

**TEACHING AND LEARNING POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS IN THE
NEW DEMOCRATIC DISPENSATION: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**

BY

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

In the subject

CURRICULUM STUDIES

At the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

PROMOTER: PROF. M.W. MAILA

JUNE 2013

DECLARATION

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I, Tebogo Isaac Mogashoa, declare that **“Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis”**, is my own work and has not been previously submitted in any form whatsoever, by myself or anyone else, to this university or at any other educational institution for any degree or examination purposes. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and duly acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature

(Mr)

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to the following individuals for their support and encouragement during this study:

I am indebted to my promoter, Prof. M.W. Maila, for his unfailing support, constructive criticism, positive guidance and very helpful suggestions. I highly appreciate the knowledge, expertise and invaluable time he shared with me during the course of this study.

My special thanks are extended to all my colleagues and stakeholders who participated in this study. Thank you for freely sharing your ideas with me and for willing to become a part of this study. Without you, this study would not have been possible.

I would also like to thank Prof Lemmer, my editor, whose useful comments have resulted in the improvements of several portions of this study.

I reserve my final and most enduring thanks to my family who supported me and who put up with my total preoccupation throughout this study. I am especially grateful to my wife for her constant encouragement and willingness to take care of our children while I was preoccupied by this study. I am extremely grateful for her unconditional support and encouragement of my professional endeavours. My children, Molebogeng, Tshegofatso and Gontse, for your understanding during the times when I was clearly preoccupied with my studies, thank you.

Above all else, I am grateful to the almighty God, the owner of my wisdom, who makes all things possible.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my dear parents, the late Mr Dinao Mogashoa and the late Mrs Mokgaetji Mogashoa for inspiring me to follow my passions and pursue a doctoral degree.

ABSTRACT

The democratic era in South Africa has led to the introduction of a wide-ranging series of teaching and learning policies aimed at school reform. The study aimed at establishing how these policies are implemented by educators in selected schools. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to gather information from educators, members of the School Management Teams and learners through in-depth individual and focus group interviews as the main data collection methods. Critical discourse analysis was used to examine participants' spoken words and the content of relevant documents such as lesson plans in detail. Comparisons were drawn and similarities identified through the coding, categorisation and condensation of data. The researcher interpreted the displayed data. A discussion of the main themes was presented and supported by quotations by participants. Findings indicate that there have been only few changes in terms of how educators teach; some educators conceded that they had not changed the way they teach since the introduction of new curriculum and assessment policies. The role played by learning outcomes in teachers' lesson planning was uneven. Members of School Management Teams demonstrated diverse views on teaching and learning policies. Learners who are taught in their home language encounter few difficulties in learning; this is not the case with learners who are taught through medium of a second language and thus lack the necessary language proficiency necessary for academic achievement. A shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches to teaching is still required: that is, a shift from teaching to learning to enhance thinking and reflection which accommodates and draws on learners' prior knowledge and experiences. Class sizes should be reduced to enable effective educator and learner interaction. Educators' interest, tolerance, innovativeness and competency in the subject matter will help sustain learners' interest in the learning activities. Policy makers should explore professional development from viewpoint of the participating educators in order to identify the most effective strategies to support and change educators' classroom practice where necessary.

Key words: National Qualifications Framework, curriculum, educator, evaluation and assessment, critical discourse analysis, continuous assessment, baseline assessment, summative assessment, formative assessment, criterion referencing, assessment tasks, policy, lesson plan, teaching and learning.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABET:	Adult Basic Education and Training
AC:	Arts and Culture
ANC:	African National Congress
CASS:	Continuous assessment
CAPS:	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements
CDA:	Critical Discourse Analysis
C2005:	Curriculum 2005
EMS:	Economic and Management Sciences
FAL:	First Additional Language
FET:	Further Education and Training
GET:	General Education and Training
GNU:	Government of National Unity
HET:	Higher Education and Training
HOD:	Head of Department
HSS:	Human and Social Sciences
LiEP:	Language in Education Policy
LLC:	Language learning, Literacy and Communication
LO:	Life Orientation
LoLT:	Language of Learning and Teaching
LTSM:	Learning and Teaching Support Materials
MLMMS:	Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Sciences
NCS:	National Curriculum Statement
NQF:	National Qualifications Framework
NS:	Natural Sciences
OBA:	Outcomes-based Assessment
OBE:	Outcomes-based Education
RNCS:	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SAQA:	South African Qualifications Authority
Tech:	Technology

Unisa: University of South Africa
USA: United States of America

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CHAPTER ONE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Critics of South African education policies condemned the National Department of Education for a curriculum said to be irrelevant and uninteresting for most South African learners. Before 1994 the education system in South Africa contradicted world trends by deliberately choosing to serve the education needs of only a section of the South African population. The birth of democracy in 1994 led to the establishment of a new dispensation and a concomitant need for the democratisation of the education system. The apartheid education system disadvantaged the majority of South Africans especially the black communities. A new democracy demanded change in many spheres of life in South Africa in particular in education.

Among other reforms proposed by the Government of National Unity (GNU) was transformational outcomes-based education. This ushered Curriculum 2005 with its emphasis on outcomes-based education. According to Kramer (2006:1), the introduction of outcomes-based education in South African schools and the advent of Curriculum 2005 marked an exciting transformation of the education system. The new curriculum was modelled according to William Spady's version of outcomes-based education, who defined it as a "comprehensive approach to organising and operating an education system that is focused on and defined by the successful demonstrations of learning outcomes sought from each other" (Spady 1994:1). There was consensus about transforming education in South Africa by different stakeholders in education in order to change the education system and introduce a new curriculum.

It was believed that Curriculum 2005 was created to empower all South African learners with knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which would provide productive and valuable agents of social change in creating a better future for all. Killen (1998:2), also describes outcomes-based education as an approach to planning, delivering and evaluating instruction that require teachers and students to focus their attention and efforts on the desired end results of education.

Outcomes-based education emphasises that learners should master learning outcomes and be able to work co-operatively. Spady (1994:19) describes “transformational outcomes” as learning “that require the highest degree of ownership, integration, synthesis, and functional application of prior learning because they (learners) must respond to the complexity of real-life performances.” The emphasis in outcomes-based education is involving learners in learning activities that would lead them to achieve particular learning outcomes.

The Department of Education took a transformative approach to outcomes-based education with emphasis on critical outcomes. Critical outcomes are broad educational goals or a set of skills, attitudes and knowledge that all learners should demonstrate after being exposed to learning and teaching. Curriculum 2005 was also informed by the objectives of the South African Qualifications Authority Act , 1995 (Act 58 of 1995) (RSA,1995:1) which were to create an integrated national framework for learning achievements, to enhance the quality of education and training, to accelerate the redress of the past unfair discrimination, training and employment opportunities and thereby contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large. The government was actually trying to come up with a new education system which would cater for all its citizens regardless of race, culture, gender, creed or religion.

Curriculum 2005 was then introduced in 1997 and piloted in selected schools countrywide. A pilot study was conducted in Grade 1 classrooms in 270 schools around the entire country between August and November 1997. Then in 1998, the Department of Education introduced Curriculum 2005 in all schools in South Africa. This was done to force an end to the previous education system, which had been designed as a cornerstone of apartheid and was thus singularly inappropriate to educate South African learners to become competent and active members of a democratic society (Curriculum 2005, 1998:3). However, the changes in education had an impact on the attitude, moral and performance of educators in general. These changes required a paradigm shift on the part of educators. The introduction of outcomes-based education made many demands on both the educators and the education system. According to Mda and Mothata (2000:22), the introduction of Curriculum 2005 brought about a shift from teacher and content curriculum to an outcomes-based and learner-centred curriculum. Educators had to change the

way they used to plan and teach while on the other hand learners had to change the way they used to learn. The new curriculum required that educators should be able to understand and respond flexibly to the challenges of the new approaches to curriculum, methods and strategies.

In 2000, Curriculum 2005 was reviewed. The review of Curriculum 2005 was due to an outcry that educators were not coping with the curriculum implementation process. Thus, a Ministerial Committee was established, chaired by Linda Chisholm, which emerged with the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (Review Committee on Curriculum 2005, 2000:21). According to the reviewers of Curriculum 2005, educators needed to be empowered to become successful curriculum mediators by means of effective training opportunities (Review Committee on Curriculum 2005, 2000:96). The review committee recommended that strengthening the curriculum required streamlining its design features through an amended National Curriculum Statement. The curriculum documents needed to be simplified and workload reduced. Streamlining Curriculum 2005 was the right step taken by the Education authorities in order to assist the educators to implement curriculum effectively.

However, another Task Team was established by the Minister of Basic Education in July 2009 to investigate the nature of the challenges and problems experienced in the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement and to develop a set of recommendations designed to improve the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement. The Task Team came up with a document that recommended the replacement of the National Curriculum Statement and it is called the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). According to the Report of the Task Team for the Review of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (2009:62-67), the following issues were recommended to be revised:

- Streamlining and clarifying of policies
- Educator workload and administrative burden
- Assessment
- Transition between Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase and the overload
- Learning and Teaching Support Materials (LTSM)
- Educators and training.

The Revised National Curriculum Statement which is now called the National Curriculum Statement seem not to have changed the situation substantially because it has also been reviewed and recommended to be streamlined. It is therefore logical and appropriate to revisit the implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools. A thorough investigation should be done to identify educators' problems in implementing education policies on teaching and learning. This forms the basis on which this study is laid.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to Samuels (2009:1), research is designed to solve a particular existing problem so that there is a much larger audience eager to support research that is likely to be profitable or solve problems of immediate concern. The education policies on teaching and learning in South African schools have been reviewed and streamlined, that is, from Curriculum 2005 to the Revised National Curriculum Statement and from the National Curriculum Statement to the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement. The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement was implemented in 2011 in the Foundation Phase, and for all the other phases by the end of 2012. It is imperative to look at how policies on progression and promotion are implemented.

Based on research, management can make intelligent and informed decisions (Moorty 2010:1). It is for that reason that, this research is necessary for education policy makers in realising how teaching and learning is affected by the various education policies. It is hoped that the study will also inform policy makers about problems experienced by educators in the implementation of the education policies on teaching and learning. Policy makers and decision-making bodies may find the findings of this study useful in shaping the education system in future. Assessment policy can have a negative impact on teaching and learning if not appropriately implemented. On the other hand, language in education policy can also have an effect on teaching and learning, especially when learners are taught in the language they do not understand. Thus, the educators' knowledge and understanding of language issues in education policy (LiEP) need to be investigated in order to identify problems educators might be experiencing in terms of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT), also known as language of instruction.

The study has the potential to highlight educators' opinions, ideas and recommendations in current debates about challenges of interpreting and implementing the various education policies on teaching and learning. It is appropriate to research how these policies in education are being implemented and their processes managed in schools. This could motivate educators to continue improving and equipping the learners with a variety of skills and competencies.

Furthermore, the research intends to contribute towards a better understanding of the threats and weaknesses of the education policies on teaching and learning in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. The success of these policies depends on how they are interpreted and implemented by educators who play a key role in the process of implementation. Close interactions with educators may provide policy makers and the Department of Education's officials insight into how these policies are understood by learners and educator.

Drotor (2007:3), states that in order for the study to be significant, the research needs to exceed the threshold of current scientific work in a specific area. A research study updates previous researches and its development. The significance of the study should discuss the importance of the proposed research and its relevance. The investigation might be relevant for theory, practice and future research. The research study can enhance the critical and analytical thinking of students, since in most of the institutions small research studies are an essential component of the syllabus. The research study can give food for thought to new researchers. This study also revealed educators' challenges, issues, anxieties, needs, attitudes and morale in implementing the education policies on teaching and learning. The findings of this study might be useful to educators and the Department of Education in improving the standard or developing viable teaching and learning policies in South African schools in order to counteract the challenges. Furthermore, this research seeks to enhance future debates on the challenges of the implementation of education policies on teaching and learning. This study is also considered to be important in the sense that it could create interest among researchers and educators to engage in more critical reflection and debate on the implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. The opinions of educators are necessary if the Department of Education is to develop strategies and mechanisms to improve the standard of teaching and learning in

schools. The educators are the key role players through which all aspects of education policies pertaining to teaching and learning reach the learners. Critical Discourse Analysis can assist in investigating educators' knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning policies. In turn, this may uncover deeper insights and expose the researcher and other stakeholders in education to a broad spectrum of literature and knowledge of teaching and learning policies in South African schools and propose how challenges can be addressed.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW AND RELEVANT THEORIES

According to Bazeley (2007:41), beginning a project by viewing what is already known on the subject is a well established practice, as it reviews the implications of the relevant theories for the topic and methods others have used to investigate it. Holy, Arhar and Kasten (2005:263) state that by reviewing literature, we synthesize multiple dimensions of the topic and deepen our understanding of the contents of our own research. The first part of this research is therefore a survey of the literature on the topic of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. Objectives of literature review are to collect an acceptable body of knowledge on the topic and to gain a deeper insight into the field of teaching and learning policies. Primary sources, such as education policies on teaching and learning, published books, research reports, articles from periodicals and journals, official curriculum documents, education department reports, newspaper reports on education policies and other documents relevant to education policies were reviewed. Librarians in the Unisa library assisted in selecting and compiling lists of relevant secondary sources. Data were collected by reviewing relevant literature focusing on the teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. The researcher should provide evidence that he has read a certain amount of relevant literature and that he has some awareness of the current state of knowledge on the subject (Potter 2002:128). Data to be collected should be relevant to the topic under study.

According to Terre Blanch (2007:20), refining a research problem involves identifying a theoretical framework upon which to base the research. Theories that influence the research problem as well as the research methods that are used should be stated. This study was underpinned by a critical discourse analysis theory in which the researcher expressed his

comments or judgements based on written or spoken communications, discussions or conversations with educators and the school management team members. It involved an analysis of the merits and demerits of the implementation of education policies in teaching and learning processes in South African schools. Thus, critical discourse analysis was considered an appropriate framework to engage and converse about the research problem and questions of this study.

McGregor (2010:1) sees critical discourse analysis as tool to help members of the profession understand the messages they are sending to themselves and others and to understand the meanings of the words spoken and written by others. According to Van Dijk (2001:4), critical discourse analysis primarily studies the way social power abuse; dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. Lucke (1996:12) states that critical discourse analysis sets out to generate agency among students, teachers, and others by giving them tools to see how texts represent the social and natural world in particular interests and how texts position them and generate the very relations of institutional power at work in classrooms, staffrooms, and policy. Furthermore, Locke (2004:1) argues that language is at the heart of critical discourse analysis. Language is an imperative aspect in teaching and learning as all learning areas/subjects are taught through language. Critical discourse analysis has been chosen to analyse how teaching and learning policies are affected by social inequalities in various communities in South African schools. Teaching and learning policies are also affected by the socio-economic situations in various environments. Critical discourse analysis involves debating or communicating in either spoken or written form. This means that policies are drafted and people should be given opportunities to be involved in debates and conversations about these policies and in order to do so valuable data generated through research such as this is critical.

Critical discourse analysis does not provide a tangible answer to problems based on scientific research but it enables access to the ontological and epistemological assumptions behind a project, a statement, a method of research, or a system of classification (Olson 2007:17). Discussions with participants in this study assisted in revealing motivations behind texts. Teaching and learning processes and activities are either in spoken or written form. Educators should have appropriate

knowledge of teaching and learning policies by reading about these policies or by listening to experts' descriptions of these policies.

According to Wodak (2009:31), critical means not taking things for granted, opening up complexity, challenging reductionism, dogmatism and dichotomies, being self reflective in research, and through these processes, making opaque structures of power relations and ideologies. Teaching and learning policies should be appropriately and critically analysed and described to enable their effective implementation in South African schools. The principles associated with the education policies on teaching and learning should be asserted.

Discourse analysis is a qualitative method that has been adopted and developed by social constructionists and the focus is any form of written or spoken language, such as a newspaper article (Hudson 2010:37). Barbie and Mouton (2007:17), define constructivism as the theory of knowledge or epistemology that argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from experiences. Knowledge is not fixed but is constructed, shaped and reconstructed in different social contexts and at different times. The way the teaching and learning policies are implemented in schools need to be critiqued so as to come up with alternatives to assist the education system of the country. Being critical does not necessarily mean being negative, but critiques can also be positive. The education policies on teaching and learning should be analysed and interpreted appropriately. Apart from critical discourse analysis as the principal theory, this study was influenced by teaching and learning theories such as constructivism, epistemology and ontology. The focus was on how knowledge or reality is socially constructed.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND QUESTIONS

The move to an outcomes-based education presented South African educators with a challenge of what is called a paradigm shift in education. In this study the researcher endeavours to investigate, explore and research educators' understanding and knowledge of education policies on teaching and learning. Educators had to change the way in which they used to teach learners. The national outcry that learners cannot read and write and lack appropriate comprehension of language usage is cause for concern. If the purposes of the education policies on teaching and

learning are to be realised in practice, educators must be placed in a position where they can implement the policies with maximum commitment and confidence. Harnack (1993:6) compares the autonomy of the teacher in the classroom with that of a brain surgeon by asking what would happen in a hospital setting if a brain surgeon made a specific decision, which would then be countermanded by the superintendent of the hospital. This may not be the best analogy or comparison.

The qualitative research paradigm does not begin with a research problem to which the researcher hopes to find answers or solutions (Patton 1990:73). This study is mainly about a human condition or situation which the researcher believes that those who have experienced the situation might enlighten others who lack that particular experience.

In order to guide this research, the problem statement is formulated in a form of a question and followed by sub-questions. Lock, Spirduso and Silverman (2000:13) indicate that questions are the tools most commonly employed to provide a focus for thesis and dissertation studies. According to Andrews (2003:69), the research questions must have the potential for being answered in the project or research study to be undertaken. The answers to the main research question and sub-questions are aimed at identifying factors that hamper the effective implementation of the teaching and learning policies in South African schools. The main research question is as follows:

- How are educators implementing teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation?
- In order to address the main question the following sub-questions have been identified:
- What strategies are educators employing to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively?
 - How knowledgeable are educators and learners in terms of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT)?
 - What are the educators' needs for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies?

- How are educators trained or professionally developed to implement teaching and learning policies effectively?
- How are learners progressing from one Grade to the other?

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 The research aim

In the light of the above research question and sub-questions, the aim of the research is:

- To establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented by educators in selected South African schools in the new democratic dispensation.

1.5.2 The research objectives

The objectives of this study are:

- To determine strategies that educators employ in order to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively.
- To establish the knowledge educators and learners have in terms of language of learning and teaching.
- To describe knowledge that educators need for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies.
- To identify the kind of training or professional development typically offered to the educators.
- To note inconsistencies in use of the criteria or guidelines used by educators in progressing learners from one Grade to the other.

1.6 RESEACH DESIGN AND METHODS

Trochim (2006:1) states that research design provides the glue that holds the research project together and design is used to structure the research, to show all the major parts of the research projects- the samples or groups, measures, treatments or programmes, and methods of assessment-work together to try to address the central research questions. Sridhar (2006:3) defines the research design as a conceptual structure, a blueprint, an outline of what the researcher will do in terms of selection of a problem, formulation of the selected problem, formulation of hypothesis, conceptualisation and research design. Tompkins (2008:4) further states that researchers can design a study to characterise a single instance of a phenomenon or take an inference about a phenomenon in a population via a sample. Inductive refers to inference of a general law from particular instances (Thompson, 1996:45). According to Holly, Arhar and Kasten (2005:265), the methodology adopted in a study provides information about how the research was conducted, not about what was learned. The research methodology of this study was qualitative and inductively based. Qualitative method was used to gather information from the different categories of participants on how teaching and learning methods are implemented.

De Vos, Strydom and Fouche (2005:79) state that qualitative research methods elicit participants' accounts of meaning, experience or perceptions by producing descriptive data in the participants' own spoken words. Qualitative research is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomenon, often with a purpose of describing and understanding the phenomenon from the participants' point of view (Leedy & Ormrod 2001:101). Qualitative research was chosen to assist the researcher investigate how educators implement teaching and learning policies. The advantage of this approach is that it provides rich descriptive data as observed by the researcher during the interactions with participants. It served as the principal method of investigation. This method also enabled the researcher to capture different experiences of the participants accurately. Qualitative method relies heavily on the meanings of communicated information and not on quantity as indicated through statistics. This method contributed to answering the research questions which are informed by the main research question enabling critical discourse analysis which examined the spoken and written words in detail.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999:2), qualitative research is pragmatic, interpretive and grounded in the lived experiences of people. Qualitative researchers continually ask questions of the people they are learning from to discover “what they are experiencing, how they interpret their experiences and how they themselves structure the social world in which they live” (Bogdan & Biklen 1998:7). In qualitative research, the researcher is acknowledged as an active participant in the process of research (Strauss & Corbin 1990:133). In this study, educators’ knowledge was analysed and interpreted to achieve a common understanding of the teaching and learning policies. The researcher interacted actively with the participants and became part of the process of research but not acting or participating at a distance.

O’ Connel-Davidson and Layder (1994:52) argue that the researcher should continually monitor his or her assumptions throughout the research process. The researcher has lengthy, informal and frequent contacts with the participants; some even become lifelong friends (Grinnel 1993:61). In accordance with Patton (1990:42), a qualitative research approach as a primary source data-gathering instrument is important in providing a detailed account of the process of enquiry in order for the credibility of the research to be determined. This assists the researcher to guard against bias and distortions so that better results emerge. In this study, the position of the researcher in relation to teaching and learning policies was continually considered.

Furthermore, although the study is grounded in the qualitative research methodology, quantitative research methodology was also used because of the number of schools, learners, educators, principals and HODs involved in this study.

1.6.1 Population and sampling

According to Mugo (2011:5), a population is a group of individuals, persons, objects, or items from which samples are taken for measurements, for example a population of presidents or professors, books or students. Selection of the schools was based on the following criteria:

- The type of the school
- The learner and educator population and

- The location of the schools.

The target group and population of the study comprised experienced educators who are teaching Grade 4 and 6 learners, English as First Additional Language (FAL) and have been in the field of teaching for ten or more years. Five schools in the Gauteng Department of Education's Gauteng North District were invited to participate in the study. These two Grades were selected to investigate how learners cope with their learning activities at the entry and exit levels of the Intermediate Phase. Although the study focused on educators and learners, other members of the schools' support system like principals and heads of department (HODs) were interviewed. This assisted in presenting the views of educators against the background of the ethos and contexts of the individual schools.

The above description of the sample is an indication that a purposive sample was used in this research. According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:1167), purposive refers to "having or done with a particular purpose". In purposive sampling the researcher must first think critically about the parameters of the population and then choose the sample case accordingly (De Vos et al 2005:331). Zint and Montgomery (2007:3), state that purposeful sampling is a non-random method of sampling where the researcher selects information-rich cases for study in depth. Furthermore, Mugo (2011:5) declares that sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. The sample is a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey. In purposeful sampling, we sample with a purpose in mind (Trochim 2006:11). Schools were selected purposefully to the extent that they were regarded as rich sources of the knowledge the researcher intended gathering (Patton, 1990:47). In this study purposeful sampling was used to select informants with rich information. The sampling involved schools from different socio-economic backgrounds: farm schools, schools from townships, schools from informal settlements as well as the former Model C schools. This variety of participants enabled an inquiry of how teaching and learning policies are implemented in schools that are different in physical resources, learner and educator composition and other variables like location, proximity to residential areas, towns and townships. Specific information for schools to be selected requested at the Gauteng North District of the Department of Education.

The researcher is aware that the quality of the data depends on the ability of the researcher to establish rapport and develop open and trustworthy relationships with the participants. Unlike other types of samplings such as theoretical, deviant, sequential, snowball and volunteer, purposeful sampling was deemed appropriate for this study because qualitative research requires that data to be collected must be rich in description of people and places.

1.6.2 Data collection

According to Voce (2005:6), the primary methods of data collection in qualitative research are observation, interview and focus group discussion. Data collection is simply how information is gathered. In-depth formal interviewing was used as the main data collection method. Other data collecting techniques, such as classroom participant observation and informal conversations were used to supplement data collected through interviews. Data were also collected through observing and describing the experiences of the participants. The literature review informed the researcher about the topic. The researcher interacted with the participants in order to get the most reliable information. To avoid manipulation, the researcher gave the participants equal opportunities to participate in the investigation. The researcher used focus group interviews and individual interviews to collect data. Follow-up sessions were appropriate in the form of structured and unstructured interviews.

According to Denscombe (2003:168), focus group interviews provide an opportunity for individuals with common or divergent backgrounds to explore a problem. Focus group interviewing is a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive non-threatening environment (Krueger 1994:6). Focus group interview relies on the interaction among group members to elicit more points of view as group members influence each other by responding to ideas and comments in discussions (Mertens 1998:174). This data collection method is actually an open group discussion. The format of this type of group interview is not that of question and answer. The researcher encourages respondents to use their own terminology in describing their experiences. The reason for this is to allow the data to truly emerge from the respondents.

1.6.3 Validity and reliability

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:324) define validity as the degree of congruence between the explanation of phenomena and the realities of the world. McMillan and Schumacher (1997:404), state that the validity of qualitative research design is the degree to which the interpretations and concepts are shared by the participants and the researcher. Validity concerns the degree to which inferences about students based on their test scores are warranted. Even when qualitative measures are used in research, they need to be looked at using measures of reliability and validity in order to sustain the trustworthiness of the results. Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are.

Golafshani (2005:1) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time. An accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. In statistics or measurement theory, a measurement or test is considered reliable if it provides considered results (Bornheimer et al 2008:229). According to Patton (2001:38), validity and reliability are factors which any qualitative researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analysing results and judging the quality of the study.

Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (1997:408) argue that the researcher's interactive style, data recording strategies, data analysis, and interpretation of the results contribute towards the reliability of qualitative research. Reliability of qualitative research design refers to the researcher's ability to be transparent, consistent and dependable in his or research activities so that research bias is minimised (Chenail 1995:5). In this study the researcher ensured reliability of the study by listening to the audio tape recordings of the study by the same person or different people many times. The researcher spent sufficient time with the participants and observed persistently in order to ascertain validity of information as well as by triangulation, which is, using more than one method of data collection. To ensure that reliability and validity is ascertained in this critical discourse analysis study, the researcher first pilot-tested the research instruments and used opinions from experts.

According to Ratcliff (2002:19), validity in qualitative research can be found in the following ways:

- Divergence from initial expectations - see personal notes kept from the beginning to see how the data has pushed you from initial assumptions
- Convergence with other sources of data - using variation or kinds of triangulation and comparisons with the literature
- Extensive quotations - from field notes, transcripts of interviews, other notes

On the other hand, Guba and Lincoln (2005:13) propose four criteria for judging the soundness of qualitative research and explicitly offered these as an alternative to more traditional quantitative-oriented criteria, namely:

- Credibility - the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings
- Dependability - concerned with whether we would obtain the same results if we could observe the same thing twice
- Conformability - the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others

The researcher was guided by the above criteria and guidelines to make sure that his study was valid and reliable. Validity and reliability of this study was also ensured by testing the findings of the research against the four criteria developed by Guba and Lincoln (2005) as well as critically analysing the data.

1.6.4 Data analysis and interpretation

According to Michelle (2007:103), qualitative data analysis consists of identifying, coding and categorising patterns found in the data. Bradley (2007:619) declares that once the data have been reviewed and there is a general understanding of the scope and contexts of the key experiences under study, coding provides the analyst with a formal system to organise data, uncovering and documenting additional links within and between concepts and experiences described in the data. Plooy (2007:41) defines data analysis as a process of bringing order and structure to the mass of collected data. Discourse analysis usually uses tapes so they can be played and replayed for several people discussing, not individual person specifically. Data analysis and interpretation involved the analysis and interpretation of documents related to teaching and learning policies. Data were analysed by selecting, comparing, synthesising and interpreting information to provide explanation.

According to Creswell (1994:153), in qualitative research data analysis is conducted simultaneously with data collection, data interpretation and narrative reporting. Bogdan and Biklen (1998:145) define qualitative data analysis as “working with data, organising it, and breaking it into manageable units, synthesising it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned and deciding what will tell others”. Strauss and Corbin (1990:220) contend that the bits of data from the participants provide the researcher with this “big picture” that transcends any one single bit of data. In this study the researcher analysed and interpreted the “big picture” from what the participants said and how individual statements related to what the “big picture” stands for. The researcher used the inductive approach to ensure that the research findings emerge from the frequent, dominant or significant themes inherent in raw data generated.

Comparisons were drawn, similarities identified and a discussion of the research was presented. Once the data was generated, the researcher organised the data and discovered the relationships or patterns through close scrutiny of the data. The data were coded, categorised and condensed. The researcher then interpreted and drew meaning from the displayed data. According to Best and Khan (1993:203), the main task in data analysis is to make sense of the amount of data collected

by reducing the volume of information, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveals. The first step to be taken by the researcher involved data organisation. The process also involved grouping of information, coding information of similar kind and genre and describing the information inductive reasoning. After major topics and sub-topics from the interviews and document analyses were identified, data collected were categorised according to the topics and sub-topics.

1.6.5 Ethical considerations for human participants

According to Dickson-Swift, James, Kippen and Liamputtong (2007:2), researchers undertaking qualitative research, and particularly qualitative research on sensitive topics, need to be able to make an assessment of the impact of the research on both the participants and themselves. Eide and Khan (2008:3) state that qualitative research requires a mutual standpoint, researcher to participant, human being to human being. On the other hand, James, Dickson-Swift, Kippen, and Liamputting (2009:18) declare that sensitive research has the potential to impact on all the people who are involved in it, including researchers and it encourages us to examine the potential for harm to the researchers as well as to the research participants. In this study, informants' permission was requested for interviewing. The researcher pledged to uphold the confidentiality of respondents' statements. The prospective informants were informed that they would remain free to choose to participate or not to participate in the topic under research, or even to stop participating if they had some reservations about the direction the interviews took at a later stage. The objectives of the research were thoroughly explained to the educators prior to their participation in the research and that no personal gains were attached to the research.

De Vos et al (2005:75) defines ethics as a set of widely accepted moral principles that offer rules and behavioural expectations of, the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. According to Williams (1995:4), the possible consequences for research participants should be carefully considered. Cwikel and Cnaan (1991:115), state that an ethical dilemma arises if the researcher chooses one form of conduct and respects a certain moral principle, but transgresses another. Since critical discourse analysis focuses on conversations, discussions and debates over issues,

topics or texts, either in spoken or written form, the researcher abode by the moral principles of research especially of respecting the participants' views and opinions.

The opportunity for educators' knowledge to be documented for consultation by future policy makers was clearly stated as the significance of the study to the field of education. The researcher requested permission to use audio-recording tapes to record the interviews verbatim, whilst also taking notes. The recorded tapes were transcribed and where possible the transcripts were discussed with the interviewees for purposes of verification. It was explained to them that the tape-recording is necessary to avoid misrepresenting them in the researcher's report. Assurances were given that recorded interviews were not used for anything else beyond the writing of the report and other forms of dissemination of this study's findings, and that the recording would be erased as soon as the report is finalised. Respondents were informed that their anonymity would be safeguarded by using pseudonyms instead of their real names and codes for their schools. Respondents were given written confirmations that their anonymity would be safeguarded.

1.7 CLARIFICATION OF PERTINENT CONCEPTS

The pertinent concepts which form an integral part of this study and those which are related to this topic are discussed below in order to indicate their meaning as used in this research:

1.7.1 National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

National Qualifications Framework (NQF) refers to the General Education and Training (GET) made of Grades R to 9, Further Education and Training (FET) made of Grades 10 to 12 and Higher Education and Training (Institutions of higher education such as universities). Qualification means a planned combination of learning outcomes which has a defined purpose or purposes, and which is intended to provide qualifying learners with applied competence and a basis for further learning. For the purpose of this study educators' knowledge of the aspects included in the National Qualifications Framework was investigated.

1.7.2 Curriculum

According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:352), curriculum refers to the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college. Curriculum refers to the formal academic programme provided by a school, as reflected in subjects on the time-table (Gulting, Hoadley & Jansen 2003:21). Wiles and Bondi (1998:6) indicate that in the teaching and learning situation the curriculum is compared to a race or course which a learner is entitled to complete. From the above definitions, it is evident that a curriculum is a plan or programme for teaching and learning. Curriculum can also be seen as the planned learning opportunities offered to learners. A critical analysis of how educators implement the curriculum was done in this research.

1.7.3 Involvement

Involvement refers to sharing the experiences or effects of a situation (Thompson 1996: 467). According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:467), involvement refers to participation in an activity or situation or being engaged in an emotional or personal relationship. Thus, it is imperative for the educators to be involved in all policies, strategies and programmes of the education system in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

1.7.4 Educator

Educator is any person who teaches, educates or trains people or provides educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychology services, at any public school and who is appointed in a post on any educator establishment under the Employment of Educators Act 1998 (Act No. 76 of 1998). Van der Horst and Mc Donald (1997:11) define an educator as the main agent for the promotion of a culture of teaching and learning. According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:455), an educator is a person who gives intellectual, moral, and social instruction or train or gives information on a particular subject. Ary (1990:103) explains an educator as one who voluntarily elects to follow a profession which seeks to help youth to become equipped for life, to realise their potential and to assist them on their way to self-actualisation and to ultimate adulthood. From the above definitions, it is with no doubt that an educator plays an important role

in the teaching and learning processes by unlocking an individual, whether an adult or non-adult into realising what was not known and making it known to him/her. Educators' knowledge and understanding of the teaching and learning policies formed the core of this study.

1.7.5 Evaluation and assessment

Evaluation is when the information obtained through assessment is interpreted to make judgements about a learner's level of competence. It includes a consideration of a learner's attitudes and values (Department of Education 1998:11). According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:493), evaluation refers to formulation of an idea of the amount, number, or value of something. Evaluation in this study involved assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the programmes, policies and personnel in order to improve their effectiveness.

Assessment is a process that involves four steps, i.e., generating and collecting evidence of achievement; evaluating this evidence against outcomes; recording the findings of this evaluation; and using this information to assist the learners' development and improve the process of learning and teaching (Department of Education 1998:10). Department of Education (2002 b: 54 – 55), assessment is a continuous planned process of gathering information on learner performance, measures against the assessment standards. According to Erwin (1991:14), assessment is the process of defining, selecting, designing, collecting, analysing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development. Due to the commonalities in the definitions of assessment, that is, collecting evidence of achievement, this study focused on examining how learners are assessed in checking and judging how they perform in their learning activities.

1.7.6 Critical discourse analysis

According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:339), critical refers to expressing adverse or disappointing comments or judgements expressing or involving analysis of the merits and faults of a work of literature or of a situation or a problem. According to Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000:456), critical refers to investigating and probing the connections between language and social structure. Critical theorists believe that facts are never neutral and are embedded in contexts

(Rogers, Malamcharuvil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui and O' Garro Joseph 2005:358). From the above definitions, it is evident that this study investigated and critically looked at how educators implemented teaching and learning policies.

