qualification?.................................

C2. What is your highest professional qualification?
Certificate in education [ ]
Diploma in education [ ]
Bachelor [ ]
Honours degree [ ]
Master of education [ ]
Other (Specify) .................................................

C3. What is your subject of specialisation?.................................................................

What is your experience as a teacher?
1-5 years [ ]
6-10 years [ ]
11-15 years [ ]
20 years and above [ ]

C4. What subjects are you teaching?.............................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

C5. What are your favourite subjects?............................................................................

C6. How long have you been teaching History?
1-5 years [ ]
6-10 years [ ]
11-15 years [ ]
16-20 years [ ]
20 years and above [ ]

C7. What is the size of the Grade 11 History class?
Girls........
Boys........
Total........

C8. Have you been trained in the implementation of the NCS in the History curriculum?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]

C9. If yes how long did the training take?
Less than a week [ ]
1 week [ ]
6 months [ ]
1-2 years [ ]
3 years [ ]
C10. Did you find the training useful?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]

SECTION D: SELECTION OF LEARNING TEACHING SUPPORT MATERIAL

D1. Where does the school receive LTSM?
Government [ ]
Parents [ ]
NGO’s [ ]

D2. How could you describe the availability of LTSM?
Adequate [ ]
More adequate [ ]
Inadequate [ ]

D3. What is the student-text book ratio?
1:1 [ ]
1:2 [ ]
1:3 [ ]
1:4 [ ]
Other (Specify)……………………

D4. Who selects the LTSM
The subject teacher [ ]
Head of Department [ ]
Head Master [ ]
Cluster [ ]
Other (Specify)……………………

D5. Is there any training received before the selection of the LTSM?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]
If no, what do you suggest should have been done
.........................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................

D6. Do you use different types of resources or just one text book in class?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]
D7. Do you use the Subject Statement as a curriculum guide?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

D8. Were you trained in the use of this device?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

D9. Are there any supporting documents to the Subject Statement?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   If ‘yes’ what are they? ................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................

SECTION E : MONITORING AND SUPPORT

E1. On the average how many class visits are made by your subject head?
   Once a term [ ]
   Twice a term [ ]
   Thrice a term [ ]
   Nil a term [ ]

E2. Do you find these class visits beneficial?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

E3. Do you have In-Service Training programmes?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   If ‘Yes’ How frequent do you have them? ..............................................................................

E4. Do you usually have training workshops in your cluster/district?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   If ‘Yes’ how often? .................................................................................................................

E5. If ‘Yes’, how long do they usually take? ................................................................................

E6. Do the District Education Officials usually conduct inspection on your school?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   If ‘Yes’, how often? ...............................................................................................................
E7. Do you find these visits beneficial?
Yes [    ]
No [      ]
If ‘Yes’, what exactly are they aimed at? ...............................................................
APPENDIX G: Interview for Heads of Department

1. Do you have an in-depth knowledge of History?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
2. Up to which level have you done History? ...........................................
3. Which teaching strategies do you think are the best for teaching History?
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
4. Why these strategies?
   ..............................................................................................................
5. Have you been in this position even before the implementation of the changes in the History teaching?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. Which major changes did the History curriculum undergone?
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
7. At which levels did you teach History? ..........................................
8. Were your teachers trained before the implementation of the NCS?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
9. If ‘no’ what did you do as a subject head to ensure the smooth implementation of the NCS? Explain.
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................
10. Were you trained (given a survival guide) on how to give advise and support on your teachers?
    Explain ....................................................................................................
    ..............................................................................................................
    ..............................................................................................................
11. Were your teachers given training on the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. If ‘yes’, how was the training in terms of quality?
Explain……………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

13. Which LTSM do you think are the most essential ones for the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

14. Which ones are available in your school?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Which ones are not available and how do you compliment the ones that are not available? Explain.
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

16. Who selects the LTSM, and why?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

17. How often do you make class visits to teachers?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

18. What is the main aim of these visits?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

19. What staff development plans do you have for the teachers in your department each year?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

20. What areas are you focusing on?
…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
21. Were all your goals for the previous years met?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

22. If ‘no’ what was the cause?
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................

23. Do your teachers sometimes report learners who do not do their work?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

24. Which units are the most problematic areas for learners?
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................