Discourse refers to written or spoken communication or debate, formal written or spoken discussions of a topic, linguistics - a text or conversation, speak or write authoritatively about a topic, engage in a conversation (Soanes & Stevenson 2008:409). Rogers et al (2005:369) say the word "discourse" comes from the Latin *discursus*, which means "to run to and fro". According to Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000:456), discourse refers to the analysis of vocabulary, grammar, cohesion and text structure. This study focused on the teaching and learning policies which are debated either in written or spoken discussions and educators need to have adequate vocabulary, understanding and knowledge to implement them appropriately and effectively.

Analysis refers to a detailed examination of something in order to interpret or explain it, to a process of separating something into its constituent elements (Soanes & Stevenson 2008:46). According to Rogers et al (2005:371), "analysis" in "Critical Discourse Analysis" includes analysis of texts, interactions, and social practices at the local, institutional, and social levels, that is, to describe the relationships among certain texts, interactions, and social practices, to interpret the configuration of discourse practices, and to use the description and interpretation to offer an explanation of why and how social practices are constituted, changed, and transformed in the ways that they are. Interactions with the educators assisted in explaining how they experience the implementation of the education policies on teaching and learning. A detailed discussion of critical discourse analysis is presented in chapter three.

1.7.7 Perceptions

Perceptions are ways of regarding, understanding, or interpreting something (Soanes and Stevenson 2008:1063). Aray (1990:102), explains educators' perceptions as educators' needs , attitudes, tensions and anxieties, not only strongly condition his self-perceptions , but also influence his perceptions of his learners. Salvin (1997:185) defines perception as when the senses receive stimuli, the mind immediately begins working on some of them; and therefore, the sensory

images of which we are conscious are not exactly the same as what we saw, heard, or felt, they are what our senses perceived. From the definitions provided, perception therefore, is an experience of what is observed and known, which can be explained through discussions with other people. Perceptions of educators, their socio-economic backgrounds, interests, needs and level of education as well as their anxieties in implementing teaching and learning policies formed part of this study.

1.7.8 Forms of assessment

1.7.8.1 Continuous assessment

Continuous assessment is an ongoing process that tracks what a learner knows, understands, values and can do. It provides information that is used to support the learner's development and enable improvements to be made in the process of teaching and learning (Department of Education 1998:10). Soanes and Stevenson (2008:309), continuous refers to "forming a series with no exceptions or reversals". In this study the focus is also on how continuous assessment is conducted to promote the quality of teaching and learning.

1.7.8.2 Baseline assessment

Baseline assessment usually takes place when beginning with learning to establish what learners already know and it assists to plan learning and programmes and activities (Department of Education (2002 b:21). Baseline assessment in this study is the one usually used at the beginning of a phase or Grade to test learners' prior knowledge.

1.7.8.3 Summative assessment

Summative assessment is used to give an overall picture of learners' progress at a given time, for example, at the end of the term or year, or on transfer of the learner to another school (Department of Education (2002 b:21). Summative assessment should be understood as the way educators assess learners' achievement of learning outcomes at the end of a particular term or year.

1.7.8.4 Formative assessment

Formative assessment is used to support the learner developmentally and to provide feedback into the teaching or learning process (Department of Education 1998:11). Formative assessment is a learning opportunity and not just a test of learners' performances and it assists in planning future learning and provides feedback to learners (Department of Education 2002 (b):19). Formative assessment should be understood in this study as educators' support to learners in order to improve their achievement of learning outcomes.

1.7.9 Criterion referencing

Criterion referencing is the practice of assessing a learner's performance against an agreed set of criteria (Department of Education 1998: 10). Criterion refers to a principle or standard by which something may be judged or decided (Soanes & Stevenson 2008:339). In this study criterion referencing means the way educators make judgements about learners' performance against pre-determined outcomes.

1.7.10 Assessment tasks

Assessment tasks are a series of activities which are intended to obtain information about a learner's competencies (Department of Education 1998:10). An assessment task can be defined as an activity or a number of activities in assessing learners' variety of skills and competencies (Department of Education (2002 (b):27). In this study assessment tasks refer to a variety of assessment activities that are appropriate to various levels of teaching and learning.

1.7.11 Progression and promotion

Progression is a key design principle of the National Curriculum Statement that enables the learner to gradually develop more complex, deeper and broader knowledge skills and understanding in each Grade (Department of Education 2002 (b):55). According to Soanes and Stevenson (2008:1147), progression refers to a gradual movement or development towards a

destination or a more advanced state. In this study progression is understood as the way learners' progress from one Grade to the other.

A learner is promoted on the basis of demonstrating competencies that reflect a balanced spread over all learning areas, and which have been assessed through a continuous assessment programme and an external summative assessment component (Department of Education 2002 (b) :56) . In this study promotion should be understood as the process when learners progress from one phase to the next phase.

In conclusion, clarification of pertinent concepts relevant to this study is imperative for the researcher to study the teaching and learning policies appropriately and effectively. Education policies on teaching and learning were critically studied with the aid of the sub-questions which were informed by the main research question.

1.8 CHAPTER DIVISION

The study comprises six chapters, namely:

Chapter one

This chapter comprises of an overview of the study; the introductory background and the context of the study in terms of literature review and relevant theories, the problem statement, aims and objectives, significance and the contribution of the study, research design and methods, and clarification of pertinent concepts.

Chapter two

In this chapter the theoretical frameworks that influence teaching and learning policies are discussed; as pointers of using these for this study.

Chapter three

This chapter comprised of broad overview of teaching and learning policies in South African Schools. The literature study of policies on education in general and teaching and learning specifically is exported.

Chapter four

In this chapter the research methodology and procedures for undertaking the study are explored at a greater length.

Chapter five

This chapter comprises the research findings, data analysis and interpretations.

Chapter six

In this chapter the summary, concluding remarks and recommendations based on the findings are discussed.

1.9 SUMMARY

Chapter one describes the background and context of the study, significance of the study, literature review and relevant theories, problem statement and aims, as well as the objectives of the study. Research design and methods, clarification of pertinent concepts and chapter division are also discussed.

The next chapter will include the discussion of Critical Discourse Analysis theory and other related theories on teaching and learning.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS THAT INFLUENCE TEACHING AND LEARNING POLICIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided background to the study, its significance, a brief discussion of the literature review and relevant theories, problem statement, aims, research design and methods as well as the clarification of pertinent concepts. The limitations of the study are noted as the study unfolds; hence these are emergent rather than predetermined. This chapter discusses theoretical frameworks that influence the implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools. These paradigms are ways of looking at the world in general and at teaching and learning in particular. Further, attention is paid to the effect of these theories on the design and implementation of teaching and learning policies. Education policies are based on one or a combination of theoretical frameworks. The relevant theoretical frameworks are defined in the ensuing section and their characteristics, aims, purposes, programmes, forms and principles described.

2.2 THE INFLUENCE OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS ON RESEARCH

Scholars argue that theoretical paradigms about knowledge and learning influence education systems of countries. As is the case with South Africa, the political history has influenced the theories of government in its decisions to design and develop new teaching and learning policies. Different perspectives have emerged in South Africa since 1994 on education transformation. The political and educational perspectives of decision makers in the democratic dispensation led to the introduction of outcomes-based education (OBE). In this study it is argued that political decisions and perspectives on changing the curriculum have to be supported by educational theories and perspectives. Legitimate (conforming to the law or to rules) theoretical frameworks are necessary to guide teaching and learning policy designers. Two main theories that have an influence on teaching and learning are discussed in ensuing section 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 of this chapter. These theories are namely, critical discourse analysis and constructivism, are. Critical discourse analysis

of the various policies on teaching and learning was used to establish educators' understanding and experiences of such policies.

2.2.1 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

According to Van Dijk (2006:252), critical discourse analysis is primarily interested in and motivated by the endeavour to understand pressing social issues. Wodak and Mayer (2009:7) argue that critical discourse analysis emphasises the need for interdisciplinary work in order to gain a proper understanding of how language functions in constituting and transmitting knowledge in organising social institutions. Rogers et al (2005:368) state that critical theories are generally concerned with issues of power and justice and the ways that the economy, race, class, gender, religion, education, and sexual orientation construct, reproduce or transform social systems. The framework of analysis includes analysis of texts, interactions and social practices at the local, institutional and societal levels. Critical discourse analysis deals with long term analysis of fundamental causes and consequences of issues. Therefore, it requires an account of detailed relationships between text, talk, society and culture. Teaching and learning policies can be better understood by looking at the social issues of the community as well as the language and type of texts used.

McGregor (2010:2) argues that critical discourse analysis challenges us to move from seeing language as abstract to seeing our words as having meaning in a particular historical, social and political condition. Hence critical discourse analysis studies real, and often extended, instances of social interaction which take particularly in linguistic form (Blommaert & Bulcaen 2000:448). According to Locke (2004:1), critical discourse analysis aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between discursive practices, events and texts, and wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power. It aims at revealing the motivation and politics involved in the arguing for or against a specific research method, statement, or value. Lucke (1996:13) declares that, because texts are moments of inter-subjectivity, that is, the social and discursive relations between human subjects, they involve writers and readers, speakers and listeners, individuals whose intentions are neither

self-evident nor recoverable without recourse to another text. Critical discourse analysis is a tool to help members of a profession understand the messages they are sending to themselves and others and to understand the meanings of the spoken and written texts by others. The words of those in power are taken as “self evident truths” and the words of those not in power are dismissed as irrelevant, inappropriate or without substance (McGregor 2010:2). This is an unacceptable perception since educators should also be engaged in the development of teaching and learning policies. Since texts are also located in key social institutions such as schools and offices of departments of education, critical discourse analysis emphasises the analysis of such original documents. In this study policy documents on teaching and learning as well as social interactions and how educators interpret such documents have been critically analysed.

Critical discourse analysis is primarily positioned in the environment of language and its successes can be measured with a measuring rod of the study of languages. Language can be used to represent speakers’ beliefs, positions and ideas in terms of spoken texts like conversations. Written or oral messages convey meanings if we analyse the underlying meaning of the words. Analysis of underlying meanings can assist in interpreting issues, conditions and events in which the educators find themselves. Using words can direct/assist those in control of the education system. Critical discourse analysis can only make a significant and specific contribution to critical social or political analyses if it is able to provide an account of the role of language, language use, discourse or communicative events in the production of dominance and inequality (Van Dijk 2006:279; McGregor 2010:2). The focus of the theory and practice of critical discourse analysis is on structures of texts and talk. Critical discourse analysis tries to determine the relationship between the actual text and the processes involved in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, this provides skills in critically analysing written text, that is, the way we write and what we say. McGregor (2003:2) argues that given the power of the written and spoken word, critical discourse analysis is necessary for describing, interpreting, analysing and critiquing social life reflected in text. Educators’ understanding of the language of learning and teaching is imperative for them to implement policies on teaching and learning.

According Rogers et al (2005:371), the first goal of the analyst is to describe the relationships among certain texts, interactions and social practices; the second goal is to interpret the

configuration of discourse practices; and the third goal is to use the description and interpretation to offer an explanation of why and how social practices are constituted, changed, and transformed in the ways that they are. The aims, choices and criteria of critical discourse analysis are to monitor theory formation, analytical method and procedures of empirical research (Van Dijk 2006:253). On the other hand, Lucke (1996:20) argues that critical discourse analysis can make transparent asymmetries in relations, revealing the textual techniques by which texts attempt to position, locate, define, and, in some instances, enable and regulate readers and addressees.

Discourse is socially constructive as well as socially conditioned; it constitutes situations, objects of knowledge, and the social identities of and relationships between people and groups of people (Wodak 2009:37). Lucke (1996:20) declares that the task or function of critical discourse analysis, thus, is to disarticulate and to critique texts as a way of disrupting common sense. Critical discourse analysis can be seen as aiming to critically investigate issues of related texts. It aims to help the analyst understand the social problems that are mediated by mainstream ideology and power relationships, all perpetuated by the use of written texts in our daily and professional lives. The context of language is crucial as it considers language as a social practice. Written and spoken texts should be analysed critically and constructively. Discourse analysis is something we do when we make judgements about the value and truthfulness of texts or conversations as well as relevant documents.

Discourse analysis is meant to provide a higher awareness of the hidden motivations in others and ourselves and, therefore, enable us to solve concrete problems, not by providing unequivocal answers, but by making us ask ontological and epistemological questions (Olson 2007:29). Thus, it will not provide absolute answers to a specific problem, but enable us to understand the conditions behind a specific problem and make us realise that the essence of that problem and its resolution lie in its assumptions, the very assumptions that enable the existence of that problem. It can be applied to any text, that is, to any problem or situation. Critical analysis reveals what is going on behind our backs and those of others and which determines our actions. It does not argue for or against the validity and truth of a certain research method, statement, or values, but focuses on the existence and message of texts and locate them within a historical and social context.

The object of critical discourse analysis is to uncover the ideological assumptions that are hidden in the worlds of our written text or oral speech in order to resist and overcome various forms of power over or to gain an appreciation that we are exercising power over unbeknownst to use (McGregor 2010:4). It aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships between discursive practices, texts, and events and wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes.

McGregor (2010:3) argues that critical discourse analysis tries to unite and determine the relationship between three levels of analysis, namely:

- The actual text.
- The discursive practices.
- The larger social context that bears upon the text and the discursive practices.

According to Van Dijk (2006:259), the theory and practice of critical discourse analysis focus on the structures of text and talk, namely:

- Power enactment and discourse production: understanding and explaining power, relevant discourse structures involves recognition of the social and cognitive processes of their production. Even when present as participants, members of less powerful groups may also otherwise be more or less dominated in discourse.
- The socio-cognitive interface between dominance and production.
- Discourse structures and strategies in understanding: the justification of inequality involves the positive representation of the own group, and the negative representation of the others.

Critical discourse analysis looks to establish connections between properties of texts, futures of discourse practice (text production, consumption and distribution), and wider sociocultural practice (Fairclough 1995:87). The purpose is to analyse “opaque” as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language (Blommaert & Bulcaen 2000:448). Its other purpose is not to provide definite answers,

but to expand our personal horizons and make us realise our own shortcomings and make unacknowledged agendas or motivations as well as that of others. It studies real and often extended, instances of social interaction which take partially linguistic form. It is a resource for people who are trying to cope with the alienating and disabling effects of changes imposed upon them. This theory is about critically analysing spoken or written texts in the form of interactions, discussions, conversations or communications of topics under study.

2.2.1.1 A further understanding of the theory of critical discourse analysis

Discourse analysis is a qualitative method that has been adopted and developed by constructionists (Fulcher 2010:1). Locke (2004:5) describes discourse as a practice not just of representing the world, but of signifying the world, constituting and constructing the world in meaning. On the other hand, McGregor (2010:2) refers to discourse as expressing oneself using words. Van Dijk (2006:252) argues that critical discourse analysis requires true multidisciplinary and an account of intricate relationships between text, talk, social opinion, power, society and cultures. It is necessary for describing, interpreting, analysing, and critiquing social life reflected in text by using critical discourse analysis. Discourse analysis can be characterised as a way of approaching and thinking about a problem. It is making the world meaningful. Interpretation arises from an act of reading or analysing which makes meaning of a text.

Locke (2004:5) argues that discourse is a coherent way of making sense of the world as reflected in human sign systems including verbal language. He further describes discourse as a concept that is in an active relation to reality. Language signifies reality in the sense that discourse is in a passive relation to reality, with language merely referring to objects which are taken to be given in reality (Locke 2004:6). Discussions and conversations with the people involved with teaching and learning policies can bring about the reality of the situation on the ground. Since language is a social and cultural instrument, our sense of reality is socially and culturally constructed (Fulcher 2010:2). Language is the heart of critical discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis can be seen as a political intervention with its socially transformative agenda and thus is appropriate for a study of education policy in the post-apartheid era in South Africa.

According to Fulcher (2010:7), discourse analysis can be seen as a way of understanding social interactions. Furthermore, Fulcher (2010:4) states that a discourse is a particular theme in the text, especially those that relate to identities, for example, such as a statement that reiterates a view or claim that men find weddings dull. The research begins with a research question and not a hypothesis. A conversation or piece of text will be transcribed and then deconstructed. The investigator will attempt to identify categories, themes, ideas, views, and roles within the text itself. The aim is to identify commonly shared discursive resources, that is, shared patterns of talking.

However, according to Locke (2004:7), discourse implies ways of being and doing as well as ways of signifying. Discourses are ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking and reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular roles by specific groups of people. Locke further states:

- Discourse is shaped and constrained by social structure (class, age, ethnicity and gender) and by culture.
- Discourse helps shape and constrain our identities, relationships and systems of knowledge and beliefs.
- Systems are shaped and constrained by the language and worlds espoused by us and by others.

Education policies on teaching and learning are shaped by differences in social structures, relationships as well as different languages spoken in South Africa.

According to Fairclough (1995:43), language is a material form of ideology, and language is invested by ideology. Lucke (1996:12) argues that critical discourse analysis shares with sociolinguistics and ethnomethodology the assumption that language should be studied in a social context. Discourse is a complex of three elements, namely, social practice, discursive practice (text production, distribution and consumption), and text, and analysis of a specific discourse calls for analysis in each of these dimensions and their interrelations (Fairclough 1995:74). Critical discourse analysis of written and spoken texts operates in two ways, namely, critically and

constructively. Texts are located in key social institutions, that is, families, schools, churches, work places, mass media or government. Human subjects use texts to make sense of their world and to construct social actions and relations in the labour of everyday life while at the same time, texts position and construct individuals, making available various meanings, ideas and versions of the world (Lucke 1996:12). In face-to-face events in classrooms, discourse often unfolds in an uneven, contested, and unpredictable social configurations.

Critical discourse analysis tends to begin from a post-structuralist (reaction against structuralists' claims to scientific objectivity and universality) scepticism towards the assumption that people have singular, essential social identities or fixed cultural, social class, or gendered characteristics (Luke 1996:14). Discourses are dynamic and cross fertilising, continually relocated and generated in everyday texts. Every text is a kind of institutional speech act, a social action with language with a particular shape and features, forces, audience and consequences (Lucke 1996:15). All texts are made of recurrent statements, that is, claims, propositions and wordings. People construct meaning on the basis of their prior experiences with language and texts, their available stock of discourse resources. All texts are indeed multidiscursive (have significantly different meanings or connotations according to their use within different discourses), that is, they draw from a range of discourses, fields of knowledge and voices. Critical discourse analysis calls into question the very possibility of a nonideological statement or text on several grounds. All texts can be said to be normative, shaping, and constructing rather than simply reflecting and constructing.

The purpose of critical discourse analysis can be to make transparent to readers and listeners the devices with which texts position and manipulate them (Lucke 1996:19). It can make transparent asymmetries in those relations, revealing the textual techniques by which texts attempt to position, locate, define, and in some instances, enable and regulate readers and addressees (Fairclough 1995:79). The construction of official knowledge in schools involves discourses that transverse a range of texts and sites, from the legislative and policy documents prepared by civil servants, to curriculum texts prepared by academics, teachers and corporate publishers, to classroom lessons and informal talk, to the actual speech and writing undertaken by students for formal evaluation (McGregor 2010:28). Its principal effect is to establish itself as a form of common sense, to naturalise its own functions through its appearance in everyday texts. The task or function of

discourse analysis is to disarticulate and to critique texts as a way of disrupting common sense. It is something we do every day when we make judgements about the efficacy, value, and truth claims of everyday conversations, commercials or textbooks.

2.2.1.2 Programmes in critical discourse analysis

Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000:448) propose a three-dimensional framework for conceiving of and analysing discourse, namely:

- Discourse-as-text, that is, the linguistic features and organisation of concrete instances of discourse.
- Discourse-as-discursive-practice, that is, discourse as something that is produced, circulated, distributed, consumed in society.
- Discourse-as-social practice, that is, the ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse is a feature.

Critical discourse analysis advocates interventionism in the social practices it critically investigates. It should make proposals for change and suggest corrections to particular discourses. The meaning of a text does not come into being until it is actively employed in a context of use. In other words, discourse can be seen as the process of activating a text by relating it to a context in use. Contextualisation of a text is actually the reader's reconstruction of the writer's intended message. The observable product of the writer's discourse is actually a text. Discourse as discursive practise addresses multiple facets of research including textual, contextual, design and methodology. These approaches have been developed to examine ways in which knowledge is socially constructed in classrooms and other educational settings. In this study critical analysis of texts and the way educators practise various teaching and learning methodologies can pave way for specific interventions and changes.

2.2.1.3 Different forms of discourse analysis

Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is about trying to identify meaningful categories or themes in a body of data (Fulcher 2010:5). Howitt and Cramer (2010:211), state that in thematic analysis the task of the researcher is to identify a limited number of themes which adequately reflect their textual data. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns of (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke 2006:79). A theme is a cluster of linked categories conveying similar meanings and usually emerges through the inductive analytic process which characterises the qualitative paradigm. By looking at a text, the researcher asks whether a number of recurring themes can be abstracted about what is being said, for example, consistency or blame. Data familiarisation is a key to thematic analysis. After familiarisation, the researcher can code his/or data. In the results section of the report, the themes abstracted are collated and reported. Themes that were identified in this study were analysed and reported and recommendations made.

Print text analysis

According to Locke (2004:25), texts can be analysed in the following ways:

- **Prosody:** critical discourse analysis allows for binaries to be exposed and contested.
- **Contextualisation signals:** reinforcing authority by a form of reiteration.
- **Cohesion:** stitching a text together into a meaningful whole. These devices include conjunctions, pronouns, demonstratives, ellipsis, adverbs and repeated words and phrases. Conjunctions serve to establish relationships of either co-ordination or subordination.
- **Discourse organisation:** the ways in which sentences cohere into larger units and in with the organisation of the paragraphs themselves.
- **Thematic organisation:** motifs that underpin the discursive structure of editorial and advance its position.

In this study the text was analysed by looking at the kind of the text, the contents, settings, characters, plot, message and the researcher's viewpoint.

Oral text analysis

According to Locke (2004:74), analysing oral texts include the need to recognise prosodic features (variations in pitch, loudness, tempo, emphasis and rhythm); paralinguistic features (pauses, gaps, restarts, giggling, laughing); kinetic signals (hand movements, nods of the head, facial expressions and shift in gaze). In oral analysis, as in most communication, the parties follow two basic norms of cooperation and coherence (Barnett 2006:110). Okot (2007:4) concurs that in order to properly understand and interpret the meanings of text, we must place it within the context of a particular community and the circumstances under which the text is rendered. In terms of paralinguistic clues such as body language, facial expressions or proxemics (personal space), the speaker have more resources to convey meaning (Brenes 2005:5). Analysis aims to uncover ways in which particular speech-acts serve to position members of a conversation and in turn how these positions work to constitute various storylines. Prosodic and paralinguistic features as well as kinetic signals were critically analysed in this study as a way of establishing the understanding educators have of the various education policies on teaching and learning.

2.2.1.4 Conducting critical discourse analysis

Since discourse analysis is basically an interpretive and deconstructing reading, there are no specific guidelines to follow. However, one can make use of the theories of Jacques Derrida (deconstruction), Michael Foucault (genealogy and social criticism and analysis), Julia Kristeva (feminist interpretations of current social practices), or Fredric Jameson (post modernism). McGregor (2010:5) argues that critical discourse analysis does not have a unitary theoretical framework or methodology because it is best viewed as a shared perspective encompassing a range of approaches framing the details into a coherent whole, namely:

- Choosing and placing specific photographs, diagrams, sketches, and other embellishments to get readers' attention;

- Using headings and keywords to emphasise certain concepts by giving them textual prominence;
- Leaving certain things out completely, counting on if it is not mentioned, the average reader will not notice its absence, and thereby not scrutinise it;
- Using certain words that take certain ideas for granted, as if there is no alternative;
- Manipulating the reader by using selective voices to convey the message that certain points of view are more correct, legitimate, reliable, and significant while leaving out other voices.

The above-mentioned approaches enabled the researcher in this study to arouse the participants' interest in discussing their views on teaching and learning policies. It is imperative to use a variety of strategies in order to attract attention in conversations or discussions.

Mc Gregor (2010:5) mentions the following techniques of critical discourse analysis that can be used to facilitate sentences, phrases and words:

- Topicalisation, that is, in choosing what to put in the topic position, the writer creates a perspective or slant that influences the reader's perception;
- Sentences can also convey information about power relations;
- Nominalisation, that is, converting a verb into a noun;
- Presupposition can also occur at the sentence level in the form of persuasive rhetoric that can be used to convey the impression that what an agent of power says carries more weight;
- Insinuations, that is, when the facts, or the way the facts are presented, are challenged, the originator of the discourse can readily deny any culpability;
- Connotations, that is, even one word can convey strong meaning;
- Modality, that is, the tone of the text is set with the use of specific words to convey the degree of certainty and authority;
- Phony register, that is, writers can deceive readers by affecting a phony register, one that induces mistrust and scepticism.

The various techniques and approaches can assist in arousing the reader's attention and look specifically for what is appropriate and relevant. The way the discussions or conversations are presented is of paramount importance.

2.2.1.5 The views of critical discourse analysis

According to Locke (2004:1), critical discourse analysis:

- Views a prevailing social order as historically situated and therefore relative, socially constructed and changeable;
- Views a prevailing social order and social processes as constituted and sustained less by the will of individuals than by the pervasiveness of particular constructions or versions of reality often referred to as discourses;
- Views discourse as coloured by and productive of ideology;
- Views power in society not so much as imposed on individual subjects as an inevitable effect of a way particular discursive configurations or arrangements privilege the status and positions of some people over others;
- Views human subjectivity as at least in part constructed or inscribed by discourse as manifested in the various ways people are and enact the sorts of people they are;
- Views reality as textually and intertextually mediated via verbal and non-verbal language system, and texts as site for both the inculcation of discourses;
- Views the systematic analysis and interpretation of texts as potentially revelatory of ways in which discourses consolidate power and colonise human subjects through often covert position calls.

Conversations with educators are empirical in determining their contributions in implementing the various policies on teaching and learning. Development of teaching and learning policies is a social interaction amongst individual subjects. In this study the historical backgrounds of the participants were analysed in order to establish how they have understood education policies and how these policies have been communicated to them.

2.2.1.6 Issues and approaches to describing language

Not only do different types of text require different types of reading, but the same text can also be read in different ways to generate different meanings (Locke 2004:13). Describing discourse as social practice implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), instruction(s) and social structure which frame it: the discursive event is shaped by them, but it also shapes them (Wodak 2007:5). Locke (2004:13) indicates that discourse is an abstract noun denoting language in use as a social practice with particular emphasis on larger units such as paragraphs, utterances, whole text or genres. Critical discourse analysis might be defined as fundamentally interested in not only analysing opaque but also transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language. Text is language that is functional, that is, doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences.

According to Locke (2004:19), the mode of discourse focuses on what the language is being asked to do, its function and the way it is organised, the medium and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, and didactic. Wodak (2007:10) claims that critical discourse analysis aims at investigating critically social inequality as is expressed, constituted, and legitimised by language use (or in discourse). According to Locke (2004:20), a rhetorical approach to text can be summed up in the following ways:

- People construct texts to achieve a desired result with a particular audience;
- Textual form follows function;
- Texts are generated by contexts;
- Texts assume a social complicity between maker and reader;
- The expectations of participants in such acts of complicity become formalised in the conversations of genre;
- These conventions relate to such language features as layout, structure, punctuation, syntax and direction.

Rhetoric is the art of making language work and focuses on understanding the occasion of speech or writing. These approaches can also help in eliminating any reasons the readers might have about the texts. In this study interpretations of the various education policies on teaching and learning were analysed.

2.2.1.7 Critique as revelation, self-reflective and socially transformative

Locke (2004:32) argues that discourses are naturalised for individual subjects who, viewing the world through their own discursive lenses, regard their own position as common sense rather than a particular construction of reality. In normal parlance, the word critical denotes the habit of evaluating an object or situation in accordance with a system of rules, principles and values (Locke 2004:36). Revelation occurs when these common sense positions are demystified or denaturalised, and exposed as discursive constructions (Locke 2004:36). Given such powerful contemporary basis for scepticism, it behoves criticalist researchers to be self-reflective, to become aware of the ideological imperatives and epistemological presuppositions that inform their research as well their own subjective, intersubjective, and normative reference claims (Locke 2004:36).

Self reflexive is twofold, firstly, researchers need to acknowledge the social constructedness of their research method, and secondly, researchers need to acknowledge the provisionality of their findings. The tendency for critical practice to be linked to a socially transformative agenda stems from a view of discourse (and ideology) as involving power relations. The power of a discourse relates to its subscription base and the social status of its subscribers. Reading a text critically means developing an awareness of how texts mediate and sustain particular discourses and power relations. Critiquing a text involves considering the origin of the authors, time, context and intention of the text.

2.2.1.8 Principles of critical discourse analysis

Wodak (2007:15) mentions the following principles of critical discourse analysis:

- Approach is interdisciplinary;
- Approach is problem-oriented rather than focused on specific linguistic items;
- Theories as well as methodologies are eclectic, that is, theories and methods are integrated, which are adequate for an understanding and explanation of the object under investigation;
- Study always incorporates fieldwork and ethnography to explore the object under investigation as a precondition for further analysis and theorising;
- Approach is adductive - a constant movement back and forth between theory and empirical data is necessary;
- Multiple genres and multiple public spaces are studied, and intertextual and interdiscursive relationships are investigated;
- Historical context is always analysed and integrated into interpretation of discourses and texts;
- Categories and tools for the analysis are defined in accordance with all these steps and procedures and also with the specific problem under investigation;
- Grand theories might serve as a foundation; in the specific analysis, middle range theories serve the aims better;
- Results should be made available to experts in different fields and, as a second step, be applied, with the goal of changing certain discursive and social practices.

Van Dijk (2006:252) indicates that critical discourse analysis requires true multi-disciplinarity and an account of intricate relationships between texts, talk, social opinion, power, society and culture. It is primarily interested and motivated by urgent social ideas, which it hopes to better understand through discourse analysis.

2.2.1.9 Issues of reliability and validity

Reliability and validity of one's research or findings depends on the force and logic of one's arguments, since there is no hard data provided through discourse analysis. Even the best constructed arguments are subject to their own deconstructive reading and counter interpretations (Olson 2007:33). The validity of critical analysis is dependent on the quality of the rhetoric.

According to Collier-Reed (2009:3), trustworthiness has developed to become an important alternative for measuring the value of research and its effects, as well as leading the way by providing for rigour in the research process. Byrne (2005:13) argues that developing trustworthiness is essential in building relationships between the object of study, the context of the researcher and research purpose and outcomes. The research outcomes act as a basis of effecting change in the original setting (Parks 2005:9). It is imperative that the research builds a true reflection of the original setting. Lennie (2006:30) indicates the following strategies that can increase the rigour and trustworthiness:

- Community participation, engagement and communication methods that develop relations of mutual trust and open communication;
- Using multiple theories and methodologies, multiple sources of data and multiple methods of data collection;
- Ongoing meta-evaluation and critical reflection;
- Critical assessment of the intended and unintended impacts of evaluations using relevant theoretical models;
- Using rigorous data analysis and reporting processes;
- Participant reviews of evaluation case studies, data analysis and reports.

It is important to reflect on why it is important to consider trustworthiness, who trustworthiness is directed at and the essential characteristics of trustworthiness. It is further essential to reflect the way in which interviews are conducted, transcripts made and categories constituted on the basis of the transcripts. The importance of the research and the situation itself, with due regard given to the legitimacy of all acts in the eyes of all the participants should be recognised.

2.2.1.10 Advantages and disadvantages of critical discourse analysis

In this study the researcher critically analysed the various advantages and disadvantages of critical discourse analysis in order to make appropriate decisions about alternatives or recommendations. Morgan (2010:4) stipulates the following advantages of critical discourse analysis:

- The techniques can reveal often unspoken and unacknowledged aspects of human behaviour, making salient either hidden or dominant discourses that maintain marginalised positions in society;
- It can reveal or help to construct a variety of new and alternative social subjects positions that are available, which in itself can be very empowering to the most vulnerable individuals;
- Critical discourse analysis can provide a positive social psychological critique of any phenomenon under the gaze of the researcher;
- It has a relevance and practical application at any given time, in any given place, and for any given people: discourse analysis is context specific;
- Understanding the function of language and discourse enables positive individual and social change, therefore it presents a critical challenge to traditional theory, policy and practice in many contexts;
- A reflective stance is incorporated wherein researchers cannot be neutral observers.

However, Morgan (2010:4) indicates the following disadvantages of critical discourse analysis:

- The array of options available through the various traditions can render issues of methodology problematic, as each tradition has its own epistemological position, concepts, procedures, and a particular understanding of discourse and discourse analysis;
- Meaning is never fixed and everything is always open to interpretation and negotiation;
- Similarities and differences between concepts may cause confusion for new researchers as well as the more experienced. When the confusion dissipates, there should be an explanation of concepts and justification for their use in each and every analysis;
- It may disrupt longstanding notions of selfhood, gender, autonomy, identity, choice, and such disruption can be very disturbing;
- Each tradition has been critiqued, for example, conversation analysis is said to be narrow. Foucauldian discourse is said to be too broad;
- The general lack of explicit techniques for researchers to follow has been indicated as a hindrance.

Discourse analysis and critical thinking is applicable to every situation and every subject, no technology or funds are necessary. Authoritative discourse analysis can lead to fundamental changes in the practices of an institution, the profession, and society at large. However, discourse analysis does not provide definite answers. It is not a hard science, but an insight or knowledge based on continuous debate and argumentation (Olson 2007:31).

2.2.2 Constructivism

2.2.2.1 Understanding constructivism

Constructivism is an epistemology (theory of knowledge), a learning or meaning-making theory that offers an explanation of the nature of knowledge and how human beings learn (Abdal-Haqq 1998:1). An increasingly dominant constructivist view focuses on the cultural embeddedness of learning, employing the methods and framework of cultural anthropology to examine how learning and cognition are distributed in the environment rather than stored in the head of an individual (Duffy 2006:11). Constructivism is a theory of knowledge (epistemology) that argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from an interaction between their experiences and their ideas. As a theory of learning, constructivism is relevant in this study as the researcher wished to establish how learners learn and educators teach.

Hein (2007:1) mentions that constructivism refers to the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves, each learner individually and socially constructs meaning- as he or she learns. It maintains that individuals create or construct their own new understandings or knowledge through the interaction of what they already know and believe and the ideas, events, and activities with which they come in contact. Constructing meaning is learning, there is no any other kind of learning other than constructing meaning. Knowledge is acquired through involvement with content instead of imitation or repetition. Educators must provide the learners with the opportunities to interact with sensory data and construct their own world. Constructivism is thus a theory of learning that likens the acquisition of knowledge to a process of building or

constructing. Each learner should actively participate in the learning processes as everyone constructs his or her own knowledge.

Learning activities in constructivist settings are characterised by active engagement, inquiry, problem solving, and collaboration with others (Abdal-Haqq 1998:1). Learning is an active process of constructing rather than acquiring knowledge, and instruction is a process of supporting that construction rather than communicating knowledge (Duffy 2006:2). Learning therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences (Wilson 1996:3). Hein (2007:1) argues that learning is not understanding the 'true' nature of things, nor is it remembering dimly perceived perfect ideas, but rather a personal and social construction of meaning out of the bewildering array of sensations which have no order or structure besides the explanations which we fabricate for them. Rather than the dispenser of knowledge, the teacher is a guide, facilitator, and co-explorer who encourages learners to question, challenge, and formulate their own ideas, opinions and conclusions. Constructivists maintain that when information is required through transmission models, it is not always well integrated with prior knowledge and is often accessed and articulated only for formal academic occasions such as examinations. Learning is an active, constructive process. The learner is an information constructor. New information is linked to prior knowledge. In constructivism learning is an active, contextualised process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it.

According to Duffy (2006:3), learning involves activity and a context, including the availability of information in some content domain. Knowledge is not passively received but actively built up by the experiential world, not the discovery of ontological reality (Hein 2007:1). The constructivists view learning as an activity in context. Constructivists typically substitute some notion of viability for certainty, that is, we judge the validity of someone's knowledge, understanding, explanation, or other action, not by reference to the extent to which it matches reality but, rather by testing the extent to which it provides a viable, workable, acceptable action relative to potential alternatives (Duffy 2006:3). Knowledge is in the constructive process rather than a finding. Knowledge is not in the content but in the activity of the person in the content domain. The active struggling by the learner with issues of learning constitutes more learning. The instructional methods used include: inquiry, experimentations, observation, interviewing, literature search, summarising and defence

of opinion. The learners are involved in the construction of their own understanding, and the social interaction in the classroom is essential to the constructive process. Constructivism is a theory of learning based on the idea that knowledge is constructed by the knower based on mental activity. Knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypotheses of the environment. Learners are considered to be active organisms seeking meaning. The learner is not a blank slate (*tabula rasa*) but brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation. According to Martin (1994:45), the philosophy of constructivism proceeds from the premise that:

- Knowledge does not exist outside the bodies of cognising beings (that is, outside the mind of a learner);
- Knowledge is the construction of reality;
- Individuals actively construct knowledge by connecting prior and newer learning while working to solve problems.

Learning is an active process of constructing rather than acquiring knowledge, and construction is a process of supporting that construction rather than communicating knowledge (Duffy 2006:17). In other words, learning should be an activity in context. Though learning is construction of knowledge, sometimes learners can also learn by imitation and repetition. This can be done by constructing meaning on what is already known. Acquiring knowledge can also be seen as learning because learners shall have known what they did not now. Educators' knowledge and experiences of implementing the various teaching and learning policies and how learning activities are developed were critically analysed in this study.

2.2.2.2 Guiding principles of constructivism

According to Hein (2007:2), the following are the basic guiding principles of constructivist thinking that educators must keep in mind:

- It takes time to learn: learning consists both of constructing meaning and constructing systems of meaning. Each meaning we construct makes us better able to give meaning to other sensations which fit similar patterns;

- Learning is an active process in which the learner uses sensory input and constructs meaning out of it: learners need to do something because learning involves the learners engaging with the world;
- People learn to learn as they learn: learning consists both of constructing meaning and constructing systems of meaning. Each meaning we construct makes us better able to give meaning to other similar patterns;
- The crucial action of constructing meaning is mental: physical actions, hands-on experience may be necessary for learning, especially for children, but it is not sufficient, we need to provide activities that engage the mind as well as the hands (Dewey called this reflective activity);
- Learning involves language: people talk to themselves as they learn, and language and learning are inextricably intertwined. The language we use influences learning;
- Learning is social activity: our learning is intimately associated with our connection with other human beings, our teachers, our peers, our family as well as casual acquaintances, including the people before us or next to us at the exhibit. Progressive education recognises the social aspect of learning and uses conversation with others, and the application of knowledge as an integral aspect of learning;
- Learning is contextual: we do not learn isolated facts and theories in some abstract ethereal land of the mind separate from the rest of our lives. We learn in relationship to what else we know, what we believe, our prejudices and our fears. Learning is active and social. We cannot divorce our learning from our lives;
- One needs knowledge to learn: it is not possible to assimilate new knowledge without having some structure developed from previous knowledge to build on. The more we know, the more we can learn. Therefore any effort to teach must be connected to the state of the learner, must provide a path into the subject for the learner based on that learner's previous knowledge;
- Learning is not the passive acceptance of knowledge which exists out there: learning involves the learner engaging with the world and extracting meaning from his/her experiences;
- Motivation is a key component in learning: not only is the case that motivation helps learning, it is essential for learning.

In this study the researcher was guided by the above principles in critically analysing how learners learn and interact with learning activities, that is, learning at own pace, language of learning and teaching, types of learning activities as well as how learners are motivated to construct meaning.

According to Wilson (1996: 23) the following are the guiding principles of constructivism:

- Knowledge is constructed, not transmitted;
- Prior knowledge impacts the learning process;
- Initial understanding is local, not global;
- Building useful knowledge structures requires effortful and purposeful activity.

These principles guided the researcher in this study to establish how educators impart knowledge to the learners.

Furthermore, Brooks and Brooks (1993:8) state that the constructivist view of education advocates that educators should do the following:

- Use cognitive terminology such as “classify, analyse, predict and create”;
- Encourage and accept student autonomy and initiative;
- Use raw data and primary sources, along with manipulative, interactive, and physical materials;
- Allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, alter content;
- Inquire about students’ understanding of concepts before sharing their own understanding of those concepts;
- Encourage students to engage in dialogue, both with the teacher and with one another;
- Encourage student enquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions;
- Seek elaboration of students’ initial responses;
- Engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion;
- Allow wait time after posing questions;

- Provide time for students to construct relationships and create metaphors;
- Nurture students' natural curiosity through frequent use of the learning cycle model.

There are commonalities in principles as indicated by the above authors. They all emphasise the importance of learning tempo, self-discovery problem solving, as well as the acquisition of knowledge through activity and initiativeness. Guided by critical discourse analysis, the researcher analysed the various principles of constructivism to determine their impact on educators' understanding of the policies on teaching and learning.

2.2.2.3 Constructivism and classroom practice

According to Gray (2008:6), a constructivist teacher and a constructivist classroom are distinguished from a traditional teacher and classroom by a number of identifiable qualities: the learners are actively involved, the environment is democratic, the activities are interactive and student centred, and the teacher facilitates a process of learning in which the students are encouraged to be responsible and autonomous. The constructivist classroom is an environment in which student will have enough time to develop mental models of the content, which will assist in moving that knowledge away from primary content area, so that it can be applied elsewhere (Spiro 2006:9). Matthews (2007:61) states that the teacher is seen as a facilitator of learning, where learners are permitted to move around freely, use of time is flexible rather than structured, and evaluation compares learners to themselves rather than to peers, with de-emphasis on formal testing. Teachers need to recognise how learners use their own experiences, prior knowledge and perceptions. The constructivist classroom should be an environment based on inquiry which will leads the learners to deep understanding of the concepts under scrutiny. Social interactions and context is necessary for learning to occur. Constructivist classrooms are structured so that learners are immersed in experiences with which they may engage in interactions, invention and meaning-making inquiry.

Martin (1994:47) argues that although teachers do not necessarily follow a deliberate constructivist approach to teaching in their classrooms, a number of implications for teaching practice can be derived from it, namely:

- A constructivist approach recognises the value of a child's inherent curiosity;
- Science is viewed as a dynamic, continual process of increasing a person's understanding of the natural world;
- Knowledge construction occurs within each individual through interaction with other people and the environment;
- The teacher following a constructivist approach largely functions as a facilitator of knowledge construction and takes the following alternative roles: presenter, observer, question asker and problem poser, environment organiser, public relations coordinator, documenter and theory builder.

In teaching and learning environment the learners' curiosity to learn should be aroused. This can be done by using attractive teaching and learning aids. As facilitators of learning educators should guide learners to discover for themselves as they interact with the learning process. Knowledge can be regarded as an individual construction of reality through interaction with other people and the environment they live in. Constructivism is a theory of learning, not a theory of teaching. Therefore, instructional theories should translate the learning theories into instructional strategies. These instructional theories should prescribe series of strategies the educator should follow in order to produce certain types of learner learning.

2.2. Types of constructivism

Today there are various forms of constructivism theories. Of these, social, psychological, personal, radical and contextual constructivisms are related to this study and are expounded below.

Social constructivism

According to Kim (2006:27), social constructivism emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on this understanding. Au (2005:297) argues that in social constructivism school literacy learning of

students of diverse backgrounds will be improved as educators address the goal of instruction, the role of the home language, instructional materials, classroom management and interaction with students, relationships with the community, instructional methods and assessment. Knowledge is actually constructed or developed by humans.

Language and writing systems are the cultural tools developed and available to people in different societies. Learners of diverse backgrounds should be encouraged to use their home language skills as the basis for developing literacy in schools. In the social constructivism learning environment, teachers are not to leave the learners to their own devices, but are to appraise what is important for true understanding of the content and move among the learners to assist with strengthening the quality of learners' constructs. The teacher's role is to support the learners to make ideas and practices of the learning community meaningful at their respective individual levels.

Kim (2006:33) states that there are four general perspectives that inform how we could facilitate the learning within the framework of social constructivism, namely, cognitive tools perspective, idea-based social constructivism, pragmatic or emergent approach, and transitional or situated cognitive perspectives. In cognitive tools perspective the emphasis is on the learning of cognitive skills and strategies while the idea-based social constructivism focuses on science, mathematics and literature. Pragmatic or emergent approach asserts that the implementation of social constructivism in class should be emergent as the need arises. In transactional or situated cognitive perspectives the focus is on the relationship between the people and their environment.

Au (2005:28) argues that the school literacy learning of students of diverse backgrounds can improve as educators recognise the importance of students' home languages and come to see biliteracy as an attainable and desirable outcome. Schools are the sociocultural settings where teaching and learning take place and where "cultural tools" such as reading, writing, mathematics, and certain modes of discourse are utilised (Abdal-Haqq 1998:2). This theory assumes that theory and practice do not develop in a vacuum; they are shaped by dominant cultural assumptions. Educators should use forms of assessment that reduce sources of and reflect learners' literacy achievement. Social constructivists actually view learning as a social process and knowledge as a

human product. The thinking abilities of young children can be developed by interacting with adults.

From a social constructivist perspective, five explanations for the literacy achievement gap appear: linguistic differences, cultural differences, discrimination, inferior education and rationale for schooling (Au 2005:51). Both success and failure in literacy learning are the collaborative social accomplishments of school systems, communities, teachers, students and families. In constructivism, communication or discourse processes are compared to processes of building. The emphasis is on generative acts, such as those of interpreting or composing texts. Themes in constructivist work include active engagement in processes of meaning-making, text comprehension as a window on these processes and the varied nature of knowledge, especially knowledge developed as a consequence of membership in a given social group (Au 2005:53). Social constructivism includes the idea that there is no objective basis for knowledge claims, because knowledge is always a human construction. The emphasis is on the process of knowledge construction by the social group and the intersubjectivity established through the interaction of the group. Social constructivist research on literacy learning focuses on the role of teachers, peers, and family members in mediating learning, on the dynamics of classroom instruction, and on the organisation of systems within which children learn or fail to learn (Au 2005:300). According to Vygotsky's theory, everyday and scientific concepts are differentiated, that is, the child gains everyday (or spontaneous) concepts through daily life, whereas he or she learns scientific concepts through formal instruction and schooling. In this study cultural differences, level of literacy, as well as languages spoken in the various communities were established to determine their impact in the implementation of teaching and learning policies.

Assumptions of social constructivism

Jackson (2006:7) argues that social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about reality (constructs through human activity), knowledge (human product, socially and culturally constructed) and learning (social process). On the other hand, Lindgren (2009:26) points out that a social constructivist perspective is explicitly based on assumptions of ontology, epistemology and

ideology. Anderson (2009:5) further states that the following are interrelated assumptions of social constructivism:

- Maintaining scepticism: holding a critical and questioning attitude about knowledge as fundamental and definite;
- Avoiding the risks of generalisation: though knowledge such as the dominant professional discourses and theoretical truths can be generalised and applied across all peoples, cultures, situations, or problems, the usefulness of such is doubtful;
- Knowledge as an interactive social process: knowledge is produced within and through social discourse;
- Privileging local knowledge: local or home grown knowledge created within a community of persons (family, organisation, classroom) who have firsthand knowledge and experience of themselves and their situation is important;
- Language as a creative social process: language in its broadest sense is the medium through which we create knowledge;
- Knowledge and language as transforming: knowledge and language are relational and generative, and therefore intrinsically transforming.

Educators' knowledge and general understanding of what is really happening in the classroom situation were investigated in this study.

According to Kim (2006:31), social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about the following:

- Reality: social constructivists believe that reality is constructed through human activity; reality cannot be discovered, it does not exist prior to its social intervention;
- Knowledge is also a human product, and is socially and culturally constructed. Individuals create meaning through their interactions with each other and with the environment they live in;

- Learning is a social process. It does not take place only within an individual, nor is it a passive development of behaviours that are shaped by external forces. Meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities.

Knowledge is derived from interactions between people and their environments and resides within cultures. The construction of knowledge is also influenced by the intersubjectivity formed by cultural and historical factors of the community. When the members of the community are aware of their intersubjective meanings, it is easier for them to understand new information and activities that arise in the community. Without the social interaction with more knowledgeable others, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of important symbol systems and learn how to use them. Young children develop their thinking abilities by interacting with adults. It would be interesting to note how these assumptions play out in school classrooms.

Psychological constructivism

The purpose of education is educating the individual child in a fashion that supports the child's interests and needs: consequently, the child is the subject of study, and individual cognitive development is the emphasis (Abdal-Haqq 1998:2). Piaget (2001:9) states that learning is interplay between two mental activities, namely, assimilation (interpretation of new information in terms of pre-existing concepts, information or ideas) and accommodation (revision or modification of pre-existing concepts in terms of new information or experience). Psychological or Piagetian constructivists generally regard the purpose of education as educating the individual child in a fashion that supports the child's interests and needs, consequently, the child is the subject of study, and individual cognitive development is the emphasis (Digest 1998:31). Wales (2010:58) sees constructivism as an epistemological premise grounded on the assertion that, in the act of knowing, it is the human mind that actively gives meaning and order to that reality to which it is responding. Learning is taken to be primarily an individualistic enterprise. This approach assumes that learners come to classroom with ideas, beliefs, and opinions that need to be modified by a teacher who facilitates this modification by devising activities and questions that create challenges for the learners. Knowledge construction occurs as a result of working through these

challenges. According to Abdal-Haqq (1998:2), characteristic instructional practices include the following:

- Discovery learning and hands-on activities such as using manipulatives;
- Student tasks that challenge existing concepts and thinking processes;
- Questioning techniques that probe students' beliefs and encourage examination and testing of those beliefs.

This approach assumes that development is an ingrained, natural, biological process that is pretty much the same for all individuals, regardless of gender, class race, or the social or cultural context in which learning and living take place (Abdal-Haqq 1998:2). Internal development is the focus of the teaching environment. However, this approach does not emphasise the social and historical context, as well as issues of power, authority, and the place of formal knowledge in the learning environment. Psychological constructivism is essentially a decontextualised approach to learning and teaching.

Personal constructivism

Personal constructivism, otherwise known as personal construct psychology, originated from George Kelly's work of 1955 which postulated that people organised their experience by developing bipolar dimensions of meaning or personal constructs (Neimeyer 2006:29). This is also supported by Raskin (2002:6) who also indicates that people organise their experiences by developing bipolar dimensions of meaning, or personal constructs. They rationally examine their experiences as a basis for improving their knowledge. Leitner and Thomas (2005:17) argue that interaction with the environment implies making sense of the environment and using the new experience generated from this interaction to restructure existing knowledge structures. This theory claims that people learn by constructing meaning to their personal experiences as they interact with their environment. For people to learn effectively, they must be exposed to experiences which also impact on them. New concepts are being formulated to replace old ones in order to attach improved meanings to events as people continue to interact with their environment. Both the viability and validity of constructions is valued. Personal experiences of

educators in the implementation of the various policies on teaching and learning policies were established in this study.

Radical constructivism

According to Hardy and Taylor (1997:137), radical constructivism refers to both a type of learning theory and a pedagogical model, that is, mental constructs, constructed from the past experience, help to impose order on one's flow of continuing experience. People use the understanding they created to help them navigate life, regardless of whether or not such understanding matches an external reality (Mohrhoff 2006:17). The radical constructivists' view is that people operate in their own very private, self-constructed worlds (Von Glaserfeld 2007:21).

Von Foerster (2006:11), expanded on Piaget's configurative development theory and claims that human knowledge is a construction built through adaptation of cognition. This theory promotes the idea that human knowledge is a construction built through adaptation of cognition. Since cognition involves thinking, human beings keep on thinking until they arrive at a better interpretation of that reality. Learning will be more meaningful when learners are allowed to think about principles and concepts that are presented to them so that the concept is a reality in the learners' own environment. Learners should engage in activities that involve thinking and reflecting on their own thoughts. In this study educators' past experiences, their thoughts and how they interpret policies on teaching and learning were established.

Contextual constructivism

According to Patten (2009:11), social problems are socially constructed or subjectively interpreted. Contextual constructivism is concerned with the social construction of knowledge and the application of the knowledge. Ranee (2006:14) notes that true knowledge should aim at yielding calculations, which agree with the problems that the scientific community feels it should address, otherwise an alternative paradigm, which promises to solve those problems should be sought. Human beings have the ability to arrange perceptions on the basis of constructs. Furthermore, human beings can perceive different events in similar or different contexts (Cobern

2007:28). It emphasises meaning making and the application of the meaning in real life situation. Teaching and learning should aim at connecting theoretical concepts with real life applications. Contextual constructivism also makes reference to the concept of situated cognition, which links learning to the activities used and the context in which they are used. Educators' knowledge of applying theories into practice were determined in this study.

2.3 THEORIES AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Anyon (2009:3) argues that theory and educational research bridges the old-age theory divide by demonstrating how researchers can use critical theory to determine appropriate empirical research strategies, and extend the analytical, critical and sometimes emancipator power of data gathering and interpretation. Dressman (2008:9) further states that theory circumscribes methods of thinking about educational problems and inhibits creativity among researchers, policy makers and teachers. According to Suppes (1974:4), there are five kinds of arguments for using theory in educational research: i) argument by analogy (although the argument that the success of the natural sciences in the use of theory provides an excellent example for educational research, it does not follow that theory must be comparably useful as we move from one subject to the other); ii) reorganisation of experience (a more important way to think about the role of theory is to attack directly the problem of identifying the need for theory in a subject matter); iii) recognition of complexity (one of the thrusts of theory is to show that what appear on the surface to be simple matters of empirical investigation, on a deeper view, prove to be complex); iv) Deweyan problem solving (inquiry is the transformation of an indeterminate situation that presents a problem into one that is determinate and unified by the solution of the initial problem); and v) triviality of bare empiricism (recording of individual facts and with no apparatus of generalisation or theory).

According to Maxwell (2010:2), no fact, investigation, or conclusion can be theory free. The issue is whether one is aware of the theory one is using and whether one is using it critically or uncritically. In order to understand any educational phenomenon, one needs to also look at the larger social, economic and political contexts within which that phenomenon is embedded, and seek out theories that connect there. Theories can be used not just to understand the individuals, situations and structures studied, but also to change them. One needs to avoid simply citing theory

to support one's argument, and to actually incorporate theory into the logic of one's study and use it to deepen one's research process.

Formal learning and instruction strategies are inseparable. Yet learning theories only describe how learning occurs, but do not describe the specific methods and activities to follow in order to accomplish the intended learning outcomes. For example, learning theories may describe the age at which a learner may learn punctuations, but the instructional theories will provide guidelines on how to execute the teaching of punctuations. In this study educational problems, arguments and experiences of educators were investigated.

2.4 MAKING SENSE OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND CONSTRUCTIVISM FOR THIS STUDY

In this study critical discourse analysis, as an important theoretical perspective for the study of teaching and learning, assists the researcher in establishing how educators implement teaching and learning policies. Critical discourse analysis has been developed to examine ways in which knowledge is socially constructed in classrooms and various educational institutions. A critical analysis of the knowledge educators have in terms of how they interpret teaching and learning policies is imperative. It assists the researcher in examining questions of what counts as learning, how and when learning occurs as well as how that which is learned becomes a resource for future learning.

In unpacking essential aspects of teaching and learning policies it enables the researcher to examine how educational processes and practices are constructed. The researcher uses observation as one of the strategies of critical discourse analysis to determine how educators implement policies on teaching and learning. Critical discourse analysis is an approach for the analysis of language use, and hence it shares premises of the more social approaches to discourse. Texts to be analysed include learning area/subject policy documents.

This study involves the analysis and interpretation of social issues, texts, and language as well as the basic aspects of learning such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Since the

fundamental task of critical discourse analysis is to disarticulate and critique texts, the researcher critically analyses the various teaching and learning policy documents to determine their relevancy to what the educators are implementing in their classrooms. Educators' ideological assumptions of what teaching and learning policies entail are investigated through discussions and conversations with the educators. A critical analysis is done on both written and spoken texts. Analysis and interpretation of what educators understand by various policies on teaching and learning might pave necessary interventions by the education authorities. The various forms of discourse analysis, such as themes, print texts and oral texts analysis enable the researcher to establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented by the educators in their classrooms. More importantly, critical discourse analysis guides the researcher on issues of reliability and validity through deconstructive reading and counter interpretations.

In this study constructivism assisted the researcher in determining how learners learn. Constructivism is used for research, learning and teaching. Educational curricula and teaching methods are ever changing as well as educational policies on teaching and learning. The researcher looked at the various teaching methods which are based on constructivist learning theory. Constructivism is about teaching, learning and knowledge and as such an analysis of the educators' knowledge of constructivist teaching methods is imperative. The researcher investigated how teaching and learning policies promote constructivist claims that constructivist teaching foster critical thinking and create active and motivated learners. The kinds of teaching and learning resources were analysed to establish how they promote the kind of knowledge constructivist theory envisages.

Constructivism promotes problem solving and collaboration in order to make construct meaningful knowledge. Interaction with educators enables the researcher to establish how they develop various teaching and learning activities. The environment in which educators and learners find themselves was analysed since learning and cognition are distributed in environments. Principles of constructivism encourage learners to learn at their own pace. Such principles are analysed to establish how they promote appropriate implementation of teaching and learning policies. Theories need to be analysed as to how they are implemented in real classroom practice. Constructivism is a theory about teaching and learning which involves essential aspects such as

culture, context, literacy, language, learners' interests and needs, personal experiences, interpretation of reality, as well as application of knowledge, which the researcher analysed to determine their impact on teaching and learning policies.

2.5 SUMMARY

Chapter two presented theoretical frameworks on teaching and learning. Two diverse theories were explained, namely, critical discourse analysis and constructivism and their implications for teaching and learning. Aims and purposes of critical discourse analysis have been discussed in this chapter. Description and detailed discussions of the various forms, programmes and guiding principles of critical discourse analysis form part of this chapter. A detailed relationship of discourse and text has been presented. This chapter further discussed how critical discourse analysis can be conducted, issues and approaches as well as issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness in critical discourse analysis. Advantages and disadvantages of critical discourse analysis were clearly stipulated. A detailed description and discussion of constructivism, its guiding principles, and its relation with classroom practice formed part of this chapter.

The next chapter is based on a literature study of education policies in general and teaching and learning policies specifically.

CHAPTER THREE

AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHING AND LEARNING POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter two the influence of theoretical frameworks to research was discussed, namely, critical discourse analysis and constructivism. Essential aspects of critical discourse analysis such as programmes, forms, principles, issues of reliability and validity, as well as the advantages and disadvantages were highlighted and discussed and how these inform and provide a lens to understand the area of the study. Principles and types of constructivism as well as how constructivism relate to this study were also discussed. The general aim of this chapter is to discuss and critically analyse some selected literature considered to be relevant and closely related to this study. This chapter is concerned with documents on teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the democratic dispensation. This should help to portray and support the role and academic worth of the research in this field.

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section will critically discuss the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), while the second section deals with Language in Education Policy (LiEP). Section three will critique Outcomes-based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 (C2005). Section four is an analysis of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), while the fifth section is about Outcomes-based Assessment (OBA) and Assessment policies as well as policies on progression and promotion. Finally, this chapter will explore the important aspects of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). In the ensuing section the National Qualifications Framework, its objectives and its relationship with curriculum development are discussed.

3.2 THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK (NQF)

According to Republic of South Africa (2009 no. 31909: 4), the NQF is a comprehensive system approved by the Minister of Education for the classification, registration, publication and

articulation of quality-assured national qualifications. The NQF centralises all education in South Africa by registering all qualifications, such as school qualifications, Adult Basic Education and Training and non-formal qualifications and work experience because learning is lifelong and can take place under different circumstances. The NQF emphasises quality and standards and it aims at the establishment of uniform standards. Thus, it has an influence on all facets of education as well as the assessment processes since the evaluation methods have to comply with the requirements set by the NQF. Formative and summative assessment methods form an integral part of the learning process.

The NQF is a framework on which standards and qualifications agreed upon by education and training stakeholders throughout the country are registered. According to Bezuidenhout (2010:25), the NQF Act emphasises the need for increased collaboration, co-ordination and above all, communication in the education sector. Since the NQF and SAQA were created, the government has acknowledged the need for teachers and principals to perform adequately as quality education providers (Poutiainen 2009:26). On the other hand, Chisholm (2006:3) states that the NQF, which gave birth to outcomes-based education and C2005, was the educational expression of the social alliance.

The NQF was created as a new policy to bring together education and training so that South Africans can close the gap between the two (education and training). It is based on the principle that it will promote and ensure equity, access, flexibility and quality to education in South African schools and recognise that the learners are not the same and have different needs. According to the NQF, the fact that learners are different is recognised. The NQF also recognises prior learning and emphasises that learning should be made more flexible in the sense that people who require experience in the job training are also given the same recognition which might be equivalent to the qualifications in formal schooling. In the past, experiences gained at workplaces were not recognised by the education system. The NQF gives adult learners who are working to move between Adult Basic Education and Training and the work environment where credits and unit standards are transferable from one learning environment to the other.

3.2.1 Understanding the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

The best way to understand the NQF is by breaking it down into manageable pieces. Currently there are eight NQF levels which fall into three distinctive groups, namely:

- GET: General Education and Training:
 - Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET)
 - Compulsory schooling up to Grade 9
- FET: Further Education and Training
- HET: Higher Education and Training

Table 3.1 NQF Descriptors and Categories

NQF level	Description	Category
1	Grade 0-9	GET
2	Grade 10	FET
3	Grade 11	FET
4	Grade 12 and Trade certificate	FET
5	National certificate; National diploma and Occupational certificate	HET
6	Bachelors Degree (3 years) and Higher diploma	HET
7	Honours Degree and Post Graduate Certificate	HET
8	Doctorate and Masters	HET

According to Allais (2007:107), the essence of the outcomes-led qualifications framework model is that educational standards must be nationally set by defining learning outcomes and associated assessment criteria. A standard is seen as a clear and fixed statement of competence that a learner must achieve, and the basis from which programmes can be designed and content (inputs) selected. SAQA explains that outcomes are the qualities that are expected at the end of the process of learning (Allais 2007:8). South Africa is the only country which has attempted to make outcomes-based education a central part of the whole education and training system (Allais 2007:108). A notion has developed that curriculum is a mere technical process of working out

how best to get specific group of learners to learn the required skills, knowledge, attitudes and values (Allais 2007:113). A growing number of countries, at very different stages of economic development and with very different cultural and political histories, either have introduced or are in the process of introducing some form of NQF (Keevy 2005:165). Deacon and Parker (2006:17) indicate that the NQF is influenced and guided by the underlying philosophy from which they emerge. NQF is not necessarily good practice, especially in a developing country context (Chakroun 2010:196). This study investigated how the intermediate phase educators set standards as required by the NQF in promoting lifelong learning.

3.2.2 Objectives of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

According to Republic of South Africa (2009: 4), the following are objectives of the NQF:

- To create a single integrated national framework for learning achievements;
- To facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within, education, training and career paths;
- Enhance the quality of education and training; and
- To accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities.

The above objectives of the NQF show that the new government, especially the Department of Education, aimed at establishing an environment which will redress the past imbalances of the education system which was based on race, gender and creed.

3.2.3 National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development

As already stated in chapter 1 (see 1.7.1), qualification means a planned combination of learning outcomes which has a defined purpose or purposes, and which is intended to provide qualifying learners with applied competence and a basis for further learning. It means the formal recognition of the achievement of the required and range of credits and such other requirements at specific

levels of the NQF, as may be determined by the relevant bodies registered for such purpose by the South African Qualifications Authority.

As stated in chapter 1 (see 1.7.2), curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored (Gillard 2006:7). It refers to the teaching and learning activities and experiences which are provided by the schools (NEPA 1996). Curriculum is a term which includes all aspects of teaching and learning such as the intended outcomes, learning programmes, and assessment methodology (Curriculum framework for GET and FET). Curriculum refers to all the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried out in groups or individually, inside or outside the school (Killen 2006:7). It can be seen as the overall rationale for the educational programme of an institution (Naicker 2007:3). Curriculum is the contextualised social practice; an ongoing social process comprised of interactions of students, teachers, knowledge and milieu (Tilley & Goldstein 2006:8). It is understood to be more than syllabus documentation.

The term curriculum (ANC, 1994) as already explained in chapter 1 (see 1.7.2), refers to all the teaching and learning opportunities that take place in learning institutions. It includes the following:

- Aims and objectives of the education system as well as the specific goals of learning institutions;
- What is taught: the underlying values, selection of content, how it is arranged into subjects, programmes and syllabuses, and what skills and processes are included;
- The strategies of teaching and learning and the relationships between teachers and learners;
- The forms of assessment and evaluation which are used, and their social effects;
- How curriculum is serviced and resourced, including the organisation of learners, and of time and space and the materials and resources that are made available;
- How the curriculum reflects the needs and interests of those it serves including learners, teachers, the community, the nation, the employees and the economy.

Curriculum also has to do with determining the purpose and values of learning, and analysing the needs and nature of the learners as well as deciding on the outcomes or learning objectives. This means that it should also deal with selecting the content or subject matter that will support achieving the learning outcomes. It also has to do with deciding on the activities, methods and media for teaching and learning as well as planning how assessment will be done. In the next section the roles of the South African Qualifications Authority, its objectives, and functions are discussed.

3.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN QUALIFICATIONS AUTHORITY (SAQA)

Van den Berg and De Beer (2007:107) state that the SAQA Act of 1995 highlights the fact that the nature of learning as well as traditional teaching practices in South Africa necessitates a paradigm shift. The SAQA is the authority established by the SAQA Act, 1995 for the purpose of overseeing the development and implementation of the NQF. The purpose of this body was to create a national framework in South Africa for all education and training processes and qualifications to establish national, uniform standards to any qualifications to be awarded. SAQA is a jurisdiction body, that is, an entity composed of twelve members appointed by the Minister of Education after consultation with the Minister of Labour.

3.3.1 The functions of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)

SAQA stipulates the various roles, objectives and functions of this body. However, after identifying some repetitions in this regard, this study focuses on discussion of the core functions of SAQA. According to the South African Qualifications Authority (2000:9), the functions of SAQA are to:

- Perform its functions subject to NQF/SAQA Acts and oversee the implementation of the NQF and ensure the achievement of its objectives;
- Advise the Ministers of Labour and Education on NQF matters;
- Comply with policy determined by the Minister of Education;
- Consider the Minister's guidelines as contemplated in section 8 (2) (c);

- Oversee the implementation of the NQF in accordance with an implementation framework prepared by SAQA;
- Develop a system of collaboration to guide the mutual relations of SAQA and resolve disputes;
- Develop the content of level descriptors for each level of NQF;
- Develop and implement policy and criteria for the development, registration and publication of qualifications, register qualification and develop policy and criteria for assessment, recognition of prior learning and credit accumulation and transfer;
- Develop and implement policy and criteria for recognising a professional body and registering a professional designation;
- Collaborate with its international counterparts on all matters of mutual interest qualification framework;
- Conduct or commission investigations (research) on issues of importance to the development and implementation of the NQF and publish the findings;
- Maintain national learners' records database;
- Provide an evaluation and advisory service consistent with this Act.

The above functions of SAQA are actually an attempt to put processes in place so that the NQF functions appropriately. The paramount function of SAQA is actually to make sure that the NQF functions well in order to achieve the main objectives of the South African Constitution in terms of how the education system should be transformed. In a nutshell, all the functions of SAQA are aimed at making sure that there is appropriate implementation of the NQF and that there is full compliance by all the relevant stakeholders to education policies. The ensuing section presents a discussion of the language in education policy (LiEP) in general, as well as its aims for education in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation specifically.

3.4 LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY (LiEP)

According to Bekker (2007:99), South Africa adopted several language policies since 1652 when Dutch was used to teach the Khoi and San children. The English-dominated education system seems to have produced an elite bilingual social group whose cultural identities are constructed

through their successful investments in an English-medium education and a mastery of the English language (Lin & Martin 2007:51). Rassool (2008:16) indicates that the language medium through which knowledge is mediated, generally does not present a problem in industrialised societies, and that within these, education normally takes place through languages, which are seen as representing the national culture or cultural heritage of the country. After the British took control of the Cape Colony, the new policy of Anglicization was introduced and viewed as a replacement of Dutch by English. However, English and Dutch became both official languages after the establishment of the Union government in 1910. After the National party took over in 1948, mother-tongue policy and Bantu education were introduced. Later, Afrikaans was resisted by Black students as language of instruction which led to the 1976 student uprisings.

In the democratic dispensation, the government adopted a multilingual language policy. Language in education policy, LiEP, as it is better known, has an effect on the current situation in South African schools. It seeks to promote the maintenance of home language. South Africa is confronted with the challenge of overcoming the colonial language policies that entrenched the use of excolonial languages such as English and Afrikaans as languages of learning and teaching (Mabiletja 2008:9). South Africa is a diverse society with different cultures and traditions, thus, different languages are used in different spheres of life, including education.

Mutasa (2006:219) states that people do not see much value in African languages, for example, if one were to go for an interview for a post to teach an African language, the whole process is conducted in English. English is increasingly becoming to dominate the sphere of education and other languages are becoming marginalised. Though South Africa claims to be multilingual, most institutions do not use home language as language of learning and teaching. Parents still prefer their children to be taught in English.

In terms of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the Government, and thus the Department of Education, recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable national asset and hence was tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of the official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and languages referred to in the South African Constitution (Department of Education

2008:1). Language in education policy was meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and religion as well as promoting respect of other people's languages. It promotes the right for individuals to choose the language of learning and teaching. However, language of learning and teaching has been fraught with tensions, contradictions and sensitivities and underpinned by racial and linguistic discrimination.