25. How do you assist them?
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
APPENDIX H: Interview for Teachers

1. Which methods do you use in your teaching of History?

2. Which ones do you use frequently?

3. What is your reason for not using the others frequently? Explain.

4. Which syllabus were you using in teaching History before the NCS was introduced?

5. For how long have you been using the syllabus mentioned in 4? Write the years, from... to....

6. Were you trained in the implementation of this syllabus?

7. Which other methods were set in place to make sure that you were always in track in the implementation of such a syllabus?

8. Which teaching methods did you use in the teaching of the said syllabus?
9. How did the learners perform?

10. Can you give the percentages of the last three years of the use of the said syllabus
(a) Year .... Percentage ....
(b) Year .... Percentage ....
(c) Year .... Percentage ....

11. What do you think was the contributing factor to these results?

12. When was NCS introduced in Grade 11?

13. Were you prepared for the implementation before it started?
Yes. [ ] No [ ]

14. If 'yes', explain what was done and by whom?

15. If 'no', how did you start implementing? Explain.

16. How do you view this syllabus in terms of the level of difficulty for you as a teacher?

17. Do you have a guiding document (Syllabus) for the NCS? If yes, what is it called?

18. What other guiding documents do you use in the implementation of NCS in the History curriculum?
19. How many learners do you have in your Grade 11 History class? ..................
20. Into how many groups are they divided? ..........
21. Which other classes and subjects are you teaching?
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
22. How do these other subjects/classes contribute towards your implementation? ............................................
23. Do you receive any support from your HOD
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
24. If ‘yes’ what type of support do you get from him/her?. Explain
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
25. Do you receive any support from the Education District Office?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
26. If ‘yes’ what type of support?
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
27. Do you find the support useful?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
28. Is there a time that you meet as History Grade 11 teachers in your district or cluster?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
29. If ‘yes’, what is the purpose of the meeting?
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................
30. Is your subject well resourced in terms of LTSM?
31. Are the learning materials you use NCS compliant?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
   Explain…………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

32. Who selected these materials?
   Self [ ] HOD [ ] Cluster [ ]

33. To what extent would you say learners are motivated to perform well in History under NCS?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

34. What are you doing as a subject teacher to make sure that learners are motivated?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

35. What problems are you currently faced with as a teacher in this subject with the implementation of NCS?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

36. What solutions would you suggest to improve the situation? Explain
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

37. Has the Department been helpful in addressing these challenges? If yes, in what way?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX I: Interview Schedule for District Officials on the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement in the History Curriculum in Grade 11.

1. Date of the interview

2. Have you been teaching History before being a Subject Advisor (SES)?
   If yes at what level/Grades?

3. Were you still teaching History when the NCS was introduced in the History curriculum?
   If ‘no’, what were you doing?

4. How many years have you been in this position?

5. What kinds of training have you provided the teachers who will be implementing NCS in the History curriculum?

6. What support do you give to teachers who start teaching History?

7. Are there any prepared sets of curriculum guidelines for teachers teaching History?
   If ‘yes’ what are they?

8. Is there any help that you give teachers to make sure that there is congruence between curriculum change and teacher development?
   If so, what kind?

9. Do you usually make any on-site visits for Grade 11 History teachers?
   If so, what is the purpose of such visits?
10. What challenges are encountered by teachers in the implementation of the change in the History syllabus?

11. Have you ever called all the Grade 11 History teachers to share their problems and best practices?

12. What problems are you, as a District official who has to do monitoring and support, experiencing from both the department's and the teachers' side?

13. How do you plan to overcome these challenges?

14. How do you view the future of the change in the curriculum as informed by the performance of schools within your area?
APPENDIX J: Observation Sheet

The researcher will observe:

- The availability of classrooms and their condition
- Presence of educator in class. (Periodic attendance).
- Check on sitting arrangement.
- How many learners are there in the class?
- How the teacher is managing his/her class?
- What teaching methods and strategies are used by teachers?
- Are the teachers acquainted with the content of the subject?
- How do learners respond?
- Are learners actively involved during the teaching and learning process?
- How learners interact with the teacher during the teaching process?
- Is the teacher able to include or accommodate every learner in his/her teaching?
- Availability of teaching and learning materials.
- Are all learners using the same textbooks?
- Distribution of teaching and learning resources among learners.
- Reaction of learners who have to share or those without resources or learning materials (Are they listening attentively/ are they busy with something else not related to what is being taught?)
- In the absence of adequate teaching and learning materials, what do teachers do in terms of teaching strategies and management of classes?