According to Prah (2002:1) sentimental glories of neo-colonial flags and national anthems maintain the fragmentation process of African languages. Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004:2) maintain that because of the multilingual character of most colonially defined states in Africa and elsewhere and because of the intuitive policies of imperial powers, the languages of Europe became the languages of power. Schools have given learners a high regard for English without really giving them full knowledge of English. Granville, Janks, Mphahlele, Reed, Watson, Joseph, and Ramani, (2006:6) argue that what is needed is a language in education policy that reverses this, that gives knowledge of the language of power (English) and a more critical view of its importance and value, as well as an appreciation of the importance of students' own languages for education. They further indicate the following recommendations:

- All schools should have the right of access to the language of power, which is English. Planned and effective provision for its delivery must be made an explicit part of language policy;
- All students must learn at least one African language as subject throughout the years of compulsory schooling;
- Language policy on language of learning and teaching in the context of an additive multilingual paradigm and with due regard to the wishes and attitudes of parents and students.

The above recommendations would promote multilingualism if adhered to and appropriately implemented. Though learners can be taught in their home languages at an early age, it is essential to maintain English as language of learning and teaching from Grade 4. In promoting multilingualism all learners should be encouraged to learn at least one African language for communication purposes. However, according to Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004:8), it is a

serious mistake to believe that teaching and learning is taking place through English in township or rural schools where a majority of learners are from African language speaking communities.

According to Prah (2002:2) those who write about the multitude of languages in Africa have, in most instances, never looked at African societies outside the framework of colonial boundaries. Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004:1) argue that when it comes to the choice of language of instruction in African schools socio-cultural politics, economic interests, sociolinguistics and education are so closely interrelated that it is difficult to sort out the arguments. One argument often heard is that there is such a multitude of languages in Africa that it would be impossible to choose which language to use. Another argument is that it is too costly to publish books in these many African languages. In South Africa there are eleven official languages and learners may be given the opportunities to choose any as the language of learning and teaching. However the challenge would be the issue of recourses as most textbooks for various learning areas are written only in English and Afrikaans. To add to the cost of publishing books in all official languages, the other challenge would be to find educators to teach these learning areas in all official languages.

3.4.1 Aims of the Ministry of Education's policy of language in education

According to Department of Education (2008:1), the following are aims of the ministry of Education's policy of language in education:

- To promote full participation in society, and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education;
- To pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth amongst learners, and hence to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education;
- To promote and develop all the official languages;
- To support the teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or used by communities in South Africa, including languages used for religious purposes, languages which are important for international trade and communication, and South African Sign Language, as well as Alternative and Augmentative communication;

- To counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and languages of learning and teaching;
- To develop programmes for the redress of previously disadvantaged languages.

When dealing with the issue of language policy in South Africa that came with the Constitution in 1996 the main goal of language policy was to facilitate communication between the different language groups that comprise the population of South Africa so as to work against the effects of the apartheid language policy while simultaneously encouraging multilingualism (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir 2004:2). Language in education policy aims at promoting multilingualism in the various communities and making sure that all languages are actually given equal status. South Africa as a diverse society needs a language policy in education which promotes respect of all languages.

3.4.2 Languages as subjects

According to the language in education policy (2008:2), the following prerequisites were set:

- All learners shall offer at least one approved language as a subject in Grade one and two;
- In Grade three onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as a subject;
- All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation;
- The language of learning and teaching in public schools must be an official language.

This is an attempt to facilitate the implementation of language learning in education policy. It would be better to allocate equal time for all other languages as subjects but more time for the language of learning and teaching. In the next section the background to the introduction of outcomes-based education, its global beliefs about learning success, and its principles are discussed.

3.5 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION

3.5.1 Background to the introduction of outcomes-based education

Badasie (2007:19) states that outcomes guide the teaching and learning process, as well as the assessment of a learner's achievement, during and after the learning experience. Spady (1994:1), alleges that the key proponent of outcomes-based education, refers to transformational outcomes-based education as an approach to education that emphasises teaching and learning through which demonstrable knowledge, competencies and qualities that are integrated across the curricular are realised to enable the learners to pursue life in their varied settings. According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2007:24), outcomes-based education originated from the competence-based movement in education. Van der Horst and McDonald (2006:7) describe outcomes-based education as an approach which requires educators and learners to focus their attention on two things (see 1.1):

- Firstly, the focus is on the desired end results of each learning process. The desired end results are called outcomes of learning and learners need to demonstrate that they have attained them. They will therefore continuously be assessed to ascertain whether they are making any progress.
- Secondly, the focus is on instructive and learning process that will guide the learners to these end results. Educators should use the learning outcomes as a focus when they make instructional decisions and plan their lessons.

According to the above descriptions, one can deduce that the environment in which competencies are developed and the pace at which learners should attain these competencies must be learner-centred. Competence-based means that the emphasis should be on what learners can do, and not simply on what they might be able to repeat. Outcomes-based education emphasises life-long learning and thus learners may achieve the learning outcomes at their own pace.

On the other hand, according to Lubisi, Parker and Wedekind (2006:24), learning outcomes are simply not vague statements about values, beliefs, attitudes, or psychological states of mind.

Outcomes are what learners can actually do with what they know and have learned. It is true that the official version of the curriculum system which outcomes-based education is replacing does not meet modern educational needs or expectations (Malan 2005:24). There is yet no collection of mutually accepted achievements in terms of new theories on outcomes-based education, therefore no exemplary solutions to the challenge of total intellectual and potential development of learners, predictions of the value of outcomes-based education have not been proven, and laws validating outcomes-based education as an acceptable practice and construct are not apparent (Malan 2005:24). In other words, no research base to verify the claims of outcomes-based education has yet been established and the claim of a major paradigm shift can therefore not be substantiated.

Spady (1994:2) emphasises that when defining outcomes, educators must use observable action verbs, such as describe, explain, design, or produce rather than vague or hidden non demonstration processes, such as know, understand, believe and think. A learning outcome is derived from the critical and developmental outcomes. It is a description of what (knowledge, skills and values) learners should know, demonstrate and be able to do (Department of Education 2008 (a):14). Thus learning outcomes are actions and performances that reflect learner performance in using content, information, ideas and tools successfully. Outcomes involve actually doing or demonstrating what has been learned rather than just knowing purely mental processes. Outcomes-based education can also be viewed as a theory of education or systemic structure for education. It is also a philosophy of education because it embodies and expresses a set of beliefs and assumptions. One of the attractions of outcomes-based education model is that it provides curriculum developers and administrators with some level of control over outcomes of education (Ghanchi-Badasie 2006:39).

According to Acharya (2006:2) outcomes-based education is a method of curriculum design and teaching that focuses on what students can actually do after they are taught and it addresses key questions such as what do you want the students to learn, why do you want them to learn, how can you best help the students to learn it, and how will you know what they have learnt? Outcomes-based education promises high level of learning for all students as it facilitates the achievement of the outcomes, characterised by its appropriateness to each learner's development level and active and experienced learning (Acharya 2006:5). In terms of the above definitions and questions, it can

be deduced that outcomes-based education is all about guiding the learners to achieve the set learning outcomes in the whole process of learning and teaching.

3.5.2 Outcomes-based education's key global beliefs about learning success

According to Spady and Schlebusch (1999:29), the beliefs that define genuine outcomes-based education efforts across the globe can be expressed in six key statements, namely: What and whether learners learn successfully is more important than exactly when, how and from whom they learnt it. Schools exist to ensure that all their learners are equipped with the knowledge, competence and qualities needed to be successful after they exit the education system. Schools should be organised, structured and operated so that all their learners can achieve these life performance outcomes. All learners can learn and succeed, but not on the same day in the same way. Successful learning promotes more successful learning, just as poor learning fosters more poor learning. Schools control key conditions and opportunities that directly affect successful school learning. In all the countries where outcomes-based education or some of its principles are being used, e.g. Canada, Australia, the USA, Britain and New Zealand, there is strong commitment to sound outcomes-based principles (Spady & Schlebusch 1999:54). The message embedded in these six statements reflects a deep commitment to creating the conditions and using practices that help every learner become the most successful learner and performer she or he can possibly be. Learning can also be affected by how learners are being taught. There can be variety of factors that cause learners not to learn successfully and achieve the set outcomes. The community in which learners find themselves can also have an effect on the way learners learn, and not only the school environment.

No policy is totally good or totally bad. No matter how good or noble its intentions may be, how it is implemented is more important. Testing in outcomes-based way does not adequately measure learners' mastery of learning outcomes. Assessment standards are complicated and can be set too low or too high. It can take long to report learners' achievement of outcomes as they learn at their own pace. Measurable outcomes are also a challenge in testing their effectiveness.

3.5.3 Principles of outcomes-based education

Van Niekerk and Killen (2006:96), describe the following underlying principles of outcomes-based education and the fundamental consequences of those principles:

Table 3.2 Principles and Fundamental Consequences of Outcomes-based Education

Underlying principle	Fundamental consequence
Learning is the most important aspect of education	Student learning should be the focus of everything that happens in education
Learners have different characteristics and dispositions that influence what and how they learn	Teachers should expect learners to learn in different ways at different rates and they must try to allow for those differences
Learning is influenced more by time opportunity than ability	Learners should be given multiple opportunities to learn, rather than being labelled as failures if they do not learn on first opportunity
Teachers and learning contexts influence learning	Teachers should vary the circumstances and methods of instructions to suit the learning that they want to occur
Learners need to experience success in order to remain motivated to learn	Teachers must structure learning so that students can experience success, if necessary, learners should be given more than one uniform, routine chance to receive instruction and to demonstrate their learning
Learning needs to be challenging in order to engage learners	The outcomes should be challenging, and all students should be expected to achieve at high performance levels
Every instrumental/learning episode should have a purpose	Teachers must know why they are teaching whatever they are teaching
The purpose of an educational programme can be expressed as a set of significant learning outcomes that will then influence everything else in the programme	Curriculum content, instructional design, teaching strategies and assessment practices must be derived from the significant outcomes because it does not make sense to think about teaching strategies or assessment until you are clear about what it is that you want learners to learn

If learners know what outcomes they are supposed to achieve they will have a better chance of achieving them	Outcomes-based programme and lessons must have a clear focus on significant learning outcomes that are stated clearly and unambiguously, in language that the learners can understand
Learning of isolated facts and mere accumulation of knowledge is not real education	Teachers need to be able to articulate the purpose of each learning episode with a consistent framework of long-term goals. Education should be concerned with knowledge, skills and attitude/values
Learners should be expected to take responsibility for their own learning	Teachers should help learners to understand what is expected of them, and help them to develop the knowledge, skills and dispositions that will enable them to take some responsibility for their own learning
Learners are capable of achieving complex outcomes if given appropriate opportunities and time	Teachers should have high expectations about student learning
Assessment should be an integral component of instruction and should, as far as possible, be authentic, that is, use real-world situations in which to test applications of knowledge and skills	Teachers have to stop pretending that assessment means something just because they have given marks or Grades to learners
Teachers and educational institutions, not the learners themselves, control the factors that determine whether or not learners are able to learn	The teachers and educational administrators must take responsibility for student learning
The way the educational institutions and aspects of instruction are currently organised is not the only way or necessarily the best way to organise them.	Teachers should critically reflect on their current practices and be willing to accept that there are better ways of helping learners achieve significant learning outcomes.

Killen (2007:2) indicates that outcomes-based education can be viewed in three different ways- as a theory of education, or as a systemic structure for education, or as a classroom practice. It is an approach to planning, delivering and evaluating instruction that requires administrators, teachers and efforts on the desired results of education. Results are expressed in terms of individual learner learning. According to Killen (2007:3), outcomes-based education is underpinned by the following three basic premises: All students can learn and succeed, but not all the same time or in the same way. Successful learning promotes even more successful learning. Schools (and

teachers) control the conditions that determine whether or not students are successful at school learning.

Outcomes-based education does have its roots in earlier work on educational objectives, e.g., competency-based education, mastery learning and criterion-referenced assessment, but it has synthesised and extended all these ideas (Killen 2007:5). In an outcomes-based education there are three major steps in instructional planning, namely, deciding on the outcomes that students are to achieve, deciding how to assist students to achieve those outcomes, and deciding how to determine when students have achieved the outcomes (Killen 2007:6). Lawson and Asket-Williams (2007:2) mention that the use of outcomes in the curriculum statements reflects the fact that the curriculum designers have considered which outcomes of the curriculum are valued and have used these in structuring the curriculum framework or to design the syllabus statement.

According to Mokhaba (2006:294), issues that the curriculum addresses are not only of a practical nature, but are also theoretical, for instance, curriculum orientations and perspective. In everything there is something useful or beneficial that can be derived from it. In some instances, it is not only how good an object is, but how it is being utilised that counts. The same applies to an education policy. No matter how good or noble its intentions may be, how it is being implemented and how it is continuously monitored and informed is imperative. Therefore, the positive and negative aspects of outcomes-based education as well as its implementation require further explanation. As learners learn at their own pace, others may lose interest in the learning process and become bored and start to be disruptive in class. Not only should the teachers be the ones who control the conditions that determine whether or not learners are successful at school. Learners should also be encouraged to determine their own success. It is not only what and whether learners learn successfully, but also how they learn is imperative for successful learning. The ensuing section is the discussion of Curriculum 2005, its principles as well as the structure and concepts used such as critical outcomes, learning area outcomes, specific outcomes, range statements, assessment criteria and performance indicators.

3.6 CURRICULUM 2005 (C2005)

According to Fowler and Fowler (2005:330), curriculum refers to the subjects taught during the classical period of the Greek civilisation. Mothata (2000:39) alleges that curriculum is defined in many ways and therefore, it is not universally defined. On the other hand, Marsh and Willis (2007:7), allege that nowadays school documents, newspaper articles, committee reports, and many academic textbooks refer to any and all subjects offered or prescribed as “the curriculum of the school”. From the above definitions, curriculum can be seen as all plans, activities that can be found in any documents which are relevant and appropriate for achieving learning outcomes.

Curriculum 2005 was designed to make a fresh start for education and to challenge all those involved in the planning and delivery of education to think in a different way about things they have taken for granted (Rulashe 2005:35). Chisholm (2007:7) argues that Curriculum 2005 is significant both because of the enormity of the practical and symbolic legacy that it attempts to address as well as the weight that is attached to what it can achieve. Cooper (2007:1) indicates that the administrators and teachers needed to understand and engage with an unfamiliar ideology to effectively take outcomes-based education into the classroom. That tension was due to two major concerns, namely, the curriculum framework vis-a-vis applicability, conditions of implementation and actual practice in schools, and the expected outcomes vis-a-vis the capacity of teachers to translate them into reality (Nsamba 2009:28). While C2005 was intended to serve an instrumental purpose determined by economic rationality, it was also intended to serve a new political and social vision (Wilmot 2006:53). From the above arguments, one can deduce that the introduction of C2005 in primary schools in 1998 caused a huge public outcry. Educators were expected to implement a new curriculum with new terminologies and methodologies. Thus the researcher will interact with the educators who have been teaching before C2005 was introduced.

3.6.1 Key principles of Curriculum 2005

The outcomes-based education model in South Africa, which is similar to the global efforts described above, has the following underlying principles for curriculum reform. The principles of outcomes-based education as described by the Department of Education (2008b:12), are:

integration of education and training, all learners will succeed, times will no longer control the learning process. This means that not all learners will succeed at the same time, instead, learners will be able to develop at their own pace. Learners will be expected to show what they have learnt in different ways and examination will no longer be the only deterrent for progression or promotion. Outcomes will be assessed in other ways on an ongoing basis. Assessment is an integral part of the whole system and learners will not get marks just for remembering subject content. Different aspects of the learners' abilities, such as their creativity and critical thinking will also be assessed. Learners will know what they are learning and why and they will be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. This will help to motivate them because they will be able to see the value of the programme.

The above mentioned principles thus demand of the educators to be familiar with them and understand the various mechanisms of outcomes-based assessment. These include critical outcomes, specific outcomes, assessment criteria, range statements and performance indicators.

3.6.1.1 Critical outcomes

According to Department of Education (2008b:7) critical outcomes are broad, generic cross-curricular outcomes. Bondenstein (2007:327) states that critical outcomes are the broad skills, competencies and attitudes that are valid for all disciplines at an overarching level. Naicker (2007:97) outlines these outcomes as follows:

Learners should be able to:

- Identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- Work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community;
- Organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- Collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- Communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;
- Use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others;

- Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

Furthermore, Naicker (2007:98) states that to contribute to the full personal development of each learner and to social and economic development at large, the intention underlying any programme of learning should be to make an individual aware of the importance of the following: reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively, participating as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities, being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts, exploring education and career opportunities as well as developing entrepreneurial opportunities.

Educators had to ensure that they are familiar with the critical outcomes as they have important implications for teaching and learning in the classroom. The rationale for each learning area, the learning area outcomes and specific outcomes are all based on the critical outcomes. Curriculum 2005 was informed by twelve critical outcomes, which are in turn informed by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and have been approved by the South African Qualifications Authority. The first seven outcomes encourage the development of reflective, independent and productive citizens. It is the responsibility of educators to ensure that the school's curriculum policy is designed in order to achieve the critical and developmental outcomes mentioned above (see 3.6.1.1). These cross-curricular outcomes form the basis from which the learning outcomes are derived.

3.6.1.2 Learning area outcomes

Learning area outcomes specify the sequence of the core concepts, content and skills to be taught in each Grade level (Department of Education (2008b:7). These are the general skills, abilities and values, which a learner will be expected to demonstrate in that learning area (Lubisi et al 2006:48). Instead of teaching the traditional participants in isolation from each other, outcomes-based education endorses a more holistic approach where integration of learning content is emphasised. In order to facilitate integration, the new, balanced curriculum is developed on the basis of learning areas. Every learning area has its own broad outcomes, which are called learning

area outcomes. The specific outcomes are informed by the learning area outcomes and thus will assist educators in the planning of teaching and learning activities.

3.6.1.3 Specific outcomes

According to Department of Education (2008b:8) specific outcomes are derived from the learning areas and specify what learners are able to do at the end of a learning experience. They are not Grade specific but teachers are expected to assess learners in each Grade against these sixty six outcomes. Bondenstein (2007:339) explains that specific outcomes describe the knowledge, skills and competencies that are determined and acquired within specific fields and disciplines. Each learning area consists of specific outcomes which help the educators to assess whether learners have achieved the desired outcomes for the learning area or unit of the work. Specific outcomes are derived from the broad learning area outcomes and are context specific. They provide guidance to educators in terms of devising learning programmes or learning experiences. The specific outcomes describe the competence which learners must demonstrate in various contexts and particular levels of learning. These sixty six specific outcomes are derived from the critical outcomes. Specific outcomes assist educators in making academic judgement and assist learners who must prove that they possess the skills and knowledge they claim. According to Naicker (2007:98), specific outcomes in turn provide direction for the eight learning areas, with each learning area having a number of its 'own' specific outcomes. Each of this learning area is compulsory for the whole General Education and Training band. The eight learning areas are the following:

- Language Learning, Literacy and Communication (LLC)
- Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Sciences (MLMMS)
- Human and Social Sciences (HSS)
- Natural Sciences (NS)
- Economic and Management Sciences (EMS)
- Life Orientation (LO)
- Arts and Culture (AC)
- Technology (Tech)

It would have been better if the specific outcomes were Grade specific because of learners' different levels of learning. The specific outcomes should clearly indicate the type of content needed for the learners to achieve such outcomes.

3.6.1.4 Range statements

According to Department of Education (2008b:8) range statements indicate the scope, level, depth and parameters of achievement of outcomes. Naicker (2007:99) states that range statements provide important guidelines to educators for the following reasons:

- A range statement indicates scope, depth and level of complexity of the outcome each learner is expected to demonstrate, as well as the context in which the outcomes will be demonstrated;
- Range statement therefore also delineate the critical areas of content, the processes and the contexts educators and learners should work with;
- Range statements ensure a balance between the acquisition of knowledge and skills and the development of values;
- Range statements provide the direction, but allow for multiple learning strategies and for flexibility in the choice of teaching methodologies and strategies;
- A range statement helps educators to determine how far a learner needs to progress towards each of the sixty six specific outcomes in one phase.

These range statements unpack specific outcomes so that educators can be able to analyse and understand the learning process. Assessment criteria function within these range statements, that is, they are informed by the range statements.

3.6.1.5 Assessment criteria

According to Department of Education (2008b:9), assessment criteria indicate in broad terms, the observable processes and products of learning which serve as culminating demonstrations of the

learner's achievements. The Education policy on assessment further states that in order to achieve the assessment criteria (evidence of the achievement of the outcome), the assessment task has to be appropriately designed in terms of form, use, level of difficulty, frequency, timing and feedback, if it has to make a positive contribution to learning (Department of Education 2008b:9). Naicker (2007:99) indicates that assessment criteria assist the educators in the following ways:

- Assessment criteria describe the learner's behaviour that would partial evidence of the learner demonstrating the specific outcomes. Taken together, all the assessment criteria for a specific outcome should enable an educator to determine whether a learner does indeed demonstrate achievement of an outcome;
- Assessment criteria indicate what kind of assessment will be applied;
- Assessment criteria therefore refer to observable processes and products of learning.

The assessment criteria are ways of fine-tuning the performance indicators (Tilley & Goldstein 2006:10). The goal of teaching is to help the learner to learn. In order to do so, the educator and the learner must know how well he or she is doing in reaching the educational outcome desired. Assessment criteria give educators more details on how a learner is progressing.

3.6.1.6 Performance indicators

According to Department of Education (2008b:9), performance indicators provide educators with further guidelines on how the learner is progressing towards each outcome. Performance indicators provide details of the content and processes that learners should master. They allow statements of the quality of achievement. Education policy on assessment states that performance indicators help to plan the learning process, track progress and diagnose areas of weakness (Department of Education 2008b:9). Naicker (2007:99) states that performance indicators are important for the following reasons:

- Performance indicators describe essential developmental stages or stepping stones towards ultimately demonstrating the outcome;

- They provide detailed information about what learners should know, feel and be able to do as well as about the learning contexts;
- Educators use performance indicators to plan learning and assessment in more detail.

The performance indicators are ways in which educators can ultimately see whether the learners have achieved the set learning outcomes and if not, what should be done in order to assist them to demonstrate achievement of those outcomes.

According to Cross, Mungadi and Rouhani (2002:175) the critique of the outcomes-based curriculum has been waged with reference to the following dimensions: its origin and conceptual basis (borrowing of an outcomes based strategy without considering the contextual changes needed to make the strategy effective), its policy nature (political imperatives are given primacy over policy imperatives), its knowledge and pedagogical features (it was not clear what clusters of knowledge or content should be brought together to facilitate learning, in what sequence, and at what level of competence) and its position in the context of schooling (lack of alignment between curriculum development, teacher development, selection and supply of learning materials). Generally, policy reviews can serve the following functions: to provide accountability mechanisms for governments and/or donor agencies with vested interests in a particular policy initiative or programme, to enhance existing policy, and to establish a new policy (Cross et al 2002:14). In South Africa the Curriculum Review Committee was required to investigate steps to be taken in respect of the implementation of the new curriculum in Grades 4 and 8 in 2001, key success factors and strategies for strengthened implementation of the new curriculum, the structure of the new curriculum, and the levels of understanding of outcomes-based education by stakeholders (Cross et al 2002:183). At a more practical level, the committee had to investigate how enabling C2005 was for achieving its stated critical outcomes.

3.7 RE-EVALUATION OF CURRICULUM 2005

After three years of OBE implementation through Curriculum 2005, the report of the Review Committee (2000:92) revealed that OBE implementation did not live up to its political and social expectations and has proved most of its critics right.

3.7.1 Report of the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005

According to the report of the Review Committee (2000:98), the following differences between Curriculum 2005 (C2005) and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) are outlined:

Table 3.3 The differences between C2005 and RNCS

C2005	RNCS
Critical outcomes are broad, generic cross-curricular outcomes	Critical outcomes are broad , generic cross-curricular learning goals of the General Education and Training
Specific outcomes are derived from the learning areas and specify what learners are able to do at the end of a learning experience. They are not Grade specific but teachers are expected to assess learners in each Grade against these sixty six outcomes	Learning area statements define the learning area and its definitive features
Assessment criteria, indicate in broad terms, the observable processes and products of learning which serve as culminating demonstrations of the learner's achievements	Dropped
Range statement indicate the scope, level, depth and parameters of achievement	Dropped
Performance indicators provide details of the content and processes that learners should master. They allow statements of the quality of achievement	Dropped
Expected levels of performance are provided by Grade and learning programme and are intended to inform teachers, parents and learners of what is considered quality work and what to aim for	Learning outcomes specify the sequence of the core concepts, content and skills to be taught in each Grade level. Assessment standards describe the expected level and range of performance for each of the learning outcomes for each Grade level
Phase organisers are tools for grouping the specific outcomes and in this way are expected to aid planning and integration. Phase organisers are prescribed by policy for each learning area and each phase	Dropped
Programme organisers are issues or themes chosen by teachers from everyday life to reflect local social priorities	Dropped

Chisholm (2006:10) alleges that C2005 Review committee presented a united report arguing that outcomes-based education was not the issue but the design of the curriculum and aspects associated with its implementation: the teacher training, learning support materials, provincial support and time frames. The differences between Curriculum 2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement show how the Review Committee tried to streamline and simplify this policy in order to assist the educators in implementing it. In the next section the National Curriculum Statement with its structure, key principles, learning outcomes, assessment standards and learning programmes are discussed.

3.8 THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT (NCS)

According to Chisholm (2007:195), interpretation of curriculum policy and development in South Africa has, in recent years, been dominated by two main approaches: one focuses on curriculum as a policy, and the other on curriculum as knowledge. Changing the school curriculum was a high priority for post apartheid South Africa, which recognised the need for a single national curriculum framework that would bring together those aspects of our culture which are important to be left to chance (Department of Education 2008:171). However, the introduction of the NCS has not been unproblematic. Its critics addressed its political and epistemological base and its instrumentalist approach, but above all its complexity, language, lack of alignment and inadequate implementation support (Department of Education 2008:172). After Curriculum 2005 was reviewed and streamlined, it was then called the Revised National Curriculum Statement (the National Curriculum Statement). In this study the researcher investigated how educators were professionally developed with regard to the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement.

3.8.1 Structure of the National Curriculum Statement

In the GET band, the National Curriculum Statement consists of the overview document and eight Learning Area Statements. There are eight Learning Areas in the National Curriculum Statement. According to Department of Education (2008:9), a Learning Area is a field of knowledge, skills

and values which has unique features as well as connections with other fields of knowledge and Learning Areas. In the National Curriculum Statement, the Learning Areas are:

- Languages
- Mathematics
- Natural Sciences
- Technology
- Social Sciences
- Arts and Culture
- Life Orientation
- Economic and Management Sciences

Each Learning Area statement addresses the relationship between human rights, healthy environment and social justice. Learning Area Statements provide guidelines of requirements and expectations in the General Education and Training band (Grade R to 9). The only difference one identifies in terms of the learning areas as mentioned in C2005 and the NCS is change of terminology. In this study the researcher analysed how these changes of learning areas had an impact on teaching and learning.

3.8.2 Key principles of the National Curriculum Statement

According to the Department of Education (2008:10) the National Curriculum Statement builds on the vision of the Constitution and Curriculum 2005 and has the following underlying principles for curriculum reform:

3.8.2.1 Outcomes-based education

In outcomes-based education the process of learning is as important as the content. The outcomes to be achieved at the end of the learning process are clearly spelt out. There are critical and developmental outcomes which are derived from the constitution. According to the Department of Education (2008:11), critical outcomes envisage learners who will be able to do the following:

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

What the critical outcomes envisage learners to be able to do or demonstrate are clearly stated. However, educators should have given guidelines on how to achieve such ideologies.

According to the Department of Education (2008:11), the developmental outcomes envisage learners who are able to reflect on and explore a variety of strategies to learn more effectively, participate as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities, be culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts, explore education and career opportunities as well as to develop entrepreneurial opportunities. The policy makers do not give a clear guideline on how developmental outcomes would assist the educators in guiding the learners to achieve such good ideas.

3.8.2.2 Progression and integration

According to Department of Education (2008:13), integration ensures that learners experience the learning areas as linked and related, supports and expands learners' opportunities to attain skills, acquire knowledge and develop attitudes and values encompassed across the curriculum. Assessment Standards become progressively more complex with each Grade in a phase. The issue of conceptual progression needs to be addressed during planning. In the National Curriculum Statement, the assessment standards provide the conceptual progression in each Learning Area

from Grade to Grade Department of Education (2008:13). Integration also occurs within and across learning areas. This emphasises that knowledge is integrated.

However, there is no clear indication of how different learning areas are linked and related. Each learning area has its own learning outcomes and assessment standards. Learning area policy documents do not show how integration supports the attainment of skills, knowledge, values and attitudes in the various learning outcomes. Instead of learning outcomes and assessment standards, the new learning and teaching policy stipulates the skills, content, strategies and sub-skills to be attained.

3.8.2.3 Social Justice, a Healthy Environment, Human Rights and Inclusivity

Social justice refers to our responsibility to care for each other. Social justice also relates to our responsibility to create equal opportunities for all people and empower learners to be responsible for their own lives and environment. This can be promoted by considering all the learners' home languages and cultures as being equally important. To ensure that social justice is upheld, the human rights of all individuals in society need to be recognised and respected.

The right to healthy environment is clearly expressed in the South African Constitution that every person has the right to an environment that is not harmful. This can be promoted by choosing texts that deal with healthy environment in dealing with learning outcomes. Issues such as global warming, poverty and HIV/AIDS might be chosen to develop skills. Every human being has some fundamental or basic rights, e.g. the right to life, the right to bodily integrity, food, clothing, shelter, rest, medical care and social services. Human rights can be promoted by recognising learners' linguistic and cultural diversity. Issues such as stereotyping and sexism should be avoided.

Inclusivity covers a wide spectrum of issues such as racism, culture, gender, disabilities, HIV/AIDS and other transmittable diseases. Learners should be given opportunities to interact with texts in which they learn to respect people living with disabilities. Inclusivity calls for social justice and the respect of human rights including people diversified by gender, disabilities, culture

and nationality. However, clear strategies and guidelines should be put in place to assist the educators in dealing with such diversities in the classroom situations. Lack of clear strategies and guidelines would understandably make it difficult for the educators to implement inclusivity in real classroom environment.

3.8.2.4 Clarity and Accessibility

The National Curriculum Statement aims at clarity and accessibility both in its design and language (Department of Education 2008:12). Learning area statements identify the outcomes to be achieved. There is a refined terminology used in these documents. Learning area statements are also available in all official languages and braille. Learning areas are linked and related. The National Curriculum Statement also stipulates progressively more complex, deeper and broader expectations of learners via the assessment standards in each Learning Area statement. Though the learning outcomes and assessment standards are clearly stipulated, it is difficult to identify the content to be used in the classrooms in order to achieve the set outcomes.

3.8.2.5 A high level of skills and knowledge for all

According to Department of Education (2008:12), the National Curriculum Statement aims at the development of knowledge and skills for all. It sets and holds up high expectations of what South African learners can achieve. Social justice requires that those sections of the population previously disempowered by the lack of knowledge and skills should now be empowered. Minimum skills and knowledge to be achieved by learners are specified in all Learning Areas. Knowledge and skills are imperatives in the process of learning thus educators and learners should be given clear guidelines on how to facilitate such processes.

3.8.3 Learning outcomes and assessment standards

According to the Department of Education (2008:14), a learning outcome is a description of what (knowledge, skills and values) learners should know, demonstrate and be able to do at the end of the General Education and Training band. Learning outcomes can be regarded as what learners

can do with what they know and understand. They are demonstrations of what learners can do after they have completed their learning experiences.

Assessment standards describe the level at which learners should demonstrate their achievement of the learning outcomes and the ways (depth and breadth) of demonstrating their achievement (Department of Education 2008:14). Assessment standards are Grade specific and show progression from one Grade to the other in each Learning Area. In analysing the assessment standards, important aspects of learning and teaching, namely, skills, knowledge, values and attitudes can be identified, provided they are clearly stipulated. Learning area statements should clearly indicate these important aspects of learning and teaching.

3.8.3.1 Learning outcomes for English as First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase

According to Department of Education (2008:48) the following are the learning outcomes for English as First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase:

- **Listening:** the learner will be able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations. Learners should listen to a great deal of additional language pitched at the right level. This is the foundation for the development of all the other language skills.
- **Speaking:** the learner will be able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations. Learners will become confident in expressing themselves in the additional language in simple ways. They will communicate across cultural and language boundaries. They should learn through experience that multilingualism is personally and socially enriching.
- **Reading and Viewing:** the learner will be able to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts. Reading is essential for language development, for enjoyment and for learning about the world. In this phase learners will read for their own personal growth. It is also through reading that they learn about written texts. Reading is thus the foundation of writing.

- **Writing:** the learner will be able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes. Writing is closely linked to reading and is an essential tool for learning across the curriculum. It is also important for learners’ personal growth.
- **Thinking and Reasoning:** the learner will be able to use language to think and reason, as well as to access, process and use information for learning. Learners will understand more complicated concepts, and will learn skills and strategies for thinking and accessing information in their Learning Areas.
- **Language structure and use:** the learner will know and be able to use the sound, words and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts. Grammar and vocabulary should be taught in context, and integrated with reading, writing, listening and speaking.

The learning outcomes are clearly stipulated and explained, but lack specific guidelines of how they can be achieved. They show what learners will be able to do or demonstrate in the process of learning but one finds it difficult to identify content in each learning outcome. In the ensuing section, assessment standards are stipulated to show how they unpack learning outcomes in each Grade in the Intermediate Phase.

3.8.3.2 Assessment standards for English as First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase

For this study, though the investigation will be on all learning outcomes, the researcher chose only one learning outcome to show how assessment standards unpack learning outcomes and how they are graded. According to Department of Education (2008:54), the following assessment standards per learning outcome are stipulated:

Table 3.4 Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards

Learning outcomes	Assessment standards (Grade 4)	Assessment standards (Grade 5)	Assessment standards (Grade 6)
Listening	We know this when the learner: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Understands stories (told or read to learners), that is: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers literal questions 	We know this when the learner: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Understands stories (told or read to learners) that is: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers literal questions 	We know this when the learner: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Understands stories (told or read to learners) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers literal

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Predicts what will happen next • Responds personally • Discusses ethical and social issues • Retells the story in the right sequence • Summarises the story with the teacher's support. <p>➤ Understands oral instructions, directions and descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responds physically to instructions • Listens to simple oral directions and follow a route or locates a place on a simple map or plan <p>➤ Understands oral descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies people, objects or places • Labels a diagram <p>➤ Understands recounted events</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers questions about what happened first, second, etc. <p>➤ Respects other learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gives them a chance to speak • Listens to them • Encourages their attempts to speak their additional language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responds personally • Notes relevant information • Discusses ethical, social and critical issues • Suggests an alternative ending for the story • Retells the story • Summarises the story with the teacher's support <p>➤ Understands oral instructions, directions and descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands a sequence of instructions by responding physically • understands oral directions by following a route locating a place on a map or plan <p>➤ Understands oral descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies people, objects or places • Labels a diagram • Notes relevant information <p>➤ Understands recounted events</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers questions about what happened first, second, etc • Recounts the same events with support <p>➤ Respects other learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gives other learners a chance to speak 	<p>questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Notes relevant information • Responds personally • Connects story to own life • Discusses ethical, social and critical issues • Suggests an alternative ending for the story <p>➤ Understands oral instructions, directions and descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands a complex sequence of instructions by responding physically • understands oral directions by noting them down and following them on a map <p>➤ Understands oral descriptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies people, objects or places • Labels a diagram • Notes relevant information • Answers questions <p>➤ Understands recounted events</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answers questions about what happened
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		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listens to them and encourages their attempts to speak their additional language. • Encourages other group members to support fellow learners 	<p>first, second, etc</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recounts the same events <p>➤ Respects other learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gives other learners a chance to speak • Listens to them and encourages their attempts to speak their additional language. • Encourages other group members to support fellow learners.
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In analysing listening as a learning outcome, the assessment standards show very subtle differences from Grade to Grade and the content is not clearly stipulated. It appears that educators should read the assessment standards and decide on the type of content to ensure that the learning outcome has been achieved.

3.8.4 Learning Programmes

According to the Department of Education (2008:15), the National Curriculum Statement is implemented in schools by means of Learning Programmes. Learning Programmes are structured and systematic arrangements of learning activities that promote the attainment of learning outcomes and assessment standards for the phase. They specify the scope of learning and assessment activities per phase. The Learning Programmes also contain work schedules that provide the pace and the sequencing of these activities each year as well as exemplars of lesson plans to be implemented in any given period. Learning Programmes must ensure that all learning outcomes and assessment standards are effectively pursued and that each learning area is allocated its prescribed time and emphasis.

3.8.4.1 Learning Programmes per phase

In the Foundation Phase, that is, Grade R to 3, there are three Learning Programmes, namely, Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills. In the Intermediate Phase, that is, Grade 4 to 6, Languages and Mathematics are distinct learning areas. In the Senior Phase, that is, Grade 7 to 9, there are eight learning areas. Educators are responsible for the development of the Learning Programmes, work schedules and lesson plans. The Department of Education provides policy guidelines for the development of the Learning Programmes and the provinces develop further guidelines.

The following issues should be considered when developing Learning Programmes:

- It should be based on all learning outcomes and their assessment standards;
- All learning outcomes should be dealt with in an integrated way;
- The learning programme should be text-based within the outcomes-based approach;
- The texts should emphasise some aspects of the Critical and Developmental outcomes;
- A wide variety of methodologies should be used;
- The needs of all learners who experience barriers to learning.

In analysing the various issues which should be considered when developing learning programmes, it can be deduced that this is the first level of planning and should be informed by critical, developmental and leaning outcomes as well as the various assessment standards.

When developing the Learning Programmes, educators should select the learning outcomes and assessment standards, integrate the learning outcomes within the Learning Area and across the Learning Areas where possible. Assessment standards can be clustered. Educators should identify content and context, consider collecting and evaluating evidence when addressing assessment strategies, and identify resources which will assist in the attainment of outcomes. The above guidelines form the core of the development of the learning programme and are investigated in this study to determine their feasibility for educators to assist the learners in achieving the set learning outcomes.

3.8.4.2 Learning Programme Guidelines

According to the Department of Education (2008:16), to ensure achievement of national standards set by the National Curriculum Statement, policy guidelines for the relevant and appropriate Learning Programmes are developed at national level in collaboration with provinces. These policy guidelines provide information and guidance on integration within and across learning areas, clustering of assessment standards, relationship between learning outcomes, time allocation, assessment, barriers to learning, designing a learning programme, policy and legislation, training, development and delivery, resourcing and support, as well as planning and organisation.

3.8.4.3 Time allocations

Educators should know time allocations and weightings in order to develop Learning Programmes. The National Curriculum Statement overview document details the time allocated to each Learning Area in both Intermediate and Senior Phases and to Learning Programmes in the Foundation Phase. The Department of Education (2008:17), stipulates the following time allocations in terms of hours, minutes and time percentages:

Table 3.5 Time allocation per phase

PHASE	GRADE	TIME
Foundation Phase	R, 1 and 2	22h30min
	3	25hours
Intermediate Phase	4, 5, and 6	26h30min
Senior Phase	7	26h30min
	8 and 9	27h30min

Time allocation per Grade shows that the lower Grades are given less time than the higher Grades.

Table 3.6 Foundation Phase

Learning Programme	Time Percentage
Literacy	40
Numeracy	35
Life Skills	25

Learners in the foundation phase are given more time to learn languages and less time for life skills.

Table 3.7 Intermediate and Senior Phases

Learning Area	Time Percentage
Languages	25
Mathematics	18
Natural Sciences	13
Social Sciences	12
Technology	08
Economic and Management Sciences	08
Life Orientation	08
Arts and Culture	08

Time allocation per phase does not clearly indicate whether it is for the week or month. In the Foundation Phase the learning programmes are broad entities and time percentages should be clearly stipulated. In the Intermediate and Senior Phases time allocation should be clearly stipulated according to languages at various levels. The next section focuses on outcomes-based assessment within the National Qualifications Framework.

3.9 OUTCOMES-BASED ASSESSMENT (OBA)

According to Vandeyar and Killen (2008:2) regardless of the educational setting, high quality assessment practices should satisfy certain common principles that are typically referred to as reliability, validity, fairness, discrimination and meaningfulness. The principle of clarity of focus requires that all assessment tasks must be clearly and explicitly linked to well-defined outcomes. In terms of continuous assessment (CASS) component, teachers are required to design and implement a range of different assessment strategies (each of which is differently weighted), to develop and apply criterion-referenced assessment sheets (Wilmot 2006:71). Muller (2006:221) asserts that assessment and qualifications as a compound instrument regulating learner movement through the education system is one of the most important policy levers in any education system. Wilmot (2006:76) further indicates that assessment is increasingly viewed as an instrument of

system reform monitoring or system management, and is linked to powerful global discourses of performativity, efficiency, quality assurance and accountability. Assessment in outcomes-based education focuses clearly on defined outcomes, making it possible to credit learners' achievement at every level, whatever pathway they may have followed, and at whatever rate they may have acquired the necessary competence (Department of Education 2008:3). Assessment is a central feature of the National Curriculum Statement. Within the National Curriculum Statement framework, learning, teaching and assessment are inextricably linked. Obviously, the very notion of outcomes-based education focuses on learners' achievement of specified outcomes expected at specific points of their school career.

3.9.1 Assessment

As already defined in chapter one (see 1.75), Shorroks (2007:1) states that assessment is about making judgements based on valid and appropriate evidence. Rust (2008:1) explains that assessment is evaluation or appraisal; it is about making a judgement, identifying the strengths and weaknesses, the good and the bad, and the right and wrong in some cases. To assess is to evaluate or to estimate the nature, value or quality of a process at a specific level (Soans & Stevenson 2008:79). It is the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning (Bondenstein 2007:327). Assessment can be seen as the systematic collection, review and use of information for the purpose of improving learning and development. It is more than simply giving marks or Grades, although that may be part of it. Assessment is a process of collecting and evaluating evidence or information about the performance of learners measured against the assessment standards of the various learning outcomes. In the process of collecting and evaluating evidence of learners' performance, it can be decided if learners are competent or not.

3.9.2 Assessment within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

In addition to outcomes-based education being the framework for assessment policies, the systems and procedures for the NQF registered standards and qualifications, the underlying principles and objectives of the NQF should underpin such policies, systems and procedures (South African Qualifications Authority 2000:13). Assessment is outcomes-based and educators assess at regular intervals, with a clear reason: the reason is to find out what learners understand and can do (Pahad 1997:6). The National Qualifications Framework provides opportunities for everyone to learn regardless of age, circumstances and the level of education one has (Isaacman 2008:6). Assessment within the National Qualifications Framework is actually a departure from previous forms of assessment. These previous forms of assessment were syllabus-based and norm-referenced. Assessment within outcomes-based education is aimed at assisting learners and helping educators to improve their teaching. Assessment within the National Qualifications Framework pays attention to acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes. This approach to assessment also pays attention to knowledge-related skills such as the recall and memorisation of information.

3.9.3 Principles of assessment

For assessment to be valid, fair and reliable, it should be in line with certain principles used in outcomes-based education. According to Department of Education (2008:4), effective assessment in outcomes-based education is underpinned by the following principles:

- Assessment is an ongoing integral part of the learning process. It must be accurate, objective, valid, manageable and time-efficient. Assessment takes many forms, gathers information from several contexts, and uses a variety of methods according to what is being assessed and the needs of the learners.
- Assessment must be bias free and sensitive to gender, race, cultural background and abilities.
- The purpose of assessment should always be made explicit. The criterion referenced approach is used.

- Assessment must be authentic, continuous, multi-dimensional, varied and balanced.
- Assessment results must be communicated clearly, accurately, timeously and meaningfully.
- The methods and techniques used must be appropriate to the knowledge, skills, or attitudes to be assessed as well as to the age and developmental level of the learner.
- Progression should be linked to the achievement of the specific outcomes and should not be rigidly time bound.
- Evidence of progress in achieving outcomes should be used to identify areas where learners need support and remedial intervention.

According to McAlpine (2007:4) there are five points to consider when designing any assessment to ensure that the communication is as meaningful, useful and honest as possible, namely that: the purpose of the assessment whether the task fulfils that purpose, the validity and reliability of the assessment that you are constructing, the referencing and the grading of the assessment. Lawson and Asket-Williams (2007:2) indicate that assessment should be appropriate, fair, manageable, integrated into learning, valid, authentic, sufficient and reliable. After a review of what assessment is, and how assessment works in the National Qualifications Framework, it can be deduced that educators have to understand the purpose of assessment, characteristics of continuous assessment, as well as assessment strategies and tools for assessing learners.

3.9.4 The purpose of assessment

According to the Department of Education (2008:114), the main purpose of assessing learners should be to enhance individual growth and development, to monitor the progress of learners and to facilitate their learning. Rust (2008:1) indicates that teachers actually assess students for quite a range of different reasons, namely, motivation, creating learning opportunities, to give feedback, to Grade, and as a quality assurance mechanism (both for internal and external systems). The purpose of assessment is to describe the educational health of the country, directs students along certain pathways, provide feedback to teachers, students, parents and the community, determine whether the topic outcome has been achieved, to indicate how effective a unit/programme has been (Eisner 2006:3). Lubisi et al (2006:14), argue that if educators know why they want to assess

their learners, there is a better chance they will use assessment methods to fit the purpose of assessment. Mac Alpine (2007:6) states that before designing any assessment, you need to ensure that what you are planning will fulfil the demands that you wish to make on it. This involves a thorough examination of your reasons for assessing. In keeping with the principles of the National Qualifications Framework, (Department of Education 2008:5), assessment should:

- Provide information for the evaluation and review of learning programmes used in the classroom;
- Report to the parents and other stake holders on the levels of achievement across the curriculum;
- Determine whether the learning required for the achievement of the specific outcomes is taking place and whether any difficulties are being encountered;
- Maximise learners' access to the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values as defined in the National Curriculum Policy.

In analysing the purposes of assessment as indicated by the various scholars, for this study the purpose of assessment can be seen as the process of guiding the learners in the processes of learning with the ultimate aim of determining whether the outcomes have been achieved

3.9.5 Characteristics of continuous assessment

As a chief method by which assessment takes place in the National Curriculum Statement, according to the Department of Education (2008:115), continuous assessment (see 1.7.8.1), covers all the outcomes-based assessment principles and ensures that assessment takes place over a period of time and is ongoing, supports the growth and development of learners, provides feedback from learning and teaching, allows for the integrated assessment, uses strategies that cater for a variety of learner needs (language, physical, psychological, emotional and cultural), and allows for summative assessment (see 1.7.8.3).

Furthermore, Bondenstein (2007:329) outlines the following characteristics of continuous assessment. It should:

- Assess the impact of the instruction provided to students;
- Help teachers to ensure that all students are making progress;
- Help teachers and students to focus on areas of lessons/lesson topics not yet mastered or learned well;
- Enable students to recognise the areas in which they are having difficulties;
- Provide opportunities to delve into the thinking behind student' answers;
- Provide fuel for teaching and learning by offering descriptive feedback.

Thus continuous assessment emphasises that assessment is a process but not an end product. It should be continuous during the process of learning and teaching in the form of informal and formal assessment learning activities.

3.9.6 Features of continuous assessment

The features of continuous assessment as described in the circular by the Gauteng Department of Education, (2006:4), are the following:

- It encourages the educators to appraise their own work;
- It covers a wide spectrum of learning activities and tasks;
- It ensures that learners are exposed to a wide range of assessment methods both formal and informal;
- It takes place during the learning process;
- It is used to help the learner and the learning process (formative);
- It is transparent as the learners are aware of the criteria against which they are assessed;
- It makes more use of criterion referencing than norm referencing;
- It enables educators to use any planned learning experience to assess learner achievements and progress;
- It ensures that tests and examinations are not the only components of evaluation;
- It is diagnostic, enabling the educator to monitor strengths and to address the needs of each learner;

- It requires the development of a sound assessment record to track learner progress and to provide useful data for reporting and progression;
- It enables educators to pace learners and to provide enrichment for fast learners.

Continuous assessment is an ongoing process and the main purpose is to find out what learners know, understand, value and can be able to do. In the foundation phase assessment is based entirely on continuous assessment while in the intermediate phase is both continuous and summative. For this study it is imperative to determine how educators develop the various learning and teaching activities and how they assess learners using a variety of assessment strategies.

3.9.7 Types of assessment

As assessment of learners is continuous and educators should be aware that the main aim is to improve learners' achievement of outcomes. Assessment is a crucial aspect and it is essential in this study to investigate the knowledge educators have and how different types of assessments are employed. The Department of education (2008:114) stipulates the following types of assessment as explained in the ensuing paragraphs.

3.9.7.1 Baseline assessment

Baseline assessment measures children's knowledge, understanding, and skills before joining school (Eisner 2006:11). It usually takes place at the beginning of a Grade or a phase to establish what learners already know. It assists educators to plan learning programmes and learning activities.

3.9.7.2 Diagnostic assessment

According to Dodge (2007:6) diagnostic assessment occurs at the beginning of the learning/teaching cycle and will provide the teacher with an understanding of the prior knowledge and skills a student brings to a unit, as well as the strengths and specific learning needs of an individual or

groups of students in relation to the expectations that will be taught. Wormeli (2010:5) indicates that diagnostic assessment is conducted prior to and during learning to determine what existing knowledge, skills, attitudes, interests, and/or needs the student has, the range of individual differences, and what programme plans and/or modifications are required to meet the needs of individuals or group of students.

Diagnostic assessments thus provide educators with information about what the learners already know and some misconceptions before beginning with the learning and teaching activities. They also provide a baseline for understanding how much learning has taken place after the learning activity is completed. It is used to find out about the nature and cause of barriers to learning experienced by the learners. It is followed by guidance, appropriate support and learning activities.

3.9.7.3 Formative assessment

Nicole and Macfarlane (2007:199) indicate that the purpose of formative assessment is to provide feedback for teachers to modify subsequent learning activities, to identify and remediate groups or individuals, to move focus away from achieving Grades and onto learning process, and to improve students' metacognitive awareness of how they learn. Garrison and Ehringhaus (2008:7) argue that when incorporated into classroom practice, formative assessment provides the information needed to adjust teaching and learning while they are happening. These adjustments help to ensure students achieve targeted standards-based learning goals within a set time frame. Formative assessment serve as practice for students, just like meaningful homework (assignment) and check for understanding along the way and guide teacher decision making about future instruction and they also provide feedback to students so they can improve their performance (Dodge 2007:3). It is actually a range of formal and informal assessment procedures employed by the educators during the learning process in order to modify teaching and learning activities to improve learners' attainment of learning outcomes. It monitors and supports the process of learning and teaching, and it is used to inform learners and educators about learners' progress so as to improve learning. Constructive feedback should be given to enable learners to improve.

3.9.7.4 Summative assessment

According to Castro (2008:13), summative assessment (or summative evaluation) refers to the assessment of learning and summarises the development of learners at a particular time. The learner sits for a test and then the teacher marks the test and assigns a score. Summative assessment is the formal testing of what has been learned in order to produce marks or Grades which may be used for reports of various types (Wormeli 2010:3). However, Heather (2008:5) states that it can have a negative impact on pupils' motivation since after it has been employed, low achieving pupils had low self-esteem than higher achievers. It gives an overall picture of learners' progress at a given time, for example, at the end of the term or year, or on transfer to another school. The purpose is to measure the learning that has taken place and feedback is often in the form of a report. This generally tends to be the final assessment after the learning process and is normally linked to rewards (pass or failure). Typically, summative assessment concentrates on the learning outcomes rather than only on the processes of learning.

3.9.7.5 Systemic assessment

Systemic assessment is the way of monitoring the performance of the education system. One of the components of this is the assessment of learner performance in relation to the national indicators. It is conducted at the end of each phase of the General Education and Training band. A representative sample of schools and learners is selected provincially or nationally for systemic assessment. These types of assessment should be integrated in the overall processes of assessment as they are not mutually exclusive. A variety of other assessment methods should be incorporated by educators in the learning process. In this study the researcher will establish how the various types of assessment are implemented and how such types of assessment improve the process of learning and teaching.

3.9.8 Assessment methods

Educators are encouraged to use various methods of assessment to evaluate learning and to diagnose the need for additional teaching and learning. The following are some of the assessment methods frequently used in schools (Department of Education 2008:27):

- **Self-assessment:** this helps the learner to reflect on his/her own learning. For the learner to take more responsibility for their own learning, educators should assist them to reflect on their own performances. It is the process of looking at oneself in order to assess aspects that are important to one's identity. Outcomes-based education suggests that educators make the learning outcomes of their cause explicit to learners so that learners can assess themselves.
- **Peer assessment:** learners assess each other in a group situation or individually using tools such as checklists and questionnaires. However, learners should assess each other's achievement against clearly defined outcomes.
- **Learner to group:** outcomes should be clearly defined so that each learner can assess the performance of a group.
- **Learner to learner:** two learners assess each other's performance on an assigned assessment grid.

This study investigates how the various assessment methods are employed to improve the process of learning and teaching.

3.9.9 Assessment strategies and possible activities

In the National Curriculum Statement, various strategies can be used for collecting evidence of learner performance. Learners' skills of writing creatively can be developed by giving them activities such as paragraphs, dialogues and diaries. Rubrics, checklists and memoranda can be used to evaluate evidence. In the next section is the discussion of how assessment should be managed, looking at aspects such as people involved in assessment, recording, reporting, designing record sheets, reflection, progression, promotion as well as educators' portfolios.

3.10 MANAGING ASSESSMENT

According to the Department of Education (2008:18), each school must have a School Assessment Plan, which outlines how Continuous Assessment (CASS) is planned and implemented. This includes how records are kept, stored and accessed, assessment codes, internal verification, moderation, frequency and method of reporting, monitoring of assessment process as well as training of staff. Portfolios also provide concrete evidence of learners' progress over a period of time. They provide a holistic picture of learners' development as well as a forum for educators, learners and other stakeholders to talk about the learning process. Portfolios develop learners' ability to reflect on their learning process and allow for evidence-based assessment. Furthermore, each school should have a School Assessment Programme, which is a compilation of all Grades' assessment plans. Each teacher must have an Assessment Programme, which is derived from the work schedule and indicate the details of assessment per Grade.

3.10.1 People involved in assessment

According to the Department of Education (2008:116), the school and the educators have the overall responsibility for the assessment of learners. The assessment records that are developed and kept at the school are schedules, educator portfolios, learner profiles and record cards. The management, maintenance and safety of these documents are the responsibility of the school management. In the context of the National Qualifications Framework, assessment involves the learner, the educator/tutor/mentor and peers or the colleagues of the learner.

3.10.2 Recording progress and achievement

A systematic way of evaluating learners' performance and careful recording of assessment results should be developed by the educators. Educators are expected to keep an efficient and current record of learners' progress in each learning area. Each learner's performance is recorded as a mark and /or code for the assessment task, along with an indication of the learning outcomes being addressed (Department of Education 2008:19). A carefully compiled record or evidence of

learner performance should be maintained to justify the rating a learner receives at the end of the term or year.

3.10.3 Designing record sheets

According to the Department of Education (2008:20), recording sheets selected by the educators must include the following: names of learners, date of assessment task, forms of assessment used, learning outcomes/assessment standards covered in the task, learner achievement in code or percentage against the task, and the supporting comments, which clarify and expand on assessment given. The comments should be developed and reflective of competence in assessment. The completed tasks should also be kept in the learners' exercise book. All evidence of learner engagement should be kept as evidence in the educators' portfolios.

3.10.4 Reporting in Grade 4-9

According to the Department of Education (2008:21), the national codes together with either the descriptors or percentages provided below should be used for recording and reporting learner performance.

Table 3.8 Reporting in Grade 4-9

Rating code	Description of competence	Percentage
7	Outstanding achievement	80-100
6	Meritorious achievement	70-79
5	Substantial achievement	60-69
4	Adequate achievement	50-59
3	Moderate achievement	40-49
2	Elementary achievement	30-39
1	Not achieved	0-29

Though the rating codes, descriptions and the percentages are indicated, the descriptions might not be clear to the educators and the learners.

3.10.5 Reflection

According to the Department of Education (2008:21), follow-up interventions may include the following: creating more opportunities for learning, giving learners more examples, building on prior activities as well giving learners more exercises to achieve certain skills. It is essential for educators to reflect on whether the learning outcomes have been achieved, and if not, what intervention strategies will be put in place.

3.10.6 Progression of learners from one Grade to the other

According to the Department of Education (2008:22), the following requirements for progression in Grade 4-8 have been stipulated (see 1.7.17):

- Ideally all learners in Grade 4-8 should progress with their age cohort;
- Any decision about progression should be based on the evidence of a learner's performance against the recorded assessment tasks;
- Where a learner needs more time to demonstrate achievement, decisions shall be made based on the advice of the relevant role-players: educators, learners, parents and the education support services;
- No learner should stay in the same phase for longer than four years, unless the provincial Head of Department has given approval based on specific circumstances and professional advice;
- If a learner needs more time to achieve the Learning Outcomes, that learner needs to be retained in a Grade for a whole year.

Assessment Standards become progressively more complex with each Grade in a phase. The issue of conceptual progression needs to be addressed during planning. In the National Curriculum Statement, the assessment standards provide the conceptual progression in each Learning Area from Grade to Grade (Department of Education (2008:13). There are no clear criteria which inform the way learners should progress with their age cohort in Grades 4-8. The fact that learners who cannot achieve the set learning outcomes should be retained in those particular Grades

warrant clear support strategies to be put in place to assist them to achieve those learning outcomes.

3.10.7 Promotion

According to the Department of Education (2008:22), the following guidelines have been stipulated for promotion of learners at Grade 9:

- A learner is promoted from Grade 9 on the basis of demonstrating competencies that reflect a balanced spread over all 8 learning areas, and which have been assessed through a continuous assessment programme and an external summative assessment component;
- A learner will be promoted to Grade 10 only if he/she has satisfied the following achievement requirements:
 - At least a moderate achievement or level 3 rating in one of the Languages offered and Mathematics;
 - At least an elementary achievement or level 2 rating in the other Language; and
 - At least a moderate achievement or level 3 rating in four other Learning Areas;
- All eight Learning Areas are compulsory but awarding of the qualification will be based on the Languages, Mathematics and four other Learning Areas;
- The learner will be promoted only if he/she satisfies the requirements of both the Continuous Assessment (75%) and the External Assessment components (25%).

3.10.8 The educator's portfolio

According to the Department of Education (2008:23), an educator's portfolio is a compilation and recording of all the tasks for school-based assessment. That is, a collection of all the assessment tasks, assessment tools, recording tools, the annual programme of assessment and learning area record sheets. The next section focuses on the report of the task team for the review of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement.

3.11 STRENGTHENING CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION FROM 2010 AND BEYOND

In response to the task team for the review of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement's recommendations, the Minister of Education, Mrs Angie Motshekga released a statement on the 6th of July 2010, with the following changes to be implemented:

Table 3.9 Timeline for implementation of changes to NSC

Current	Change	Timeline for implementation
A heavy administrative workload for teachers	Reduction of recording Reduction of the number of projects for learners Removal of the requirements for portfolio files of learner assessments Discontinuation of the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTAs) for Grade 9 learners	With effect from January 2010
Learners are introduced to the First Additional Language in Grade 2	The language chosen by the learner as a Language of Learning and Teaching shall be taught as a subject at least as a First Additional Language, from Grade One. English will not replace the mother tongue or home language in the early Grades.	This will be introduced in 2011
In the General Education and Training Band, subjects have been called Learning Areas and programmes and subjects in the Further Education and Training Band.	All learning areas and programmes will be known as subjects.	This will take effect from 2011.

In the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4-6) learners have to do eight learning areas	The number of subjects in Grades 4-6 will be reduced from eight to six.	These changes will be introduced in 2012, after the necessary teacher orientation and development of appropriate text books in 2011
The place of textbooks as crucial to quality learning and teaching has deemphasised. Teachers were encouraged to prepare their own content, lesson plans and forms of assessment.	The importance of the place of textbooks in the achievement of quality learning and teaching has been re-emphasised.	Workbooks for all learners in Grade 1-6 will be distributed in 2011. A national catalogue of learning and teaching support materials from which schools can select textbooks will be developed.
The National Curriculum Statement learning areas design learning areas in terms of outcomes and assessment standards.	The National Curriculum Statement is being repackaged so that it is more accessible to teachers. Every subject in each Grade will have a single, comprehensive and concise Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) that will provide details on what content teachers ought to teach and assess on a Grade-by-Grade and subject-by-subject basis. There will be clearly delineated topics for each subject and a recommended number and type of assessments per term.	The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) will be phased in the Foundation Phase (Grade R-3) in 2011. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) will be phased into Grades 4-12 from 2012.
Assessment of learners' performance in the GET Band (Grades 1-9) has been done entirely at school level.	From 2010, there will be externally-set annual national assessments for Grade 3 and 6 learners. A pilot will be conducted this year for the Grade 9 and there will be full scale implementation in 2011.	Full scale implementation for Grades 3 and 6 in 2010. Annual National Assessment for all Grade 9 learners will be fully implemented from 2011.

The section that follows focuses on the National Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) with its critical aspects such as the aims of the South African curriculum, time allocation for each Learning Area/subject, learning and teaching support materials (LTSM), language teaching

approaches, process approaches to reading, writing and speaking as well as the overview of skills, content and strategies for Grades 4-6 in English as First Additional Language (FAL).

3.12 CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENTS (CAPS)

3.12.1 Aims of the South African Curriculum

According to the Department of Education (2010:3), the following are the general aims of the South African Curriculum:

- To ensure that learners acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their lives;
- To equip learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with knowledge, skills and values necessary for self fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;
- To provide access to higher education;
- To produce learners that are able to identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical thinking.

After analysing all the above mentioned South African Curriculum aims, one can deduce that they are informed by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as was the case with Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statement.

3.12.2 Time allocation for all learning areas/subjects

The tables below indicate how time is allocated for different subjects per week.

Table 3.10 Time allocation for Foundation Phase

Subject	Time allocation per week (hours)
Home language	6
First additional language	4 (5)

Mathematics	7
Life Skills	6
Beginning knowledge	1 (2)
Arts and Craft	2
Physical Education	2
Health Education	1

Unlike in the National Curriculum Statement, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement's time allocation indicates hours per week and distributed according to different subjects and not programmes.

Table 3.11 Time allocation for Intermediate Phase

Subject	Time allocation per week (hours)
Home language	6
First Additional Language	5
Mathematics	6
Science and Technology	3.5
Social Sciences	3
Life Skills	4
Creative Arts	1.5
Physical Education	1.5
Religious Education	1

In the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, time allocation indicates hours per week and is distributed according to different subjects.

3.12.3 Time allocation for First Additional Language in the curriculum

The table below indicates how time is allocated for First Additional Language.

Table 3.12 Time allocation for First Additional Language

Skills	Time allocation per two week cycle (hours)
Listening and Speaking	2
Reading	5
Writing	3
Language use and Structure	Language use and Structure are integrated within the time allocation of the above-mentioned skills

Thinking and reasoning skills are incorporated into the skills and strategies required for listening and speaking, and for reading and writing. In this study the researcher has compared critically and analysed the time allocations as stipulated in Curriculum 2005, National Curriculum Statement as well as in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements to determine what impact these have on teaching and learning.

3.12.4 Learning and teaching support materials (LTSM)

In order to strengthen curriculum implementation, learners are supposed to use prescribed language textbooks and dictionaries as core learning materials. Readers to be used should contain text types such as stories, drama, poetry, information texts, social texts and media texts. Learners must use media materials such as newspapers, magazines, television programmes and radio programmes. According to the Department of Education (2010:9), teachers should have the following learning and teaching support materials:

- A Curriculum Assessment Policy statement document;
- The National Language in Education Policy document;
- The prescribed language textbook used by learners and other textbooks for resource purposes in addition to the prescribed one;
- Dictionaries and reference books;
- Readers containing the recommended text types;
- A variety of media materials such as newspapers, magazines, brochures, flyers, advertisements, posters, notices, etc;
- Access to audio/visual aids to be used in the classroom;

- A teacher's resource file/book.

All the above mentioned learning and teaching support materials provided the researcher an opportunity to establish the knowledge of educators and how this facilitated curriculum implementation and improved teaching and learning.

3.12.5 Language teaching approaches in Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

Approaches to teaching language are text based, communicative and process-orientated. The text based and communicative approaches are both dependent on continuous use and production of texts. A text-based approach explores how texts work. The purpose of a text-based approach is to enable the learners to be competent, confident and critical readers, writers and viewers of texts. It involves listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. The text based approach also involves producing different kinds of texts for particular purposes and audiences.

On the other hand, a communicative approach suggests that when learning a language, a learner should have a great deal of exposure in the target language and have many opportunities to practice or produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. Language learning should be a natural, informal process carried over into the classroom where literacy skills of reading/viewing and writing/presenting are learned in a natural way. After thoroughly and critically analysing these two language teaching approaches, one can deduce that they are informed by the language learning outcomes such as listening, speaking, reading and viewing, writing, thinking and reasoning as well as language structure and use.

3.12.6 Process approaches to reading, writing and speaking

3.13.6.1 Process approach to writing

Writing and designing texts is a process which consists of the following stages: pre-writing/planning, revision, editing/proofreading as well as publishing/presenting. Learners need an opportunity to put this process into practice and they should:

- Decide on the purpose and audience of a text to be written and/or designed;
- Brainstorm ideas using, for example, mind maps, flow charts or lists;
- Consult relevant sources, select relevant information and organise ideas;
- Produce first draft, which takes into account purpose, audience, topic and text structure;
- Read drafts critically and get feedback from others;
- Edit and proofread the draft;
- Produce a neat, edited final version.

Educators are given the content and approaches in teaching writing and this was investigated to determine how this improved learners' skills of writing.

3.12.6.2 Process approach to reading

The reading process consists of pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages. The activities can be summarised as follows:

- **Pre-reading:**
 - activating prior-knowledge
 - looking at the source, author, and publication date,
 - reading the first and the last paragraphs of the section,
 - making predictions
- **Reading:**
 - Pause occasionally to check your comprehension and to let the ideas to sink in

- Compare the content to your predictions
- Keep going even if you do not understand a part here and there
- Reread a section if you get completely lost. Read confusing sections aloud, at a slower pace, or both
- Ask someone to help you understand a difficult section
- Add reading marking and annotate key points
- Reflect on what you read.

➤ **Post reading:**

- If you will need to recall specific information, make a graphic organiser or outline of key ideas and a few supporting details
- Draw conclusions
- Write a summary to help you clarify and recall main ideas
- Think about and write down new questions you have on the topic
- Assess the purpose
- Confirm your understanding of what you have read
- Evaluate what you have read, taking into account bias, accuracy and quality
- Extend your thinking- use ideas you saw in the text.

As with writing, educators are given the content and approaches in teaching reading and this was analysed to determine how it improved learners' skills of reading.

3.12.6.3 Process approach to speaking

The delivery of different forms of oral communication involves the following stages: planning and research, preparation of effective introduction, body and ending as well as presenting. As with writing and reading, educators are given the content and approaches in teaching speaking and this was investigated to determine how it improved learners' skills of speaking.

3.12.7 Overview of skills, content and strategies for Grades 4-6

Table 3.13 unpacked the various skills, contents, strategies and sub-skills in English as First Additional Language for the intermediate phase.

Table 3.13 Skills, content and strategies for Grades 4-6

Skills	Content	Strategies and sub-skills
Listening and speaking	Listening comprehension Different forms of oral communication: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conversation • Speaking: directions and instructions • Story telling • Role play • Group discussion • Oral: short speeches • Oral: prepared reading aloud • Short poems and rhymes • Language games 	Listening comprehension <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recording main and supporting ideas by making notes, checklists, summaries, retelling, explaining • Clarifying questions Communication for social purposes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiating and sustaining conversations • Turn taking conventions • Encourage use of the additional language Prepared short speeches <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research • Organise material coherently • Choose and develop main ideas and supporting ideas with examples • Correct format, vocabulary, language and conventions • Tone, voice projection, pace, eye contact, posture and gestures • Effective introduction and conclusion • Incorporate fitting visual, audio and/or audiovisual aids Prepared reading

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of tone, voice projection, pace, eye contact, posture and gestures • Pronounce words correctly
Reading	<p>Recommended text types</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stories • Drama • Poetry • Information texts • Social • Texts • Media texts <p>Reading and viewing strategies</p> <p>Summary</p> <p>Visual literacy</p> <p>Comprehension</p>	<p>Reading /viewing strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-reading, reading and post reading strategies • Introduce learners to : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Text features: titles, illustrations, graphs, charts, diagrams, headings, subheadings, numbering, captions, headlines format ○ Text structures: lists, sequential order, description, procedures, main point and supporting points, narrative sequence ○ Parts of a book: title page, table of contents, chapters, glossary, skimming of main ideas, scanning for supporting details, inferring meaning of unfamiliar words
Writing	<p>Word writing e.g. lists</p> <p>Sentence writing</p> <p>Paragraph writing</p> <p>Creative writing</p> <p>Transactional writing</p> <p>Short written speeches</p>	<p>Process writing</p> <p>Pre-writing/planning</p> <p>Drafting</p> <p>Revising, editing, proofreading and presenting.</p>

Language structure and use	Language roles: punctuation marks, pronunciation, spelling rules, dictionary use, contraction, negation, time, number Grammar Morphology Syntax Semantics Pragmatics	
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A variety of texts have been selected for each two week period from term one to term four. Length of texts is clearly stipulated for each Grade and for the four terms of the year. The teaching plan indicates the minimum content to be covered per term. Educators should design their work schedules using their textbooks to teach the content in a two-week cycle using appropriate sequence and pace. As compared to Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statement, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement stipulates the content and various strategies which the educators should teach.

3.13 SUMMARY

Chapter three presents a broad overview of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the democratic dispensation. The National Qualifications Framework and the South African Qualifications Authority are explained and their roles, objectives and functions as well as their implications on teaching and learning discussed. The aims of language in education policy and languages as subjects have been discussed in this chapter. Descriptions and detailed discussions of Outcomes-based Education together with its principles, Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statement form part of this chapter. This chapter further discussed the Outcomes-based Assessment within the National Qualifications Framework, its principles, purpose, types, forms and how it should be managed. The report of the task team for the review of the National Curriculum Statement is clearly stipulated and their recommendations as well as the strengthening of curriculum implementation from 2010 and beyond, highlighted. A detailed

description and discussion of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements including, aims of curriculum, time allocations, learning and teaching support materials, as well as language teaching approaches form part of this chapter. The ensuing chapter discusses the research methodology employed in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the democratic dispensation are informed by the South African Constitution in general and by the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) specifically. Thus in chapter three the NQF and SAQA including their functions were discussed. The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) was also discussed as this has an impact on how learners learn and how teachers teach. The background to the introduction of outcomes-based education, its key global beliefs about learning as well as its principles were highlighted and discussed. Curriculum 2005 (C2005) and its key principles such as critical outcomes, learning area outcomes, specific outcomes, range statements, assessment criteria, performance indicators, as well as its review formed part of chapter three. The structure, principles and learning programmes of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) were also discussed. Chapter three also explored outcomes-based assessment together with its principles, purposes, characteristics of continuous assessment, types of assessment and how assessment should be managed. The report of the Task Team for the review of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) as well as the strengthening of curriculum from 2010 and beyond were highlighted and discussed. Finally, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, the aims of the South African curriculum, time allocations, learning and teaching support materials and language teaching approaches were also discussed in chapter three.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss qualitative research methodology as the principal method used in this study to collect, analyse and present data. The first section of this chapter presents the discussion of qualitative research methodology in general, the role of the researcher in qualitative research methodology as well as the data collection methods in qualitative research. The last section of this chapter presents the quantitative research methodology. The qualitative research methodology was deemed appropriate for this study as it involves identification of the research questions, gathering the information to answer the questions, analysing and interpreting the information and lastly, sharing the results with the participants and all stakeholders. The ensuing

sections are the discussions of data analysis, design of the present study, choice of participants, data gathering as well as the presentation of the data. Issues of reliability and validity in the study such as reliability of design, reliability in data collection, internal validity and triangulation are discussed. Finally this chapter explores the ethical considerations of the research.

4.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Alvesson (2009:7), qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible, and these practices turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and the self. There are four major methods used by qualitative researchers, namely, observation, analysing texts and documents, interviews and focus groups, audio and video recording (Silverman 2006:18). In qualitative research, content analysis is less common, and the crucial issue is to understand the participants' categories and to see how these are used in concrete activities like telling stories (Silverman 2006:18). This can also refer to research about people's lives, stories, behaviour, but also about organisational functioning, social movements, or interactional relationships. In this study the researcher critically analyses the various teaching and learning policy documents and interviews educators in order to determine how these policies are implemented.

The term qualitative research can mean different things to different people (Strauss & Corbin 2008:17). According to Mouton and Marais (1990:155), the concept qualitative research, probably the most general, encompassing and widely accepted term, denotes that this approach concentrates on qualities of behaviour, that is, the qualitative aspects as opposed to the quantitatively measurable aspects of human behaviour. It involves becoming aware of an observed problem through willingness or a passion to see and become aware of new perspectives towards life and human activity (Webb & Glensne 1992:773). Bogdan and Biklen (2006:2) also refer to qualitative research as an umbrella term, adding that it refers to several research strategies that share certain characteristics. It can thus be deduced that qualitative research method refers to any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other empirical means of quantification.

The common aspect of qualitative research is that it interprets or reconstructs the lived experience of the subjects (Marshall & Rossman 2010:68). Leedy (2006:88) contends that the research methodology to be adopted for a particular problem must always recognise the nature of data that will be amassed in the resolution of a problem. The exploratory nature of qualitative research will, according to Mouton & Marais (1990:43), help the data collection that interests the researcher and can enable the researcher to understand events of the phenomenon as they unfold (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:2). The focus on one phenomenon allows the researcher to be immersed in the situation that is being studied (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:374). The immersion is possible when the researcher enters the world of the people he or she plans to study, gets to be known and trusted by them (Bogdan & Biklen 2006). Quality enquiry and not quantity is the literal deductive meaning from qualitative research. Thus the qualitative research method is considered to be suitable for this research project because the researcher will use it to explore the behaviour, perspectives and experiences of the people he/she interacts with.

According to Bazely (2007:2), qualitative methods are chosen in situations where a detailed understanding of a process or experience is wanted, where more information is needed to determine the exact nature of the issue being investigated, or where the only information available is in non-numeric form. Mothata, Mda and Pretorius (2000:136) describe qualitative research as a research technique used to collect and present data in the form of words rather than numbers. McMillan and Schumacher (2011:15) also indicate that qualitative research methodologies are identified as dealing with data that are principally verbal. Qualitative researchers focus on individuals' social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions. In terms of this approach data are collected by interacting with research participants in their natural settings such as schools, and there is no manipulation of variables, simulation or externally imposed structures in the situation. It involves data collection, that is, a collection of extensive data on many variables over an extended period of time in a naturalistic setting.

A qualitative research method is broadly regarded as the research instrument aimed at the contextual understanding of the phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:15). Yin (2009:15) argues that, since qualitative research approach studies human behaviour, its data is mainly verbal

in nature. De Vos (2005:20) supports this view by saying that qualitative research helps the researcher to concentrate on the qualities of human behaviour. In accordance with McMillan & Schumacher (2011:14), qualitative research presents facts in a narration with words. Thus qualitative research can be regarded as pragmatic, interpretive and grounded in the lived experiences of people (Marshall & Rossman 2010:16). The literal deductive meaning from qualitative research is that of quality enquiry and not quantity. The verbal word can be regarded as the core of qualitative research approach.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:147) contend that qualitative researchers rarely try to simplify what they observe; instead, they recognise that the issue they are studying has many dimensions and layers, hence they try to portray the issue in its multifaceted form. Mouton and Marais (1990:156) concur with the above mentioned authors by saying that qualitative research approaches are those approaches in which the procedures are not strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted. Many qualitative researchers believe that there is not necessarily a single, ultimate truth to be discovered (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:147). Instead, there may be multiple perspectives held by different individuals, with each of these perspectives having equal validity or truth (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:147). Qualitative research is defined as a multiperspective approach to social interaction, aimed at describing, making sense of, interpreting or reconstructing the interaction in terms of the meaning that the subjects attach to it (Denzin & Lincoln 2005:2). It is clear that it may be difficult to define qualitative research in a way that satisfies everybody. There is no standard approach among qualitative researchers.

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:12) state that qualitative methodology mean approaches that enable researchers to learn at first hand, about the social world they are investigating by means of involvement and participation in that world through a focus upon what individual actors say and do. Furthermore, Denscombe (2007:267) describes qualitative research as an umbrella term that covers a variety of styles of social research. Strauss and Corbin (2008:17) also concur with Bogdan and Biklen (2006) as they define qualitative research as any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of

quantification. In this study only a few educators' views will be generated and analysed to determine how they interpret and implement the various policies on teaching and learning.

Ary, Jacobs and Razaview (2009:476) refer to qualitative research as a mode of inquiry that seeks to understand human and social behaviour or problem from the insider's perspective, that is, as lived by the participants in a particular social setting. De Vos (2005:45) states that there are assumptions underlying the qualitative mode of inquiry as stipulated in the table below:

Table 4.1 Assumptions of qualitative research paradigm

Assumptions	Question	Qualitative research paradigm
Ontological assumption	What is the researcher's perceptions regarding the nature of reality or world?	Reality is subjective. It is constructed by individuals who are involved in the research situation.
Epistemological assumption	Where does the researcher stand in relation with reality or world?	Research is subjective. The researcher interacts with the researched.
Methodological assumption	How can the researcher find about the reality or world (process of research)?	An inductive logic prevails.
Rhetorical assumption	What is the language of research?	Personal and informal.

Since reality is subjective, the researcher constructs or develops knowledge from the deliberations with the educators. By interacting with the educators, the researcher determines how cultural tools such as reading, writing, mathematics and certain modes of discourse are utilised. The basis of qualitative research lies in the interpretative approach to social reality. The qualitative research approach is a unique method attempting to understand reality from a specific point of view. Researchers can thus use any kind of information they can identify to facilitate answers to their queries.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (2006:49), researchers attempt to loosen themselves from their perspectives or preconceptions of what they will find- what the people would like and what will go on in the setting. Marshall and Rossman (2010:55) regard the 'how' of the study as the research design. They further indicate that research design refers to the researcher's plan of how

to proceed to execute the research- in qualitative research the plan resembles a loose schedule. Although the most intensive period of data analysis usually occurs near the end, data analysis is an ongoing part of the research (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:50). Van Eeden and Terre Blanch (2000:134) indicate that qualitative designs focus on fostering a relationship of trust and empathy between the researcher and the research participants. In this section the researcher explains the manner in which data will be shaped.

Qualitative research focuses on meaning, experience and understanding and gives the researcher an opportunity to interact with the individuals or groups whose experiences the researcher wants to understand. A qualitative research design is therefore selected for the purpose of this study because it contains features, which enable the researcher to obtain thick descriptions and to obtain depth of information for a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. It is therefore advisable that any research design be focused on a research question. In the ensuing presentation/discussion, the rationale/significance behind the choice of qualitative research enquiry and procedures to be implemented in this study indicates its relevance to the choice of this approach.

4.2.1 Choice of qualitative methodology

Trauth (2007:4) states that the choice of qualitative methods are influenced by the research problem, the researcher's theoretical lens, the degree of uncertainty surrounding the phenomenon, the researcher's skills, and academic politics. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2011:372) qualitative research is premised more on what is a "naturalistic – phenomenological philosophy" – which believes that multiple realities are socially constructed through individual and collective definitions of the situation. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:103) state that qualitative research occurs within natural contexts and so, in this respect, it is more "true to life". Nothing is taken as mudance since everything said and done by participants has the potential of being the clue to understanding human behaviour (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:30). McMillan and Schumacher (2011:374) indicate that the qualitative researcher typically uses an emergent design - that is making decisions about the data collection strategies during the study. The setting or context is to be bound in that the information or theories emerging from data help to explain the specific

phenomenon under study. In qualitative research there is a great flexibility in both the methods and the research process. The emergent research design allows flexibility in the sense that concepts, insights and understanding are developed from patterns of data. Since qualitative research focuses on the process rather than the outcome, the qualitative researcher becomes immersed in the situation, past or present, and in the phenomenon being studied.

Qualitative research is chosen as a relevant research instrument for this study, as it will enable the researcher to explore and describe the observed phenomenon as understood by the participants from their own frame of reference (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:146). Yin (2009:5) argues that qualitative research approach investigates typical human phenomenon and tries to understand such human behaviour against natural contexts. The qualitative research process is more holistic and emergent with specific focus design, measurement instrument (e.g. interviews) and interpretations developing and possibly changing along the way of investigation (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:102). Ethnographers assume interactive social roles whereby they record observation and interviews with participants in a range of contexts (Mc Millan & Schumacher 2011:372). For these reasons the researcher enters the research field with an open mind and acknowledges that the picture will be constructed as data are collected and examined.

The most appropriate way to understand why individuals behave in a specific manner is to be closely involved in their social interactions. According to Marshall and Rossman (2010:68) qualitative research approach permits this to happen because the researcher is able to reconstruct the lived experiences of the subjects. Such results are not arrived at through statistical procedures, but through the understanding of quality human behaviour (De Vos 1998:240). Leedy (2006:88) indicates that the research methodology to be adopted for a particular problem must always recognise the nature of the data that will be amassed in the resolution of the problem. This means that the nature of the problem is the determinant of the research method to be employed, and not the other way round. When exercising a choice with regard to method, researchers often have to decide between qualitative and quantitative methods or a combination of both.

Heckroodt (2002:134) asserts that the choice of the research audience, time limitations and several other factors determine the research method. However, the problem and purpose of the intended research are the main determinants when selecting the most suitable method for constructing

knowledge. There is thus a need for exploratory research methodology, which would enable the problems to be explored and the questions to be asked to become more specific as the study progresses. For the purpose of this research, which aims to establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented by the educators in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation, qualitative research is deemed appropriate since it allows for the exploration, description and explanation of the observed process.

4.2.2 Statement of subjectivity

The purpose of a subjectivity statement is to help researchers identify how their personal features, experiences, beliefs, cultural standpoints, and professional predispositions may affect their research, and to convey this material to other scholars for their consideration of the study's credibility, authenticity, and overall quality or validity (www.sage-ereference.com). In this study the researcher is a former principal of a school and senior education specialist in the Department of Education, responsible for facilitating the implementation of Curriculum 2005 and later the National Curriculum Statement. This task places the researcher in the privileged position of knowing some participants in a professional capacity and therefore accessing schools was not a serious challenge. This also enhanced the interaction with the participants in an unobtrusive and non-threatening manner.

Bogdan and Biklen (2006:46) are of the opinion that the researcher's primary goal is to add to knowledge, not to pass judgement on a setting. The researcher consciously guarded against the danger of having preconceived ideas regarding education policies on teaching and learning and allowed the participants the opportunity and time to raise issues, ideas, express thoughts and feelings during the course of all interviews. The researcher's knowledge of teaching and learning policies enabled him to pose pertinent questions.

Marshall and Rossman (2010:145) indicate that a qualitative research proposal should respond to concerns that the natural subjectivity of the researcher will shape the research. Bogdan and Biklen (2006:46) state that what qualitative researchers attempt to do is to study objectively the subjective status of their subjects. The researcher is mindful of the fact that he should gain some

understanding and empathy for the research participants in order to gain entry into their world. The success of qualitative research depends on the willingness of the participants to participate. Thus the researcher has to gain the trust and confidence of the participants. Trust should be developed before people are willing to release certain kinds of information.

4.3 THE ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It is important to explain the role of the researcher so that he/she understands his/her role clearly. Qualitative researchers believe that the researcher's ability to interpret and make sense of what he or she sees is critical for an understanding of any social phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:147). Thus, the researcher is an instrument in much the same way that a sociogram, rating scale, or intelligence test is an instrument (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:147). Qualitative scholars believe in the importance of data collected by a skilled and prepared person in contrast to an instrument (Strauss & Corbin 2008:17). Hence, qualification inquiry is marked by disciplined subjectivity, self examination and criticism of the quality of data obtained (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:375). Skills are needed for interviewing such as showing understanding of and empathy with the interviewee, active listening, explicating, checking and identifying. The researcher should collaborate with the participants in a professional manner in order to acquire the required information.

According to Denscombe (2007:273), the researcher in a qualitative study is data gathering instrument. The researcher will talk to educators in schools, observe their activities, read their documents and written records and record this information in field notes or journals. It is the duty of the qualitative researcher to establish good relationships with participants so that they feel free to communicate their experiences. The researcher must strive to build a relationship of reciprocal trust and rapport with his or subjects. The quality of the data depends on this rapport in so far as it increases the likelihood of participants sharing authentic knowledge of their life world.

According to (Fink 2000:19) the research process can be split into seven stages, namely:

- **Thematising:** to answer the question of what is going to be studied, why this is going to be studied, and how this is going to be studied.
- **Designing:** this constitutes the step where methodological procedure is planned and prepared, that is, what is the time schedule and how do the different steps interrelate.
- **Interviewing:** interviews are structured according to an interview guide which outlines themes to be covered during the interview.
- **Transcribing:** transcriptions of recordings. Transcripts are not copies or representations of some original reality, they are interpretative constructions that are useful tools for given purposes. Transcripts are decontextualised conversations, they are abstractions.
- **Analysing:** coding refers to the first part of the analysis that concerns the naming and categorising of phenomena through close examination of data. Both by coding and analysing data the researcher uses his personal knowledge and experiences as tools to make sense of the material.
- **Verifying:** this concerns the generalisability, the reliability and the validity of findings.
- **Reporting:** the researcher writes a report to present his/her findings.

In this study various themes were categorised and the researcher was guided by the interview guide in order to gather data, interpret and analyse the views of the educators, verify and report the findings. The researcher is an instrument in qualitative research; he interacts and collaborates with the participants and gathers data by himself. The researcher also assumes the role of interviewer and has a professional relationship with the participants. Thus data are generated from the participants' professional responses.

According to Bergh and Van Wyk (1997:54) the researcher comprises the key research instrument in qualitative research, collecting and analysing the data obtained from the natural setting of the participants with a view to improving or contributing to reform, in this case the world of education. Furthermore, Lemmer (1989:133) explains that the researcher should maintain a certain detachment from the participants, so that after having completed the construction of the participants' reality, the researcher transcend this view to see what they do not see in an attitude of critical awareness, yet refraining from passing any judgement The researcher's own actions are as

much a part of the study design as the research instrument used. The researcher should be alert and sensitive to what happens in the field and to be disciplined about recording of the data.

The term researcher's role refers to the relationship acquired by and ascribed to the researcher in interactive data collection (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:415). In qualitative studies, the researcher is the instrument because of his or involvement in the lives of the participants invited to be part of the study, which is fundamental to the paradigm (Marshall & Rossman 2010:79). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:102) support this view by stating that qualitative researchers are often described as research instruments because the bulk of their data collection is depended on their personal involvement, e.g. interviews and observations, in the setting. According to Neuman (2009:357), the approach of observer as participant refers to a situation where the researcher is known from the beginning but has limited contact and allows the participants to relate to each other naturally. Emphasis falls primarily on observing rather than participating. Participant observation offers possibilities for the researcher on a continuous basis, from being a complete outsider, to being a complete insider (Creswell 2009:123). During this investigation the researcher as the research instrument collected, recorded, analysed and ultimately interpreted the data obtained from the real world of the participants with the sole purpose of trying to understand their behaviour from their frame of reference. The researcher's role in this investigation was that of an observer-participant. In this study the researcher occasionally participated in the study by giving advice and guidelines in terms of the policies on teaching and learning.

Shaffir and Stebbins (1991:22) feel that in order to understand the interactive process, qualitative researchers need to undergo a learning process whereby they acquire an understanding of the interactive processes that shape human behaviour. Thus the researcher acknowledges the immersion in the situation and the phenomenon that is being studied (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:374). The role of the researcher as the research instrument also involves posturing or taking a stance by the researcher (Wolcott 1995:14). This posturing happens through active listening and focussing on the problem under investigation (Woods 1992:72). The researcher enters the world of the people he or she plans to study, gets to be known and trusted by them (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:3). During the research process the researcher assumes an interactive social role through the recording of observations and personal reflections on the setting.

According to Neuman (2009:354) the researcher is the instrument for measuring field data. This has two implications, first, it puts pressure on the researcher to be alert and sensitive to what happens in the field, second, it has personal consequences. Fieldwork involves social relationships and personal feelings (Neuman (2009:354). In qualitative research the role of the researcher as the primary data collection instrument necessitates the identification of personal values, assumptions and biases at the outset of the study (Creswell 2009:163). According to Walliman (2011:241), the researcher should avoid leading questions, excessive guidance and other factors which may cause distortion. The researcher collaborates with the participants in a professional manner in order to acquire the required information. The researcher should be a curious learner who comes to learn from and with the participants. He or she should not go to the field as an expert or a figure of authority.

It is, however, necessary to acknowledge that although the researcher attempts to work with scientific appraisal and objectivity, he or she is nevertheless a person with values, beliefs, interpreting what is seen and heard, being neither too involved nor too distant, yet never manipulating truth in order to serve the quest of authenticity (Woods 1992:73). Therefore, the researcher as the research instrument should be subjected to disciplined subjectivity, self-examination and criticism of the data obtained (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:375). The researcher should also reciprocate the same behaviour of trust towards the participants. This establishes and maintains rapport between the researcher and the participants. The likelihood of both the researcher and the participants mutually sharing their life-world experiences is increased. These relationships would encourage the participants to view their opinions with ease.

According to Polkinghorne (2006:135) researchers using qualitative methods gather data that serve as evidence for their distilled descriptions. Onuegbuzie (2010:708) indicates that interviews can assist the researcher in delving deeper into the participants' stories, thereby providing data regarding the participants' level of change in awareness. The interactions that occur among the participants can yield important data, can create the possibility for more spontaneous responses, and can provide a setting where the participants can discuss personal problems and provide solutions (Dickinson & Leech 2009:75). Qualitative data are gathered primarily in the form of

spoken or written language rather than in the form of numbers. The data are usually transformed into written text for analytic use.

Patton (2002:121) distinguishes between an interview guide and an interview schedule, that is, an interview schedule consists of a detailed set of questions and probes organised into a useful sequence while an interview guide consists of an organised series of broad topics or open-ended interview questions which the researcher is free to explore and probe. Interview schedules and guides will be used to capture both contextual and perspectival data. Taylor and Vinjevoll (1999:90) state that perspectival data refers to the view of the observer: by definition, such information is highly dependent on the interpretation of the observer. The culminating activities of qualitative inquiry are analysis, interpretation and presentation of the findings (Patton 2002:371). In this study data was collected by means of interviews (both individual and focus group), observation and documents. The purpose of the focus group interviews was to establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented in South African schools in the democratic dispensation. The researcher obtained permission from the participants to record the interviews on tape. These were transcribed and later analysed for common themes or results. In essence, an interview schedule was comprised of many carefully constructed questions, follow-up questions or probes, and possibly other relevant information for the interviewer. The interview schedule was used to assist the researcher in covering a number of important issues with each of the focus group.

4.4 SAMPLING AND POPULATION

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2011:401), qualitative research uses small samples of people nested in their context and studied in depth. Hoberg (1999:58) states that generally in qualitative research a small distinct group of participants will be investigated to enable the researcher to understand the problem in depth. To this effect, Neuman (2009:376) maintains that since the researchers are privileged to access intimate information from subjects, they therefore have a moral obligation to uphold confidential information, which may include disguising members' names or their places in the field notes. In this study a meeting with the principals of the selected schools was held, they were requested to arrange staff meetings in their schools and to

invite the researcher to explain the purpose and benefits of the research. Thus, the researcher informed the participants about the purpose of the research: to establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented by educators in South African schools in the democratic dispensation and how critical discourse analysis as a framework would be used.

This deliberate selection which Patton (2002:169) refers to as purposeful sampling, is a process of selecting information rich cases for study-in-depth of the topic under investigation. In this study the participants are seen as individuals who “possess special knowledge, status or communication skills” and who are willing to share this with the interviewer (Le Compte & Preissle 1993:166). As the researcher was familiar with the officials of the Department of Education, principals of schools, HOD’s and educators, it was unnecessary to make use of a gate-keeper. The focus groups included principals (5), Grade 4 educators, Grade 6 educators and HOD’s (5). These key-informants were selected based on the researcher’s knowledge of the selected district. More details on these participants are given in chapter five of this study. Schools selected were situated in different areas, namely, informal settlement, township, farm and urban areas. The informants were selected on the basis of a set of criteria outlined below. They should:

- have at least 10 years teaching experience to ensure that they are familiar with the various policies on teaching and learning;
- be fully qualified educators;
- be willing and capable of providing valuable information for the research to proceed;
- represent various areas as described in the context of the research;
- be teaching English as First Additional Language in the intermediate phase.

The researcher secured permission from the Gauteng Department of Education as well as the schools concerned.

4.4.1 Schools’ profiles

School A

Area: The school is situated in the Dinokeng tsa Taemane municipality.

LoLT: English and Afrikaans.

Number of educators: Two for Grade four and two for Grade six.

Number of learners: 47 Grade four and 61 Grade six.

Number of SMT members: Three.

Learners' home languages: Sepedi, IsiNdebele, Afrikaans and English.

School B

Area: The school is situated in the Dinokeng tsa Taemane municipality.

LoLT: English.

Number of educators: Two for Grade four and two for Grade six.

Number of learners: 160 Grade four and 193 Grade six.

Number of SMT members: Three.

Learners' home languages: Sepedi and IsiNdebele.

School C

Area: The school is situated in the township of Refiloe (Cullinan) in the Dinokeng tsa Taemane municipality. Most learners are from the surrounding informal settlement.

LoLT: English.

Number of educators: Two for Grade four and two for Grade six.

Number of learners: 140 Grade four and 153 Grade six.

Number of SMT members: Three.

Learners' home languages: Sepedi and IsiNdebele.

School D

Area: The school is situated on a farm in the Dinokeng tsa Taemane municipality.

LoLT: English.

Number of educators: Two for Grade four and two for Grade six.

Number of learners: 81 Grade four and 147 Grade six.

Number of SMT members: Three.

Learners' home languages: Sepedi, IsiNdebele and Afrikaans.

School E

Area: The school is situated on a farm in the Dinokeng tsa Taemane municipality.

LoLT: English.

Number of educators: Two for Grade four and two for Grade six.

Number of learners: 30 Grade four and 34 Grade six.

Number of SMT members: Nil.

Learners' home languages: Sepedi and IsiNdebele.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

A variety of data collection techniques can be used in qualitative research. The most commonly used are observation and focus group interviews (De Vos 2005:339). Both observation and focus group interviews will be discussed as data collection techniques relevant to this study. Collection of data is not merely a process of collection, but also a process of creation. Data in qualitative research are present in vast varieties of forms such as field notes, observations and interviews to a range of records and documents

4.5.1 Participant observation

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2011:43), ethnographic observation has the distinctive feature of observing phenomena in naturally occurring situations over an extended period and the writing of extensive field notes to describe what happened. Observation methods provide researchers ways to check for nonverbal expression of feelings, determines who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other, and check for how much time spent on various activities (Kawulich 2005:3). In participant observation the researcher enters the world of the people he or she plans to study, gets to know, be known and trusted by them and systematically keeps a detailed written record of what is heard and observed (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:2). It is the researcher's aim to observe events while causing as little disruption as possible in the social situation. Developing trust and establishing relationships are a critical part of a researcher's involvement in the social scene.

Strydom (2002:280) views participant observation as a typical data collection technique in qualitative approach because data cannot be reduced to figures. Observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours and artefacts in the social setting chosen for the study (Marshall & Rossman 2010:107). This method is regarded as both an overall approach to qualitative inquiry and on data gathering instrument. The researcher does not collect data to answer a specific hypothesis, rather explanations are inductively derived from the notes.

Instead, the development of a comprehensive and holistic view of a particular group can take time- anything from a few months to years (Schurink 1998:279). Observations can range highly structured and detailed notation of behaviour guided by checklists to more holistic descriptions of events and behaviours (Marshall & Rossman 2010:107). The range is from a complete observe (where a researcher is behind a one-way mirror or taking on an invisible role such as an eavesdropping janitor), to observer as participant (where a researcher is known from the beginning but has limited contact), to participant as observer (where a researcher is overt and is an intimate friend of participants), and finally to complete participant (Neuman 2009:357). The researcher can assume different field roles that can be arranged on a continuum, while observing, that is, at one extreme are roles of a detached outsider while at the other extreme are roles of an involved insider.

According to Kawulich (2005:3) participant observation is the process enabling researchers to learn about activities of the people under study in the natural setting through observing and participating in those activities. Participant observation is also useful for gaining an understanding of the physical, social, cultural and economic contexts in which study participants live, the relationships among the people, contexts, ideas, norms, events and people's behaviours and activities- what they do, how frequently and with whom. Through participant observation, researchers can also uncover factors important for a thorough understanding of the research problem but that were unknown when the study was designed.

However, none of the observer roles are perfect. Each has advantages and disadvantages. In participant observation the researcher studies an organisation or a group by becoming a part of the organisation or group. This involvement can either be open or disguised, that is, sometimes the

researcher openly becomes associated with the group for the purpose of studying the group and sometimes the researcher hides the true reasons of involvement. The choice of whether to select open or disguised participation depends upon the situation. By being a participant denotes some form of active involvement. By becoming part of the group, the researcher learns to see the world from the perspective of the group.

4.5.2 Focus group interviews

According to Rabiee (2004:1) the main aim of focus group interviews is to understand and explain the meanings, beliefs and cultures that influence the feelings, attitudes and behaviours of individuals. Participants are selected on the criteria that they would have something to say on the topic, are within the age-range, have similar socio-characteristics and would be comfortable talking to the interviewer and each other (Rabiee 2004:1). Brotherson (2007:6) indicates that focus group interviewing assists in understanding both the anticipated and unanticipated consequences of early intervention and interpreting the complexities of systems, disciplines, and agencies. A focus group is a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interests in a permissive, non-threatening environment.

Strydom (2002:431) gives the following description of a focus group: a focus is used when small selected group of 8-12 members is drawn together to apply their knowledge, experience and expertise to specific problem. Krueger and Casey (2009:133) define the focus group as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive and non-threatening environment. Morgan (2007:6) describes the focus group as a group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. Participants are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group- which is focused in that it involves some kind of collective activity where a researcher creates a tolerant environment that encourages participants to share perceptions, viewpoints, experiences, wishes and concerns without being pressurised (Strydom 2002:305). The group should be homogenous and should focus on the area of concern. In-depth probing should take place and quality solutions must be gained. Structured participation in the process is of major importance. Typical of focus group interviews, an opportunity is created for the researcher to understand how people feel or think

about an issue, product or service. More than one focus group might be used to enhance the quality of the results.

Marshall and Rossman (2010:114) assert that the method of interviewing participants in focus groups comes largely from marketing research but has been widely adapted to the social sciences and applied research. May (1997:112) indicates that focus group interview is a way of gathering qualitative data by asking respondents specific questions concerning social processes or behaviours of interest. Utilisation of focus group as data collection method can be classified as a form of interviewing, but in view of its distinctiveness some authors prefer to classify it as a separate method though in essence it is an open group discussion between specifically selected persons under the leadership of a group leader who is preferably trained in handling dynamics (Fouche' & De Vos 1998:90). This research tool may be employed as part of a participant observation study, as part of a case study, by itself.

According to Denscombe (2007:169), focus group interviews are used to elicit data from a small group of people on a specific topic or theme. Walliman (2011:238) indicates that face to face interviews can be carried out in a variety of situations- in the home, at work, outdoors or while travelling. Focus groups are generally regarded as a useful way of exploring attitudes on non-sensitive, non-controversial topics. They can elicit contributions from interviewees who might otherwise be reluctant to contribute and, through their relatively informal interchanges, focus groups can lead to insights that might not otherwise have come to light through the one-to-one conventional interviews. The researcher identified groups of five educators per research field who participated in the interviews for thirty minutes to one hour. The interviewer was in good position to be able to judge the quality of the responses of the subjects, to notice if the question has not been properly understood, and to reassure and encourage the respondent to be full in his or her answers. Visual signs such as nods, smiles and others are valuable tools in promoting complete responses.

Unlike a structured or semi-structured interview, in which respondents must answer closed-ended questions by choosing one of several predetermined responses, a focus group interview is an open-ended approach, that is, the respondent is free to answer the questions in his or her own

words, either briefly or at length, but more importantly the respondent think reflectively. For any particular social issue being researched, the topics covered in a focused group interview may vary from interview to interview (Spindler 1992:80). Although the researcher worked out the particular topics in advance in this study, the particular topics raised in the questions and the questions were not written down in a formal questionnaire. A focus group interview is much freer in form than any survey interview.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2011:433), focus group interview is a strategy for obtaining a better understanding of a problem or an assessment of a problem and concerning a new product or idea by interviewing a purposefully sampled group of people rather than each person individually. Bogdan and Biklen (2006:44) indicate that focus group interviews are a useful way of getting insights about what to pursue in individual interviews. In addition, McMillan and Schumacher (2011:453) state that by creating a social environment in which group members are stimulated by the perceptions and ideas of each other, one can increase the quality and richness of data through a more efficient strategy than one-on-one interviewing. In this study the researcher conducted focus group interviews with five educators from a school situated in the informal settlement, one focus group interview with educators from a school in the township and one focus group interview with educators from former model C schools respectively. The interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of the participants and conducted in English.

4.5.2.1 Rationale for using focus group interviews

Focus group interviews build on the notion that the group interaction encourages respondents to explore and clarify individual and shared perspectives (Tong, Sainsbury & Craig 2007:3). They depend on dynamic interaction to provide the information sought (McLafferty 2006:2). Strydom (2002:307) states that focus groups draw on three of the fundamental strengths, namely, exploratory and discovery, context and depth interpretation. When participants are stimulated to discuss, the group dynamics can generate new thinking about the topic which will result in a much more in-depth discussion. It provides rich data through direct interaction between researcher and participants. People are able to build on others' responses and come up with ideas they might not have thought of in a one on one interview. They are very cost effective in terms of gathering

primary data and are time efficient. However, it is sometimes difficult to have the participants share their real feelings towards some sensitive topics publicly, this can in turn influence the output data.

According to McLafferty (2006:1) the main advantages of focus group interviews is the purposeful use of intervention in order to generate data, they provide major insights into attitudes, beliefs and opinions, and they are particularly useful for reflecting the social realities of a cultural group, through direct access to the language and concepts which structure participants' experiences. Krueger and Casey (2009:21) indicate that focus groups can be used to provide information to decision- makers about opportunities at three different times: before, during or after the programme or service provided. Morgan (2007:2) advances three basic uses of focus group interviews, namely, where they are used as a self-contained method in studies where they serve as the principal source data, where they are used as supplementary source data in studies that rely on some other primary method, such as survey, and they are used in multi-method studies that combine two or more means of gathering data. The research method allows the researcher to explore reality and to discover what reality means for the participants from their own frame of reference. The researcher is able to understand the context or the world of existence from the perspective of the participants and can actually use the words or terminology as used by the participants themselves. For the purpose of this study the use of focus group interviews was deemed relevant as it provided a learning experience for participants and ensured evaluation of such experiences.

4.5.2.2 Characteristics of focus group interviews

In the course of interviewing the participants as well as data gathering and analysis, the researcher would take the following distinctive features of focus group interviews as guidelines:

Qualitative data

Focus groups generate qualitative data in the form of words, categories, themes and expressions that are used by the participants themselves (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:96). The epic data are to

greater or lesser extent used together with the etic data- scientific concepts used by the researcher to gain insight into the world of the group members (Schurink 1998:316). In the focus group set-up the researcher serves several roles or functions like moderating or facilitating, listening, observing and eventually analysing (Krueger & Casey 2009:17). Focus groups present a more natural environment of data than that of individual interviews because participants are influencing and are being influenced by others, just like they are in a real life situation (Schurink 1998:316). They produce quality data that provide insights into the attitudes, perceptions and opinions of the participants. During the analysis the researcher used the inductive approach which derives understanding based on the discussion with the participants as opposed to testing or confirming a preconceived hypothesis or theory.

A data collection procedure

According to Fuller (2006:195) it is important that all steps are well planned long in advance to avoid problems that may jeopardise the whole study. Hillbel (2007:55) states that data collection procedure involves a lot of decisions, including when to collect data, how to treat absentees, how to contact schools chosen for sample, what information to provide teachers, etc. The purpose of focus groups differs from other groups' interactions – focus group interviews generate data concerning the perceptions of people and consumers regarding phenomena, products and service (Krueger & Casey (2009:16). Thus focus groups are not intended to develop consensus to arrive at an agreeable plan or to make decisions about which course of action to take. Focus groups produce data of interest to researchers.

A small group of people

Krueger and Casey (2009:16) indicate that traditionally focus groups have been composed of people who do not know each other and more recently the researchers are questioning the necessity and practicability of this guideline, especially in community-based studies. Too big a group is likely to be fragmented because there is not sufficient pause in the conversation. Thus, focus group interviews should be small enough for all the participants to have the opportunity to share insights. To counteract observation effects and to maximise the validity of findings

generated by focus group interviews. The researcher selected people who are similar in terms of experience, but avoided close friends, family members and relatives for focus groups because this kind of familiarity presents special difficulties during interviews. Focus groups are typically composed of six to ten people.

A focused discussion

Typical of the questions of focus group interviews they appear spontaneous while they are actually carefully developed after considerable reflection (Schurink 1998:314). Krueger and Casey (2009:16) indicate that unlike conversations among members of any group, which might wonder over many issues, discussions of focus groups have focuses and clear agendas. The analyses include an in-depth study of an event, experience or topic in order to describe the context of the experience and the components of the experience (Krueger & Casey 2009:19). Topics of discussions in a focus group are carefully predetermined and sequenced in an understandable and logical manner based on analyses of the situation. Participants in focus group interviews need not reach consensus. The emphasis is on finding as much as possible about the experiences and feelings of the participants concerning a specific aspect of social reality, such as an event, product or service. Thus focus group interviews are designed to do exactly what the name implies, that is, to focus.

Conducted in series

Focus group interviews are conducted in series. This will help to control various observation effects or nuisance variables that can threaten the validity of research findings reached by employing focus group interviews (Schurink (1998:314). Krueger and Casey (2009:19) state that focus groups may be influenced by internal or external factors that may cause one of the groups to yield extraordinary results. Krueger and Casey (2009:16) further indicate that other typical observation effects include a dominant, demanding participant who may unduly sway or inhibit other participants; a community occurrence or emergence, which may divert attention from the topic of discussion or an incendiary comment from a group member, which might provoke

disruption. Thus, multiple groups with similar participants are needed to detect patterns and trends across groups.

4.5.2.3 Advantages of focus group interviews

According to Schurink (1998:324), the following are some of the advantages of focus group interviews:

- Focus group interviews are socially oriented. This means that focus groups are special kinds of groups in that people are acknowledged as social beings influencing each other in their natural interactions.
- Focus group interviews allow probing by the facilitator – focus group discussions allow the moderator to probe the participants. This flexibility to explore unanticipated issues is not possible within the more structured questioning sequences typical of mailed-out surveys.
- Focus group interviews save time and money – focus group interviews can be conducted at a relatively modest cost and in a relatively brief time.
- Focus group interviews have high face validity. This means that the technique is easily understood and results seem believable to those using the information. Results are not presented in complicated statistical charts but rather in lay terminology embedded with quotations from group participants.
- Focus group interviews can provide speedy results. In emergency situations, skilled facilitators have been able to conduct three to four discussions, analyse the results and prepare a report in less than a week.
- Focus group discussions enable the researcher to increase the sample size of qualitative studies.

Qualitative studies typically have limited sample sizes because of the time and cost constraints of individual interviewing. They enable the researcher to increase the sample size without dramatic increases in the time required of the interviewer. They also add to the understanding and interpretation of a specific phenomenon and can be a source of validation for data gained by

means of other qualitative research methods. Even though focus groups are so important and appropriate in certain contexts as data-gathering technique, they are not inherently superior to any other method (Krueger & Casey 2009:51). It cannot be over-emphasised that each method has its own flaws. It should be noted here that the key word is relative science; a series of focus group discussions might not be of low cost as such. The ensuing section gives a brief exposition of some weaknesses of focus group interviews.

4.5.2.4 Disadvantages of focus group interviews

This section does not aim to set out all the disadvantages of focus group interviews but only to highlight the disadvantages relevant to this study project. Krueger and Casey (2009:21) state that data generated by focus group interviews might be relatively difficult to analyse because of the comments of participants, which must be interpreted within a constructed social setting. This kind of a situation might lead to focus group interviews being criticised as biased and subjective. Morgan (2007:2) argues that focus group interviews may require moderators who are trained to understand the group dynamics and how to conduct interviews. It should also be noted that information acquired by using focus group interviews cannot be generalised to other groups who were not part of the project (Krueger & Casey 2009:20). This is so because focus groups are composed of a small sample of people, hence the data does not produce typical information applicable to the whole universe under study. This study however does not aim to generate data that will be generalised, but intends to avail data that will highlight issues and concerns in the implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African Schools.

According to Krueger and Casey (2009:20), strategies and techniques necessary for conducting such interviews are not readily available and in order to balance idiosyncrasies of different focus groups, proponents of focus group interviews recommend that enough groups be included in the research project. Each focus group tends to have unique characteristics because of inherent differences in people. It is important to mention that focus group interviews must be ideally conducted in a natural setting. This implies that interviews must be as far as possible be conducted in an environment which optimally facilitates conversations (Krueger & Casey 2009:17). This set-up more often than not presents logistical problems. Like observations, the use of focus group

interviews cannot give conclusive results. When combined with participant observation focus groups are especially useful for gaining access, focussing site selection and sampling and even for checking tentative conclusions (Morgan 2007:25). All data collection techniques are complementary and supplementary in nature. To conclude this statement, it is necessary to emphasise that in this study all interviews were taped and then transcribed.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Bazeley (2009:3) there are various strategies and stages of data analysis such as organising data, pulling apart (discovery and coding), putting together (reconstructing, interpreting and theorising), writing and assessing the quality of data. Organising data includes many aspects, namely, gathering together and organising, making of working copies of the whole set, filing away one whole set to save as clean copies, revisiting own positioning, revisiting purpose and research question, listing theoretical questions and listing specific questions. Pulling together involves reading the entire data set several times, checking on what stands out, trying a key word process, listing possible codes, ideas and hunches, giving each coding segment an abbreviation for easy use during subsequent analysis, broadly assigning portions of the data to codes, and checking on what is left uncoded. Putting together includes typologies, data tables, matrices, displays, timelines, card sorts, determining how emerging patterns relate to one another, developing concepts and theoretical propositions grounded in the data, creating metaphors for thinking about the data, creating visuals to represent relationships as well as reading literature again. Writing strategy involves memos to explain categories, summaries of interviews, context description and participant description. Silverman (2006:7) state that in assessing the quality of data the researcher should check whether the data was solid or unsolid, consider observer's influence on setting, whether there are multiple sources of data and whether the data are rich with detail and description.

There are many different styles of qualitative research hence there are a variety of ways of handling and analysing data (De Vos 2005:17). McMillan and Schumacher (2011:375) indicate that qualitative research approach analyses data by extracting themes. Analysis involves working with data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, synthesising them, searching for

patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what you will tell others (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:157). Data analysis requires that the researcher be open to possibilities and to seeing contrary or alternative explanations for the findings (Creswell 2009:153). Thus data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials that one has accumulated to increase one's understanding of them and to enable one to present what one has discovered to others. Data analysis requires that the researcher be comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons and constructs.

Marshall and Rossman (2010:166) content that data collection and data analysis must be simultaneous process in qualitative research. The main task in data analysis is to make sense of the amount of data collected by reducing the volume of information, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveals (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:376). Bazeley (2009:5) indicates that data analysis approaches must always be chosen to match the questions being posed, and must be appropriate to the assumptions in place. Creswell (2009:154) goes on to support the concept of displays of information: a spatial format that presents information systematically to the reader. These displays of information show the relationship among the categories of information, displaying categories by informants, site, demographic variables, chronology of information, role ordering and many other possibilities.

The researcher does not assume that enough is known before undertaking the study (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:31). Marshall and Rossman (2010:147) assert that the researcher should demonstrate that techniques for recording observation, interactions and interviews will not intrude excessively in the ongoing flow of daily events. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:17) describe inductive reasoning as an approach whereby researchers make specific observations and then draw inferences about larger and more general phenomena. Qualitative research uses an inductive form of reasoning in that it develops concepts, insights and understanding from patterns in the data (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:373). In qualitative research data are analysed inductively. Inductive analysis as a qualitative research approach entails that concepts, insights and understanding are developed

from data patterns rather than collecting data to access preconceived models, hypotheses or theories.

Marshall and Rossman (2010:113) stress that data analysis is the process of order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. They are of the opinion that six steps for qualitative data analysis may be formalised, namely:

Step 1: Reads data notes with serious concentration to details.

Step 2: Mentally repackages details into organising ideas.

Step 3: Constructs new ideas from notes on subjective meanings or from the researcher's organising ideas.

Step 4: Looks for relationships among ideas and put them into sets on the basis of logical similarities.

Step 5: Organises them into larger groups by comparing and contrasting the sets of ideas.

Step 6: Reorganises and links the groups together with broader integrating themes.

Data analysis for qualitative research is an interactive process. In this study the researcher's data analysis started immediately after the first data were collected and proceeds simultaneously with data collection.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (2006:30) since there is nothing trivial in qualitative data collection and analysis, the researcher approaches the life-world of participants in a nit-picking way. Marshall and Rossman (2010:150) view data analysis as a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming yet creative and fascinating process because it does not proceed in a linear fashion. Everything said and done by the participants, including their setting or surrounding is important for understanding individuals. Hence in qualitative research there are no fixed steps that must be followed and it cannot be exactly replicated (Schurink 1998:242). Patton (2002:40) argues that the

detailed thick descriptions, using direct quotations to capture people's personal perspectives and experiences should be used in qualitative research method when analysing and interpreting data. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:102) view the work of qualitative researchers as exploratory in nature because they use their observation to build theory from the ground up. Qualitative researchers seek a better understanding of complex situations. In this study the interactive form of the research design, observation and focus group interviews lends itself to inductive reasoning.

Qualitative researchers are concerned with making sure that they capture perspectives accurately and are interested in the ways different people make sense out of their lives (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:32). Maykut and Morehouse (1994:123) indicate that the analysis procedure involves the reading and re-reading of the field notes and interview transcripts. As the data emerges, relevant extracts of the text are then grouped under the themes, which are subsequently grouped into categories to provide systemic meaning (Hatch 2002:148). Extracts from the raw data will be selected and either paraphrased or quoted to illustrate the patterns. This implies that meaning attributed by participants is of major importance during data analysis, which may even include the assumptions people make about their lives and what they take for granted. In this study qualitative data consisted of field notes and transcripts of focus group interviews. Significant words, sentences and paragraphs or phrases were underlined and grouped under suitable headings. From the above exposition, it is clear that the data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing process. It demands of the researcher to be skilful, analytical, creative and understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Findings of the study have been set out in chapter five of this study.

According to De Klerk (1998:30) a qualitative study allows conclusions to be drawn on the basis of personal observation as well as consideration and evaluation of data without an interpretation of purely empirical data. Marshall and Rossman (2010:98) indicate that content analysis involves the systematic examination of the contents of research data to record the relative incidence (frequencies) of themes and the ways in which these themes are portrayed. It is used to examine information or content, or symbolic material such as words, ideas, themes and pictures or any message that can be communicated. Data analysis clearly defines the phenomenon to be analysed

and the research question should inform this process. The strength of content analysis involves random sampling, precise measurement and operational definitions of abstract constructs.

According to Hoberg (1999:131) qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organising the data into categories and identifying patterns among the categories. Marshall and Rossman (2010:113) indicate that reading and reading once more through the data forces the researcher to become familiar with those in intimate ways. Coding is a systematic way of developing and refining interpretation of data. In this study the researcher read the transcripts and the notes repeatedly in order to gain familiarity with them. The researcher also listened to all recordings of the interviews at the same time confirming the accuracy of the transcripts.

In this study throughout the data analysis process the data were coded using as many categories as possible. The purpose is to identify and describe patterns and themes from the perspective of the participants and an attempt be made to understand and explain these patterns and themes. During data analysis the data were organised categorically and coded and the responses were correlated with the prominent and emerging views identified in the literature survey. This process involves grouping of information, coding information of similar kind and genre and describing the information by inductive reasoning. After the major topics and subtopics that emerge from interviews and document analyses had been identified, the data collected were arranged and categorised according to topics and subtopics. From these, categories and patterns that evolve were identified, labelled and interpreted.

Bazeley (2009:2) indicates that once data are gathered, reading and interpretation are the starting points for meaningful analysis. Qualitative researcher must engage in active and demanding analytic process throughout all phases of the research because understanding these processes is an important aspect not only of doing qualitative research, but also of reading, understanding and interpreting it (Thorne 2004:1). Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:2) state that the steps in analysing data are, to get to know your data, focus the analysis and categorising information. Qualitative analysis requires some creativity, for the challenge is to place raw data into logical, meaningful categories, to examine them in a holistic fashion, and to find a way to communicate this interpretation to others. Field notes and other materials that the researcher accumulates during

data collection are used in order to increase his/her understanding of the phenomenon and ultimately to be able to present what have been discovered to others.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (2006:150), data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts. Culminating activities of qualitative inquiry are analysis, interpretation and presentation of the findings (Patton 2002:371). Marshall and Rossman (2010:147) indicate that data analysis is actually about how data are recovered, managed and organised to ensure orderliness and to facilitate easy retrieval. Strauss and Corbin (2008:59) argue that data collection and data analysis are tightly interwoven processes, and must occur alternatively because the analysis directs the sampling of data. Even though there are a variety of ways of handling data analysis, the approach to be adopted in this study is that of ongoing and rigorous data analysis (Bogden & Biklen 2006:158). The process of data analysis is not an end in itself. In analysing the data the researcher will formulate potential explanations and search for potential patterns through close reading and rereading of data throughout the analysis process. In this study direct quotations from the participants were used to provide the richness of the descriptive data.

Hatch (2002:56) refined and listed the following steps of data analysis in the form of guidelines to enable the researcher to make sense of what kind of information should be included in the data analysis section:

- Identify topic areas to be analysed.
- Read the data, marking entries related to the topic.
- Read entries by topic, recording main ideas in entries on a summary sheet.
- Look for patterns, categories and relationships within topic areas.
- Read data, coding entries according to patterns identified- keep record of what entries match with what elements in the data patterns.
- Search for non-examples of the data patterns- deciding if the patterns are supported by the data.
- Look for relationships among the patterns identified.
- Write patterns as one-sentence generalisations.

- Select data excerpts to support generalisations made.

Patton (2002:381) states that content analysis is the process of identifying, coding and categorising the primary patterns in the data. In this study transcripts were analysed in order to establish how teaching and learning policies are implemented in South African schools in the democratic dispensation. Tape recordings were listened to and transcripts read over and over. After tape recordings were transcribed, the researcher started by looking for any interesting patterns, whether anything conspicuous stood out as interesting or puzzling.

4.7 PRESENTATION OF DATA

According to Sharma (2009:7) the researcher should select quotes that are poignant and/or most representative of the research findings, when presenting from an interview. Qualitative research is also extremely complex as it involves the interaction of the individuals with themselves, family, society and culture. Chenail (2007:3) mentions the following data presentation strategies:

- Natural: data is presented in a shape that resembles the phenomenon being studied;
- Most simple to complex: start the presentation of data with the simplest example you have found. As the complexity of each example or exemplar presented increases, the reader will have a better chance of following the presentation;
- First discovered/constructed to last discovered/constructed: the data are presented in a chronicle-like fashion, showing the course of the researcher's personal journey in the study;
- Theory-guided; data arrangement is governed by the researcher's theory or theories regarding the phenomenon being re-presented in the study;
- Most important to least important or from major to minor.

A key issue in the presentation of data is the inclusion of numerous examples of raw data and original discourse. Each example of raw data within the presentation helps to provide the opportunity for the researcher to gauge the level of validity of research data (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:190). This approach is followed in this study because a good qualitative study is well

documented with transcriptions taken from data to illustrate and substantiate the assertions made. The researcher attempted to provide a balance of selections so that no participant was over-quoted or omitted.

4.8 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Hopkins (2008:1), quantitative research is all about quantifying relationships between variables. Quantitative research focuses on gathering numerical data and generalising it across groups of people (Sibanda 2009:3). Furthermore, Johnson and Christensen (2008:1) indicate that the researcher and their biases are not known to participants in the study, and participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher. In this study quantitative research methodology assist the researcher to inquire into an identified problem based on testing a theory measured with numbers. The objective of using quantitative research method was to determine whether the predictive generalisation of a theory hold true. The researcher would not generalise because objectivity is critical in quantitative research.

4.9 ISSUES OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY IN THE PRESENT STUDY

According to Bashir, Afzal and Azeem (2008:31) to ensure reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial. Morse, Barret, Mayan, Olson and Spiers (2007:5) indicate that the criteria to reach the goal of rigor are internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity. Reliability and validity are conceptualised as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm (Golafshani 2005:8). Schumacher and Mc Millan (2011:391) state that measures to enhance reliability involve a complete description of the research process, so that independent researchers may replicate the same procedures in compatible settings. Heckroodt (2002:126) states that reliability addresses the question: will two researchers independently studying the same setting or subjects come up with the same findings? Qualitative researchers tend to view reliability as a fit between what they record and what actually happens in the setting under study, rather than the literal consistency across different observations (Bogdan & Biklen 2006:48). Validity is concerned with the accuracy of scientific findings and can be divided into internal and external validity. Neuman (2009:170) indicates that reliability means dependability or

consistency. In qualitative research reliability refers to the consistency of the researcher's interactive style, data analysis, and interpretation of participants' meanings from the data (Mc Millan & Schumacher 2011:385). Since qualitative research process is personal, no investigator observes and interviews exactly like another. Reliability in this study was enhanced by the design of the research, by the explicit description of the researcher's role, participants and site selection and contexts, data collection and analytical strategies.

According to Cho and Trent (2006:4) validity in qualitative research is an interactive process between the researcher, the researched, and the collected data that is aimed at achieving a relatively higher level of accuracy and consensus by means of revisiting facts, feelings, experiences, and values or beliefs collected and interpreted. Bashir, Afzal and Azeem (2008:35) indicate that in qualitative research validity has to do with description and explanation, and whether or not the given explanation fits a given description. McMillan and Schumacher (2011:157) regard validity as explanations about observed phenomena approximate to what reality or trust is and the degree to which the explanations are accurate. Neuman (2009:369) views validity as a bridge between a construct and the data because confidence is placed in a researcher's analysis of data as accurately representing the social world in the field. Most qualitative researchers concentrate on ways to capture an inside view and provide a detailed account of how those being studied feel about and understand events. Validity in qualitative research is a progressive, emancipator process leading toward social change that is to be achieved by the research. The researcher would therefore carefully listen to the participants and present their views and not what he feels about the topic under investigation.

4.9.1 Reliability of design

Factors applicable to this study (Schumacher & Mc Millan 2011:386).

- The researcher's role: the importance of the researcher's social relationship with the participants requires that research studies identify the researcher's role and status within the group;

- Informant selection: informants must be described as well as the decision process to be used in their selection;
- Social context: the social context influences data content and a description should be included of the people, time and place where events or interviews will take place;
- Data collection strategies: precise descriptions must be given of the varieties of observation and interviewing as well as the way in which data will be recorded and what circumstances;
- Data analysis strategies: thorough retrospection accounts must be provided of how data will be synthesised, analysed and interpreted;
- Analytic premise: conceptual framework will be made explicit.

The researcher facilitated the process of interviewing the participants and guarded against totally having an influence on how the participants responded. Informants were also selected according to the knowledge they have about the topic under investigation. Interviews were conducted at the participants' schools and at their convenient time.

4.9.2 Reliability in data collection

This study adopted the following strategies to reduce trends to reliability (Schumacher & Mc Millan 2011:391):

- Verbatim accounts: verbatim accounts of conversation transcripts and direct quotations;
- Low-influence description: concrete, precise descriptions from notes to be made during interviews were used when data are analysed;
- Mechanical recorded data; tape recorder was used during interviews to ensure accuracy;
- Discrepant data: researchers actively search for, record, analyse and report negative cases or discrepant data.

The researcher recorded and transcribed the participants' conversations and critically analysed before reporting on the findings. The use of the tape recorder assisted in avoiding a misinterpretation of participants' views.

4.9.3 Internal validity

According to Tariq (2009:1) internal validity refers to the extent to which the independent variable can accurately be tested to produce the observed effect. If the effect of the dependent variable is only due to the independent variable then internal validity is achieved. This is the degree to which a variable can be manipulated. The following are recommended by Schumacher and McMillan (2011:391) to improve internal validity:

- Lengthy data collection period: this is said to provide opportunities for continued data analysis;
- Participant language: in this study the participants were encouraged to relate their experiences in their own words. All interviews were conducted in English;
- Disciplined subjectivity: researcher self-monitoring, subjects all phases of the research process to continuous and rigorous questioning and re-evaluation. This was done throughout the research.

The participants were given opportunities and time to relate their experiences of the implementation of the various teaching and learning policies. Although the interviews were conducted in English, the participants were encouraged to use their own words.

4.9.4 Triangulation

Olsen (2007:3) indicates that the mixing of data types, known as triangulation, is often thought to help in validating the claims that might arise from an initial pilot study. Most researchers use triangulation to increase validity of their research (Patton 2002:187). By combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials, researchers can hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single method, single observer and single theory studies. The purpose of triangulation in qualitative research is to increase the credibility and validity of the results. If the findings from all the methods draw the same or similar conclusions, then the validity in the finding has been established. Triangulation took place by

using more than one data collection method such as interviews, observations, classroom participants and document analysis. Theoretical triangulation took place by using more than one theoretical perspective to interpret data. The researcher used tape recorders and various data collection and analysis methods in order to ensure that the findings are valid and reliable.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Halai (2006:7) states that informed consent, from persons capable of such consent, should be obtained as in all other research. This requires informing participants about the overall purpose of the research and its main features, as well as of the risks and benefits of participation. Consent may be given in written format, verbally and audio-taped or video-taped (See Appendices B, C, D, E and G). The investigator's responsibility to the participants includes issues such as ensuring confidentiality, avoidance of harm, reciprocity and feedback of results. According to Richards (2007:3) there are different stances regarding ethical issues in qualitative research, namely:

- Absolutist stance: addresses four areas of ethical concern which are protection of participants from harm (physical or psychological), prevention of deception, protection of privacy and informed consent;
- Relativist stance: investigators have absolute freedom to study what they see fit, but they should study only those problems that flow from their own experiences;
- Contextualist or holistic stance: describing and understanding events, actions and processes in the natural context in which they occur;
- Description stance: an investigator may use any method necessary to obtain greater understanding in a particular situation.

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA 1996) provides the base for human rights and ethical values. Any research/study should be guided by such ethical values and principles of a democratic society. Ethics generally are considered to deal with beliefs about what is wrong, proper, good or bad (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:63). Strydom (2002:63) defines ethics as set of moral principles that are suggested by an individual or group, which are subsequently widely accepted, and offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards

experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. Some of the following basic principles of ethical considerations in social research (McMillan & Schumacher 2011:314) which are relevant to this study were taken into account: informed consent was obtained from the participants, the researcher guaranteed privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of participants, the researcher never coerced subjects to participate in the research; they volunteered. The researcher informed the participants of the purpose of the study and their consent would be done in a written format. The participants were informed of their rights to withdraw their participation in the study if they felt the above mentioned ethical issues are not adhered to.

4.11 SUMMARY

Chapter four presents a broad discussion of qualitative research methodology. The role of the researcher and data collection methods in qualitative research methodology have been explained and discussed in this chapter. Data collection methods in qualitative research discussed in this chapter included participant observation and focus group interviews. A detailed description and discussion of the rationale for using focus group interviews, its characteristics, advantages and disadvantages form part of this chapter. Data analysis, design of the present study, choice of participants, data gathering as well as presentation of data form part of this chapter. A brief discussion of quantitative research methodology also formed part of this chapter. Issues of reliability and validity in the present study such as reliability of design, reliability in data collection, internal validity as well as triangulation have been explained and discussed. This chapter further discussed the ethical considerations and the limitations of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS, DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four presented a broad discussion of qualitative research process in this study, the role of the researcher and data generation methods. However, a brief discussion of quantitative research was also presented in chapter four because of the quantitative nature of some of the data to be generated. Data collection methods in qualitative research discussed in chapter four included participant observation and focus group interviews. A detailed description and discussion of the rationale for using focus group interviews, its characteristics, advantages and disadvantages, as well as the rationale for using participant observation formed part of chapter four. Participant observation was also useful for gaining an understanding of the physical, social, cultural and economic contexts in which study participants live. Design of the present study, choice of participants, data gathering, presentation, analysis, as well as issues of reliability and validity in the present study have been explained and discussed in chapter four. Chapter four further discussed the ethical considerations in order to ensure confidentiality of the participants.

This chapter presents the research findings from interviews with educators, members of SMTs as well as the learners. Observations of lessons and examination of documents of the educators as described in chapter four are also presented. The findings are qualitatively and quantitatively presented in line with the five objectives of the study. In order to do this effectively, the main research questions are re-stated as a background to the presentation of the qualitative and quantitative findings. Furthermore, this chapter is divided into two sections represented by data generated and data analysis as guided by authors cited in sections 4.6 and 4.7.

5.2 DATA GENERATED IN THIS STUDY

As the participants were divided into three categories, namely, educators, members of SMTs and learners, the responses of the groups are presented separately. Prior to the interviews and observation, the researcher visited each of the selected schools and sought permission for

appointments to interview the participants and observe lesson presentations (see 4.10). The purpose of the interviews and observations was explained and identification of groups needed for the study done. The confidentiality of information and anonymity of interviews as well as their right to withdraw their involvement if need be, were also mentioned so that the respondents could be assured of feeling at ease when involved in responding to interviews (see 4.10). The first section of this chapter presents the data generated through individual and focus group interviews as well as the observations, while the second section presents an analysis of the data. The collected data were grouped into themes and related categories which were interconnected to the research questions of this study (see 4.5). In this data presentation and analysis some of the comments and statements by the participants are quoted verbatim to illustrate and emphasise the themes and categories (see 3.4; 3.5; 3.8; 3.9; 3.10; and 3.12).

5.2.1 Focus group interviews with educators

5.2.1.1 Research study question 1

One of the main objectives of this study was to determine strategies that educators employ in order to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively (see 1.4). Research question one was used to determine this. Apart from the examination of the educators' work, educators were also interviewed. A total of five lessons were observed and outlined for subsequent analysis. In order to present a holistic picture, the presentation of data is done pertaining to the educators in the five schools. The educators were between 30 and 60 years old, fully qualified (teaching diploma or degree) and have been teaching for more than 10 years.

The educators were asked questions which related to the strategies they employed to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively. The responses in all of the cases reflect the recurring themes (see 1.4). Where, necessary, verbatim reports have been included in order to present how educators responded. The researcher asked questions and the participants responded voluntarily.

Question: Since the introduction of the new policies on teaching and learning, how has your teaching methodology changed? (Appendix A1)

Four educators per school participated in this study, making a total of 20 educators. In responding to the question above: 11 educators said there were a few changes, while 9 educators conceded that they have not changed the way they used to teach. One educator added that her strategy has always been the same as she looks at the needs of her classes. Twelve educators added that the new policies brought about only small changes: educators now put more emphasis on spelling, comprehension, group activities and readers when teaching languages. This was vividly depicted by some of the educators in the following statements:

Educator C, “There is not that much change actually. Previously more emphasis was on writing and reading, and this is what we are still doing today”.

Educator A, “The difference is only that in the past the educator was supposed to develop his/her own teaching and learning materials, while today the Department of Education supply us with teaching and learning materials”.

Educator E, “I don’t really differ from how I used to teach because in languages I focus on the reading skills and comprehension of texts”.

The above responses were followed by another question to determine educators’ understanding of the role of learning outcomes in planning their lessons.

Question: What role do learning outcomes play in your planning of the lessons? (Appendix A1)

The common themes in the educators’ responses indicated that six educators were guided by the various learning outcomes when planning their lessons, while 14 educators were not guided by the learning outcomes. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below to present how educators responded:

Educator D, “I think the learning outcomes are just like a map because whatever you do you needs direction”.

Educator G, “For me some of the learning outcomes are appropriate but some not. I used to focus on grammar but the learning outcomes and assessment standards do not actually address what I want to teach”.

Educator F, “I always plan my lessons for the week or for the month according to certain things that must be done. I am not a person who just takes a policy and implement it. I do things according to my learners’ needs. These learning outcomes and assessment standards do not make sense”.

To help determine how the educators understood various types of learning, the following question was asked:

Question: Explain what you understand by teacher-centred and learner centred learning. (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators mentioned that teacher-centred learning is when the educator imparts information to learners. They further described learner-centred learning as the type of learning where learners are engaged in the various learning activities and created their own meaning. In learner-centred learning the educator remains a facilitator. Below are some of the responses from the educators:

Educator F, “Teacher-centred learning means that the teacher is telling the learners all the information while in learner-centred learning learner learners are participating actively”.

Educator A, “The teacher gives instructions and the learners should comply while in learner-centred learning the learners are active participants”.

Educator F, “In teacher-centred learning the teacher informs the learners while in learner-centred learning the learners contribute to the process of learning”.

The next question sought to establish the various tools used for assessment.

Question: Give examples of rubrics or marking grids you may have used for assessment. (Appendix A1)

Seventeen (17) educators interviewed mentioned assessment tools such as memos, rubrics and checklists. Twenty educators conceded that the Department of Education supplied them with the tools necessary for assessment.

5.2.1.3 Research study question 2

The other main objective of this study was to establish the knowledge educators and learners have in terms of language of learning and teaching (see 1.5). Research question two was used to establish this (see 1.4). In order to find answers to research question two above, the educators were asked questions which related to their knowledge of the language of learning and teaching used in their schools.

Question: What is the language of learning and teaching in this school? (Appendix A1)

At the five schools selected, four schools use English as the language of learning and teaching, only one school uses parallel medium, which is English and Afrikaans. To help to determine why that particular language or languages were preferred as language/s of teaching and learning, the following question was asked:

Question: Why is this language preferred to be the language of learning and teaching in this school? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who were interviewed indicated that English is preferred because most learning and teaching support materials in almost all learning areas are in English and Afrikaans but not in African languages. At the school where parallel medium is used, four educators indicated that African learners speak different African languages at home and other learners speak either Afrikaans or English at home. Hence African learners are taught in English while Afrikaans learners are taught in Afrikaans. Below are some of the responses from the educators:

Educator E, “The text books are written in English or Afrikaans”.

Educator I, “Learners speak different languages at home”.

Educator C, “Afrikaans speaking learners are taught in Afrikaans”.

To establish the mostly spoken language in these schools, the following question was asked:

Question: Which language is mostly spoken in this school? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that at all the schools selected for this study, the language most often spoken is Sepedi. The next question sought to establish the knowledge educators and learners have with regard to the language they preferred to use as language of learning and teaching.

Question: How knowledgeable are the educators and the learners with regard to the language of learning and teaching in this school? (Appendix A1)

The common response to this question was that the educators have a fair knowledge of English but the learners struggle, especially in those schools where English is the only language of learning and teaching. Educator I explained, “Learners actually do not grasp the language. They also do not feel comfortable in answering questions when asked to respond in English. They are really struggling”. Educator F added, “The learners do not understand instructions when asked in English”. Educator L said, “We always explain in the learners’ home language so that they can

understand what is expected of them”. To help determine the impact the language of learning and teaching has for learning, the following question was asked:

Question: What impact does the language of learning and teaching in this school have in terms of learning and teaching? (Appendix A1)

The consensus was that the language of learning and teaching has a negative impact on teaching and learning since most do not understand English. Those who are taught in Afrikaans do not struggle with their learning activities. This was echoed by one of the participants (Educator J) who said, “Very, very bad. You know, I gave grade 6 learners some books which I think are of grade 3 level, but some of the learners could not read at all”. This view was supported by educator H who said, “For the Afrikaans learners it is easy because they speak Afrikaans at home”.

5.2.1.3 Research study question 3

Another main objective of this research was to describe knowledge of educators’ needs for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies (see 1.5). Research question three was used to establish this (see 104). In order to find answers to the research question three above, the educators were asked questions which related to their needs for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies.

Question: What role do you think School Management Team (SMT) play in supporting and guiding you in implementing teaching and learning policies? (Appendix A1)

In answering the question above, 12 educators in schools A, B and C indicated that their SMTs are very supportive but eight educators in schools D and E indicated that they did not have an SMT in their school. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator K, “The SMT gives us money to buy learning and teaching support materials. We work as a team and we have about three staff meetings each term where we discuss challenges we might have”.

Educator F, “What? SMT? We don’t have such a thing. Actually, we don’t even have a principal. We just assist one another informally”. The above responses were followed by another question to determine how effective the School Management Teams in their respective schools are.

**Question: How effective is the School Management Team (SMT) in leading this institution?
(Appendix A1)**

The responses from 12 educators in schools A, B and C reflected that their SMTs are effective while in schools D and E, SMTs did not exist. This was vividly depicted by some of the educators in the following statements:

Educator N, “Our SMT gives us the support we need”.

Educator H, “Members of our SMT guide us in implementing the various policies on teaching and learning”.

Educator P, “There is no SMT in our school”.

In order to determine the effectiveness of team work, the following question was asked:

**Question: What opportunities are created for team work in the Intermediate Phase?
(Appendix A1)**

The responses from 12 educators in schools A, B and C indicated that SMTs created opportunities for them to learn more about teaching and learning policies, while in schools D and E, 8 participants indicated that SMTs did not exist. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator C, “We have morning briefs and staff meetings where we assist one another. The HODs organise meetings and we discuss challenges that we have in our phase and how to solve them”.

Educator R, “Our principal and HODs always encourage us to help one another and to work as a team. We have meetings and workshops in order to assist one another”.

Educator B, “There is no SMT and we don’t work as a team”.

Question: What kind of guidance and assistance did you receive from the School Management Team (SMT) in respect of assessment procedures and practices? (Appendix A1)

The responses from 12 educators in schools A, B and C indicated that SMTs organised some workshops to empower them. In schools D and E, 8 educators indicated that SMTs did not exist. This was vividly depicted by the following statements:

Educator S, “Our SMT guides us on the various assessment procedures. We use assessment policies supplied by the Department of Education”.

Educator G, “Members of our SMT guide us in implementing the various policies on assessment”.

Educator M, “There is no SMT in our school. However, we attend workshops on assessment policies”.

To establish educators’ requirements for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies, the following question was asked:

Question: What are your requirements for the successful implementation of the new policies on teaching and learning? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who participated in this study indicated that would prefer greater stability and continuity in teaching and learning policies issues by the Department of Education. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator J, “The Department of Education should not change teaching and learning policies. These policies always change and this causes confusion”.

Educator B, “The Department of Education must not always change policies”.

Educator T, “New teaching and learning policies are confusing us because they always change. The Department of Education should not change these policies”.

The next question was asked to determine educators’ challenges in the implementation of the new policies.

Question: What challenges do you encounter in the implementation of the new policies? (see 3.2-3.12 and appendix A1)

Fifteen (15) educators who participated in this study complained about the workload while eight educators complained about the resources. Educator L said, “Workload. It hinders our progress in teaching. I sometimes spend more time dealing with paper work instead of teaching the learners”. Another participant, educator D said, “I think the resources and time are our major challenges. Sometimes there are no enough periods to deal with all the learning outcomes and assessment standards”.

5.3.1.4 Research study question 4

The fourth main objective of this study was to identify the kind of training or professional development typically offered to the educators (see 1.5). Research question four was used to determine this (see 104). The questions and responses are outlined below. The educators were asked questions which related to how they were trained or professionally developed to implement teaching and learning policies effectively.

Question: What training did you receive in respect of the new teaching and learning policies? (Appendix A1)

Twenty educators who were interviewed conceded that they received training and workshops for C2005, RNCS, NCS as well as CAPS. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator S, “We attended workshops for C2005, RNCS, NCS as well as CAPS”.

Educator Q, “We attended some training workshops for policies on teaching and learning such as C2005, RNCS, NCS and CAPS”.

Educator F, “The Department of Education organised workshops for C2005, RNCS, NCS as well as CAPS which we attended”.

In order to identify the various aspects of the training the educators received, they were asked to elaborate more on the workshops they attended.

Question: Tell me more about the workshops you have attended. (Appendix A1)

In responding to the question above, 16 educators indicated that the workshop were confusing. A few educators had different views as illustrated below:

Educator A, “In most workshops the facilitators gave us activities and guided us on how to go through the activities and we were given opportunities to demonstrate how we were going to implement these policies in our classrooms ”.

Educator M, “When we attended the workshops on Curriculum 2005, Revised National Curriculum Statement and the National Curriculum Statement, we were told different things which were confusing. The facilitators were not interpreting the various documents the same way. We were given a lot of papers to fill in. The presentations in the workshops were not appropriate

to what we were practically doing in our classes. At least with Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements, it was better”.

Educator L, “The facilitators for CAPS were well prepared than those who took us through C2005, RNCS and the NCS”.

Educator C, “The workshop for C2005 was very confusing. The facilitators were not clear about what educators should do. At least, the workshop for CAPS was better”.

In order to identify the kind of support the educators received from the Department of Education, the following questions were asked:

Question: What support do you get from the Gauteng Department of Education? (Appendix A1)

Twenty educators indicated that the only support they received the workshops though follow-ups was inadequate.

Question: Did you find the training activities relevant to what you were doing in class? If relevant or irrelevant, explain. (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that the workshops were relevant but it was not easy to implement the new knowledge and skills in real classroom environment. This was emphasised by educator N, when he said, *“Yes, but trainings are relevant, but it is totally different from what we do in class. In class there are those who are very slow, and some very intelligent. The training activities are relevant but more challenging to implement in class. When you present in the workshops there are only the educators but when you present in class is a different story. You are faced with a real situation”*. Educator D said, “The activities were relevant but we struggle on how to implement them in real classroom situation”. This was further emphasised by educator O who said, “ The activities are relevant but the problem is implementation”.

The above response was followed by another question to determine educators' opinions about the knowledge of trainers or co-ordinators of these teaching and learning policies.

Question: What is your opinion about the competency level of the trainers and co-ordinators of the training? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that the competence of facilitators who trained them for C2005, RNCS, and NCS was inadequate; the situation for CAPS was better.

5.3.1.5 Research study question 5

Another main objective of this study was to note inconsistencies in use of the criteria or guidelines used by educators to promote learners from one grade to the other (1.5). Research question five was used to note this (see 104). The educators were asked questions which related to how learners progress from one grade to the other.

Question: An important aspect of outcomes-based education is assessment. Describe the assessment procedures you are employing. (Appendix A1)

In responding to the question above, 20 educators gave contradicting statements. A few of the verbatim responses affirming this observation are indicated below:

Educator C, "As assessment is ongoing, for example, comprehension, you assess two things, reading and comprehending. You ask questions and they respond".

Educator N, "We get all the guidelines from our facilitators. We know exactly what needs to be done. Under assessment plans, the parents can also see what is happening at school".

Educator B, "I assess my learners at least every second week by means of tests and letters to write".

Educator M, “We assess against learning outcomes”.

Educator E, “I can’t elaborate much on that”.

The next question sought to establish educators’ knowledge of the principles of outcomes-based assessment.

Question: What are some of the principles of outcomes-based assessment? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who were interviewed indicated that they lacked principles of outcomes-based assessment. A few of the verbatim responses affirming this observation are indicated below:

Educator A, “I don’t know the principles of outcomes-based assessment”.

Educator S, “I think we can check in the policy documents for such principles on assessment”.

Educator G, “I have not seen any principles of outcomes-bases assessment”.

To help determine how learners are assessed, a follow-up question to further probe this issue was asked.

Question: How do learners know what you are assessing? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that learners are informed of what is expected of them. This common response was followed by another question to determine educators’ knowledge of assessment methods.

Question: What are some of the assessment methods you commonly use when assessing your learners? (Appendix A1)

Thirteen (13) educators responded by stating different methods of assessment such as assignments, investigations, questions and answers, essays, projects and responses to texts. Seven

educators could not mention any assessment method. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator F, “Questions and answers, projects and assignments”.

Educator T, “Response to texts and essays”.

Educator P, “Investigations and assignments”.

In order to establish if educators were conversant with the principles of outcomes-based assessment, the following question was asked:

Question: How often do you assess your learners? (Appendix A1)

Two (2) educators mentioned that they assess learners weekly, twelve (12) said monthly, while six (6) educators indicated that they assess their learners quarterly. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator G, “We asses them every week”.

Educator T, “We asses them quarterly”.

Educator B, “We asses them monthly”.

In an attempt to ascertain the educators’ knowledge of different forms of assessment the following questions were asked.

Question: What do you understand by different forms of assessment? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators did not demonstrate a clear understanding of the different forms of assessment. This was confirmed by educator F who said, “According to policy, it says these

different types of assessment are the building blocks of the tasks. Other learners may know how to read but not know how to comprehend”. Educator M said, “Assessment can be in different forms like asking different questions (cit)”. Educator P said, “Assessment forms are different types of questions”.

Question: How are the different forms of assessment incorporated into the planning of activities? (Appendix A1)

All educators who were interviewed struggled to respond to the above question; they all demonstrated uncertainty in this regard. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator E, “I don’t know how to do that”.

Educator L, “I plan the activities according to what I taught the learners. It is difficult to explain how to incorporate assessment in my planning”.

Educator R, “I really don’t know how to incorporate assessment in my planning. We were not told how to do that”.

The next question sought to establish how educators accommodate for different learning styles as one of the principles of outcomes-based assessment.

Question: How do you accommodate for different learning styles? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who were interviewed indicated that there are guidelines but they struggled to implement them. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator B, “There are guidelines that we must follow but it is not easy as that was not clearly explained to us”.

Educator J, “The guidelines are available but the serious challenge is how to do that in class”.

Educator S, “It is difficult to explain how to do that”.

The responses to the question above were followed by other questions to establish how knowledgeable educators were in terms of the various assessment guidelines.

Question: Please name a few departmental guidelines you use when planning assessment. (Appendix A1)

Seventeen (17) educators mentioned documents, such as mark sheets and grids, which were supplied by the Department of Education. Three (3) educators could not mention any guidelines.

A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator L, “There are some marking grids we got from the Department of Education”.

Educator N, “We develop mark sheets”.

Educator H, “The Department of Education supply us with mark sheets grids”.

The next question sought to establish if educators have records of learners’ achievement of learning outcomes.

Question: What evidence is there for recording learners’ progress? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that they kept recording sheets at school for a long time. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator A, “We keep them for five years”.

Educator S, “We keep them for a long time”.

Educator O, “Recording sheets are always kept at the school for a very long time”.

In order to ascertain how educators report learners' achievement of learning outcomes, the following questions were asked:

Question: How is reporting of learners' achievement done? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators mentioned that reporting is done quarterly. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator G, "We give learners their reports every quarter".

Educator C, "Learners get their reports every quarter".

Educator M, "Reporting is done quarterly".

Question: Please comment on the school's reporting policy. (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who were interviewed mentioned that each school has its own policy which is informed by the policy of by the Department of Education. Some of the responses from the participants are indicated below:

Educator F, "We develop our own school policy on reporting. However, this is informed by the policy from the Department of Education".

Educator N, "We have our own reporting policy as a school".

Educator Q, "The Department of Education supplied us with the policy which guides us in developing our own policy on reporting".

The above responses were followed by another question to determine the criteria educators used for progression of learners from one grade to the other.

**Question: Which criteria are used for progressing learners from one grade to another?
(Appendix A1)**

Twenty educators (20) indicated that the Department of Education had given them guidelines which they followed to manage the progression of learners from one grade to the other. Some of the responses from the educators are indicated below:

Educator D, “We follow the assessment guidelines on progression”.

Educator I, “We are guided by the assessment policy”.

Educator R, “Learners progress according to the guidelines as stipulated in the assessment policy”.

The above section presented the responses by the educators relating to the various research study questions (see 1.4).

Presentation of data on Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

Another main issue investigated was the educators’ views about Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (see 3.12). In order to get more information about the educators’ knowledge of CAPS, the following questions were asked:

Question: First I would like to know your views on Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. (Appendix A1)

In their responses sixteen (16) educators indicated that they were more comfortable with CAPS. This was confirmed by educator P, who said, “The facilitators were well prepared”. This was supported by educator I who said, “CAPS is good. The number of subjects has been reduced and what you must teach the learners is clearly stipulated”.

Question: How would you rate your understanding of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators who were interviewed concurred that they understand CAPS and were confident that they would be able to implement it in their classrooms. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator S, “CAPS is better. We are given the content to teach our learners”.

Educator J, “The content is well stipulated and there are no learning outcomes and assessment standards that used to confuse us”.

Educator F, “CAPS is clear and better when compared to the previous policies”.

Question: What training did you receive in respect of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement? (Appendix A1)

Twenty (20) educators indicated that they attended a three day workshop organised by the Department of Education. Some of the responses from the educators are indicated below:

Educator K, “We attended a workshop for three days during school holidays”.

Educator G, “The Department of Education called us for a workshop where we were taken through the implementation of CAPS”.

Educator N, “Our district office organised a workshop for CAPS and we were invited to attend”.

Question: What are your views when you compare the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, the Revised National Curriculum Statement, the National Curriculum Statement and Curriculum 2005? (Appendix A1)

All educators who were interviewed indicated that CAPS is better than C2005, RNCS and NCS. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

Educator C, “CAPS is better than the previous policies on teaching and learning”.

Educator P, “Some aspects such as assessment standards that use to confuse us have been excluded in CAPS”.

Educator H, “CAPS is not complicated and we are given the content to teach the learners”.

This section attempted to answer all the research study questions as well as the educators’ views on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements.

The above section presented the educators’ responses relating to their experiences of the CAPS.

5.2.2 Interviews with School Management Teams

In order to determine the SMTs’ understanding of the teaching and learning policies, the following questions were asked:

Question: First, I would like you to comment on your understanding of teaching and learning policies in the new democratic dispensation (Appendix A2).

Six (6) members of the SMTs from schools A, B and C had different views on teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation while at school D and E there were no SMT members represented. In response to the question above, SMT member C said, “There are a number of policies that came into effect. Eh, my understanding is that the

education system has changed drastically and many educators have been confused. This has also affected our learners negatively because they cannot articulate or express themselves on matters of their own needs, or challenges of life. That is why we are having so many learners who are sitting at home, some have passed grade 12, and some have dropped out of schools because this education system did not offer them opportunities to explore”.

Another SMT member A said, “I think they are guidelines. They help us to understand what the Department expect of us and how we should go about as we do our business. Eh, they also help us to do our work professionally”. Furthermore, SMT member E said, “The first thing is eh, it’s a big frustration as the policies change and it makes the management of the school very difficult and the teachers frustrated. If the teachers are frustrated, the child will not benefit. The other thing is that even the people who give us these policies do not agree with one another. When you ask them how this type of policy should be implemented, they say you can interpret it yourself. The fact is that we, South Africans, should have our own policies. It is nice to get some policies from Switzerland or England or wherever, but these are first world countries. In South Africa we had C2005 and so on. These policies only benefit white children far more than black children. The black children come from poor circumstances; they don’t have access to internet. You can’t say do this research and so on. The gap between the rich and the poor becomes even wider. This is devastating”.

This was another view by SMT member F who said, “I don’t know but I will try. We have policies which help us with the day to day running of the school. There are policies like code of conduct for the learners, maintenance, to make sure that the school is managed properly, religious policy to make sure that you don’t discriminate, and safety policy to make sure that the learners are safe at school. Prior to 1994 policies were given to us but now we develop our own policies”. The above responses were followed by another question about the type of training received by members of the SMTs.

Question: What training did you receive in respect of these policies? (Appendix A2)

The six (6) members of the SMTs mentioned some training workshops they have attended. Six members of the SMTs responded that they had attended workshops on teaching and learning policies. One of the members of the SMTs (member D) said, “In terms of curriculum, we attended a number of trainings. We were trained on OBE, RNCS, and NCS and now we were trained on CAPS”. Another member of the SMT admitted that they attended some workshops. These were her words: “This happened after school hours. The trainings started around 3 pm to 5 pm. Most principals do not even have transport. When they arrived at the meetings, it was almost over. They must at least be with us the whole day to explain these policies” The above responses were supported by another SMT member B who said, “They bring workshops to us. They train us on how to develop these policies. They give us guidelines”.

However, SMT member E had a different view when he said, “Eh, it was on the job-training but not specific training on policies. We read policies ourselves and implement them. To say we were going to be trained on policies, no, no! It was not a formal training”.

To help determine how the training empowered the members of the SMTs, a follow-up question was asked:

Question: How did the training empower you as a member of the School Management Team? (Appendix A2)

Four (4) members of the SMTs mentioned that they were empowered by the training they attended. This was echoed by SMT member C who said, “I can now manage the curriculum because I was trained”. The same sentiments were emphasised by SMT member D when she said, “It’s positive you know, it empowers us so that we know what is expected of us. They make us to be able to work with the community”.

However, SMT member F mentioned a different view when he said, “The only thing that I gained is that I must do this and if not, there will be problems. They will charge you. If you are incapable

to interpret policies you will be charged. The principal at the end of the day becomes the victim of the policies. Policies are being imposed, end of story”.

The next question was asked to establish the kind of support and guidance given to the educators by members of the SMTs.

Question: How do you provide the necessary guidance and support to the educators? (Appendix A2)

The common response to this question was that the six (6) SMT members provide guidance and support to the educators. A few of the verbatim responses are indicated below:

SMT member C, “I do encourage them to attend workshops. I sometimes organise internal in-service training. We get motivational speakers and we sometimes identify some issues that affect us as a school, then we check if we can involve the district office”.

SMT member E, “Ja, upon arrival at the school after training we sit and consolidate what we have received. Then we have common understanding and we implement what we have planned. So far it worked for us”.

SMT member B, “The principal should always read in order to empower himself. The problem is that the people who should put the policies into place are not empowered enough. Every morning we have a staff meeting for half an hour, which is compulsory. In these meetings we discuss about policies and other issues of the school”.

The next question sought to establish the kind of relationships members of the SMTs have with the educators in their schools.

Question: How are your interpersonal relations with members of staff? (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMTs mentioned that they had good relations with staff members in their schools. SMT member E said, “To me to be a principal is nothing. You must lead from behind. I encourage the teachers to always study further. I am very strict and they know that but I am fair and firm. We have a very good professional relationship”. The good relation of members of the SMTs and staff was further emphasised by another participant (SMT member E) who said, “I can say that I am one of the lucky ones because when we sit down and have a common understanding, and then we have good relationships. You have problems if people do not understand”. This was further echoed by one of the participants ((SMT member C) who also mentioned that if educators know what is expected of them and feel supported, the relations are always good. SMT member A said he does not compromise policies for the sake of keeping good relations with members of staff.

The next question was asked to determine how members of the SMTs ensure that the environment in their schools is conducive for teaching and learning.

Question: How do you ensure that the school environment is conducive for learning and teaching? (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMTs indicated that they had to ensure sure that the school environment was conducive to learning and teaching. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

SMT member F, “Support, you give teachers support. You make sure that learners are on time and make sure that the teachers maintain discipline in their classes. You encourage the teachers that it is important to be in class all the time. I also make use of prefects who will go and call the teacher if he is not in class. We even have teachers who pray for those with low morale.

SMT member C, “I ensure that everybody has what he or she needs”.

SMT member D, “The whole postmodern era is clear these days. In the old days the teacher was the master, he speaks and the children keep quiet. These days if you are not a specialist of your subject and you are not prepared, you are out. You get respect because of the knowledge you have and the way you do your work”.

SMT member B, “You must always be visible. The teachers have policies in their classes. I make rounds and if teachers are not in their classrooms, when they see you coming they run into their classes. We have an environment committee which makes that all learners have their books. I encourage the teachers to be friendly with the learners because if they are not friendly, learners will be afraid of them”.

The next question sought to establish how educators access information on curriculum issues.

Question: How do educators access information on curriculum matters? (Appendix A2)

Four (4) SMT members indicated that HODs made sure that educators have everything that they needed. However, one member of the SMT mentioned that the resources are inadequate. He further indicated that they needed to make copies but the machine was broken and they lacked enough textbooks and money. The other participant mentioned that the Department of Education supplied them with curriculum documents they needed and that they also used the internet to access curriculum matters. This statement was further supported by other participants who confirmed that they had libraries where they could get curriculum documents and that they also used Gauteng online to acquaint themselves with curriculum issues. One member further indicated that although educators were sometimes reluctant, information was available. The above responses were followed by another question to determine how members of the SMTs encourage educators to reflect and examine their teaching practice.

Question: How do you encourage the educators to reflect and examine their teaching practice in the light of the new teaching and learning policies? (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMTs indicated that they normally discuss challenges during morning briefs. They mentioned that during morning briefs educators reflected on any challenges that they have. Some indicated that they also used Mondays which were reserved for educators to interact, do preparation and assist one another. Another participant mentioned that they usually met once a month to reflect on what had been accomplished and to help one another overcome challenges. In an effort to establish the availability of teaching resources, the following question was asked:

Question: What teaching resources are available for the educators to use? (Appendix A2)

Four (4) members of the SMTs indicated that the resources are adequate but it all depended on how educators fruitfully used them. The other two (2) members of the SMTs indicated that the resources are inadequate. This statement was further supported SMT member D who said, “We have computers which everybody has access to. We have access to internet. The Department of Education has also supplied every educator with policy documents. This was also supported by another participant (SMT member F) who said, “The largest part of our budget goes to resources. At the beginning of the year I call all the teachers to tell me all things they need to become good teachers. We have computers, books in the library and many teaching and learning aids. The resources are adequate”.

The next question was asked to determine the support members of the SMTs give to the educators.

Question: How do you provide follow-up and support for those educators who require assistance? (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMTs indicated that educators are provided with the necessary support. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

SMT member F, “We are working as a team. If a teacher needs help, we really help. If there are serious challenges we involve the district office to assist. If there are common problems from many schools, then the district office organises some workshops”.

SMT member D, “Eh, I can tell you that the HODs are hands on and brilliant. They take the responsibility to assist the teachers. If the teacher has problems the HOD starts to work with that teacher on daily basis. The teacher must bring his preparations and everything which he is going to do the following day”.

SMT member C, “Through the reports that they give us, the HODs are there to support. The HODs orientate, coach, and above all, we also have some assistance from Non Governmental Organisations”.

Question: Please explain to me a few examples of departmental documents, guidelines on the new teaching and learning policies. (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMT indicated that the Department of Education provided schools with documents on the new teaching and learning policies. Among some documents mentioned were the following:

SMT member C said, “We were provided with Government Gazettes”.

SMT member A said, “We have learning area statements and assessment policies”.

SMT member E said, “We also received documents for C2005, RNCS, NCS, CAPS as well as the National Protocol on Reporting and Recording”.

Question: What policy does the school have on assessment? (Appendix A2)

Six (6) members of the SMTs who were interviewed indicated that they had certain policies on assessment. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

SMT member E, “The department provided us with assessment policy documents. However, I am not happy with this policy because some learners are just being pushed from one grade to the other. Now there are learners who can’t read and write in some high schools”.

SMT member B, “On assessment, it is the work of the teacher to assess. If clearly I think about it, that is the main duty of the teacher. The department provided us with documents on assessment so that the teachers know how to assess. From the beginning of the year we receive the mark sheets from the department and we must do all the exercises, exams, orals, etc”.

SMT member F, “That we created from the national one. The school has its own learning area policies on assessment”.

The above section indicated the members of the SMTs’ knowledge and experiences of the various teaching and learning policies.

The above section presented members of the SMTs’ responses concerning their views on teaching and learning policies, the kind of training or professional development they received, guidance and support provided to educators, as well as how they assist educators in matters related to assessment of learners.

5.2.3 Interviews with learners

Question: What language do you speak at home?

Twenty-five (25) learners participated in this study. In responding to the above question, 15 learners indicated that their home language is Sepedi. Furthermore, five learners said their home language is IsiNdebele while three said Afrikaans. Only two mentioned English as their home language. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

Learner X said, “I speak Sepedi”.

Learner F said, “I speak IsiNdebele”.

Learner T said, “I speak Afrikaans”.

Learner C said, “I speak English”.

Question: In which language are most of the learning areas/subjects being taught in your school? (Appendix A3)

Twenty (20) learners in schools B, C, D and E mentioned that all learning areas are taught in English. It was only in school A where the five learners indicated that some are taught in English while others are taught in Afrikaans. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

Learner F said, “We are taught in English”.

Learner J said, “We are taught in English and other learners are taught in Afrikaans”.

Question: How well do you understand this language? (Appendix A3)

In responding to the question above, 16 learners in the four schools where English is the language of learning and teaching complained that they did not understand the language; only four understood the language. The learners in the dual medium school did not have any problems with the languages they are taught in. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

Learner Y said, “I don’t understand English well”.

Learner J said, “I understand Afrikaans well”.

Learner A said, “I understand English well”.

Question: What impact does this language have on your learning? (Appendix A3)

Sixteen (16) learners in the four schools which use English as the language of learning and teaching indicated that they struggle to understand what their teachers are teaching them and as such the teachers had to explain in the learners’ home languages. The learners who are taught in Afrikaans or English did not have any difficulties in learning. The following were some of the verbatim responses to the question above:

Learner B said, “I don’t understand English well and this causes me to fail some learning areas”.

Learner W said, “I understand what my teachers teach me because I understand English well”

The above section indicated the knowledge learners have in terms of the language of learning and teaching and how it impacted on their learning.

5.2.4 Observation of lessons (Appendix I)

Five lessons were observed, one from each school that participated in this study. Each of the lessons will be described in detail in this section. Comments are made to add to the understanding of the events that unfolded within the classroom environment.

5.2.4.1 Observation of lesson A

School D

Name of educator: Mrs X

Number of lessons: 1

English First Additional Language (FAL)

The educator wrote LO 1, 2, 3 and 4. There was no indication of what these numbers stood for or represented. The educator noted the numbers of assessment standards. A variety of resources were

stipulated such as workbooks, newspapers and learners' pens. The educator stated that the lesson was for one week. The educator introduced the lesson by telling the learners what they were going to do. He asked a few questions to test learners' prior knowledge. He asked learners to mention the names of the pictures on each page. No appropriate examples were given or asked by the learners. The educator stipulated teacher activities and learner activities. During the presentation of the lesson the educator read from the book and gave a few explanations. Few learners responded to questions but the majority of the class was quiet. The educator continuously asked questions. Summative assessment was not done. The questions the educator asked learners were relevant to the topic.

5.2.4.2 Observation of lesson B

School A

Name of educator: Mr K

Number of lessons: 1

English First Additional Language (FAL)

The various learning outcomes to be covered were written in full, for example, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Assessment standards were also written in full, for example, understand stories, interact in additional language and writing to communicate information. The educator indicated the various teaching and learning aids to be used such as charts, learners' workbooks' and pictures. The lesson was planned for 40 minutes. The educator told learners a short story. The educator asked learners to mention names of the pictures on each page. He gave examples of domestic animals such as dogs, cats and wild animals such as lions and tigers. The educator stipulated teacher and learner activities in two separate columns, for example, the educator tells a story, and learners listen. He guided the learners through the learning activities. Variety of teaching and learning support materials such as pictures and charts were used and the learners were allowed to touch and use them. There was active participation by learners. The educator continuously asked questions and the learners responded appropriately. The learners were given an assessment activity to complete in their workbooks. The assessment activities were relevant to the learning activities.

5.2.4.3 Observation of lesson C

School E

Name of educator: Mrs P

Number of lessons: 1

English First Additional Language (FAL)

There were no learning outcomes or assessment standards stated in the lesson plan. The educator had noted teaching and learning aids such as newspapers and magazines. There was no time frame indicated. The educator introduced the lesson by asking learners to mention the activities they did the previous day. There was no activity that linked the new lesson with learners' prior knowledge. The educator tried to give a few examples such as when to use present and past tenses in a story. The learners did not seem to understand exactly what the educator wanted them to do. The only teaching and learning support materials used were the textbooks the learners had. There was passive learner participation. The educator asked questions during the lesson: to formulate sentences using new words such as pick, run and collect. Summative assessment was not done. The questions were relevant but the learners could not respond appropriately.

5.2.4.4 Observation of lesson D

School B

Name of educator: Mrs F

Number of lessons: 1

English First Additional Language (FAL)

Only the numbers of the learning outcomes and the assessment standards were written instead of writing them in full. Some teaching and learning aids were indicated such as learners' work books and dictionaries. The lesson was planned for two weeks. The educator asked learners to mention the activities they did the previous day. There was no clear linking of the new content with learners' prior knowledge. The educator asked the learners to give examples as she continued with the lesson. Teaching and learning activities that were written in the lesson plan were well followed. The educator asked learners to use their dictionaries and workbooks. Learners participated actively in the learning activities. The educator asked learners to formulate sentences

with unfamiliar words throughout the lesson. There was no indication of summative assessment. The questions the educator asked were relevant to the lesson, for example, she asked learners to use connecting words such as “then, and after that”.

5.2.4.5 Observation of lesson E

School C

Name of educator: Mrs J

Number of lessons: 1

English First Additional Language (FAL)

Learning outcomes were not written in full. Only the numbers for assessment standards were written instead of writing them in full. There was no mention of the resources to be used. The column for the duration of the lesson was blank. The educator instructed the learners to open their books on a particular page. There was no clear indication of linking the new content with the learners’ prior knowledge. The educator did not give any examples in the presentation of the lesson. The learners were given some activities at the end of the lesson to complete. The only materials were learners’ workbooks. Fifteen learners participated actively. Learners were asked questions throughout the lesson. The educator gave the learners some assessment activities such as using singular and plural forms of nouns. Assessment activities were relevant, for example, when the educator stated the singular form of a noun, the learners were asked to state the plural form of that particular noun.

5.3 DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this section is to analyse and discuss the data presented in the previous section. Data analysis is the researcher’s attempts to simplify the complexity of participants’ account of what happened during the interviews and observations. In this study data analysis attempted to give rich insight and foster understanding of how teaching and learning policies are implemented in South African schools. Data obtained from the five schools are hereunder, analysed and discussed (see 4.6). The analysis focuses on all research questions (see 1.4).

The data analysis and discussions made in this section include themes as presented by the participants. The researcher realised that much of the information presented by the participants conflicted and it needed to be understood when analysed together. In the ensuing sections an analysis of data and their categories are discussed.

5.3.1 Analysis of the interviews schedule

5.3.1.1 Teaching methodologies

The data presented by the participants indicated that there were a few changes in terms of how they used to teach, while others conceded that they have not changed the way they used to teach (see 5.2.1.1). The researcher found that answers showed contradictions: some indicated that they have changed the way they used to teach while others indicated that there are no changes. However, not all educators use the same methods of teaching. The researcher is of the opinion that some educators were guided by the new teaching methodologies while others continued the way they used to teach. Educators are supposed to use new teaching methodologies (see 2.4 and 3.5).

Judging from the responses there was general agreement that in learner-centred learning, the learners are engaged in various learning activities and create their own meaning, while the educator remains as a facilitator. The researcher reached the conclusion that the educators understood the concept of learner-centred learning. Educators were of the view that teacher-centred learning is when the educator impart information to learners (see 3.5.3). Educators understood teacher-centred learning as the situation where learners are not active participants but rely on the knowledge imparted to them by the educator (2.2.2).

Based on the responses of the interviews with educators, it was clear that some educators were guided by the various learning outcomes when planning their lessons while other educators were not (see 3.8.3.1). This was evident when one educator stated that the learning outcomes are just like a map because whatever you do, you need direction. However, this was disputed by educator F who stated that learning outcomes and assessment standards do not make sense. None of the twenty educators interviewed could mention all learning outcomes of English as first additional

language (see 3.8.3.1). It was also evident that learning outcomes did not play any role in the planning of lessons. The researcher also noticed that the educators who mentioned a few learning outcomes could not explain how they are reflected in their lessons. The educators are supposed to be guided by learning outcomes when planning their lessons (see 3.8.3.1).

The lack of knowledge of assessment standards was further evident when the researcher observed that no educator could explain clearly how the assessment standards are informed by the learning outcomes (3.8.3.2). Educators complained that each learning outcome has many assessment standards which they could not easily interpret. Educators could not identify content in the various assessment standards. The analysis showed that the educators could not appropriately interpret assessment standards (see 2.2.1.3.3). In order to be able to identify the content, educators should be able to unpack assessment standards (see 3.8.3.2).

5.3.1.2 Teaching and learning policies

Based on the responses of the interviews with the members of the SMTs, it was clear that they had different views on teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the democratic dispensation. This was evident when one member of the SMT indicated that the introduction of the new policies on teaching and learning affected their learners negatively because they cannot articulate or express themselves on matters of their own needs, or challenges of life. Furthermore, the same sentiments were echoed by another member of the SMT when he stated that the new policies caused frustration and complicated the management of the school. On the other hand, another member of the SMT stated that the new teaching and learning policies are good guidelines which helped them to understand and to do their work professionally. The other member of the SMT was informed of teaching and learning policies. She indicated that she did not know the policies but would try to respond to the question. The researcher's assumption was that the members of the SMTs' knowledge of policies on teaching and learning were questionable (see 2.2.1.3.2). The above views are an indication that members of SMTs do not manage the implementation of teaching and learning policies appropriately.

5.3.1.3 Knowledge of the language of learning and teaching

Twenty (20) educators mentioned that they have fair knowledge of English but the learners struggle, especially the learners in schools B, C, D, and E where English is the only language of learning and teaching. This was evident when educator I stated that learners do not feel comfortable in answering questions when asked to respond in English. This implied that although the educators have fair knowledge of the language of learning and teaching, the learners' knowledge was considerably poor, especially in schools B, C, D, and E where English is the only language of learning and teaching.

The data presented by the educators indicated that English was preferred because most learning and teaching support materials in almost all learning areas are written in English and Afrikaans, not in the learners' home languages (see 3.12.4). In the school where parallel medium is used, African learners speak different African languages at home and the other learners speak Afrikaans at home. Consequently, African learners opted for English while Afrikaans learners were taught in Afrikaans (see 2.2.1.9).

The educators agreed that the language of learning and teaching had a negative impact on teaching and learning since most of the learners do not understand English. However, learners who are taught in Afrikaans do not struggle with their learning activities. This was quite evident to the researcher when one educator indicated that some of the grade six learners could not read grade three reading books. This is an indication that learners learn more easily when taught in their home languages (see 3.4).

The analysis made on this state of affairs showed that learners who are taught in their home language encounter fewer difficulties in learning than those who are taught in second or third language (see 2.2.1.3.1). This was evident from the learners who mentioned that they struggled to understand what their educators taught them. On the other hand, the learners who are taught in their home languages indicated that they had no problems. The researcher is of the opinion that

language of learning and teaching has a negative impact on learning if the learners are not conversant with it (see 2.2.1.3.2).

5.3.1.4 The role of school management teams (SMTs)

Twelve (12) educators in schools A, B, and C indicated that their SMTs are very supportive but eight (8) educators in schools D and E indicated that they did not have SMTs. Based on the responses of the interviews with the educators, it was clear that some of the SMTs are functional while others are dysfunctional (see 2.2.1.4). This analysis was confirmed by educators who stated that they do not have SMTs.

The data presented by members of the SMTs who participated in this study indicated that the educators were fully supported. This was evident when one member stated that she always encouraged educators to attend workshops and that internal in-service training had been organised to support them. Schools A, B and C had compulsory morning briefs everyday to attend to educators' challenges and needs including the implementation of policies. However, four (4) members of the SMTs mentioned that although they give educators some moral support, resources are inadequate. However, the support which the members of the SMTs claim to have given to the educators was in contradiction with the experiences of some educators (see 2.2.1.9). The researcher reached the conclusion that not all educators received support from members of the SMTs.

As far as the six (6) members of the SMTs who participated in this study were concerned, school environment should be conducive for teaching and learning to take place (see 2.2.2.3). Furthermore, there was evidence that the members of the SMTs promoted an environment of discipline and friendliness in their schools. Data indicated that the SMTs ensured that learners were on time in their classes, that the educators maintained discipline, that educators were specialists in their learning areas/subjects and were friendly to the learners (see 2.2.2.2).

The researcher is of the opinion that team work prevailed in three of the schools. This analysis was confirmed by members of the SMTs who indicated that they normally discussed challenges in

their morning briefs and educators interacted and assisted one another. Data further indicated that educators usually met once a month to reflect on what had been accomplished and helped one another on how to overcome some challenges. Two (2) members of the SMTs also mentioned that Mondays were reserved for interactions and for lesson preparation. An indication was made that if there were serious challenges, the district office was involved in order to assist. Judging from the responses there was general consensus that educators were working together.

5.3.1.5 Learning and teaching support materials

The conclusion to be made in this study with regard to learning and teaching support materials is that some of these materials were difficult to understand and poorly prepared (see 2.2.1.3.2). This led to ineffectiveness of these learning and teaching support materials. The researcher further observed that the distribution was unfair when comparing schools on farms and in urban areas. Urban schools were better supplied than farm schools. Furthermore, what this study established as far as the learning and teaching support materials were concerned was that educators had little knowledge and skills to use them. On the other hand, the researcher is of the view that educators should not always wait for the Department of Education to supply them with learning and teaching support materials, but they can also improvise.

The researcher found that the manner in which the members of the SMTs responded to the questions showed that the resources at some schools were adequate. This was evident when one participant (SMT member F) indicated that the largest part of their budget was spent on the resources. He further stated that at the beginning of each year he called all the educators to tell him all things they needed. The resources mentioned were items such as computers, books and variety of teaching and learning aids (see 3.12.4). This was also echoed by another member of the SMT who indicated that resources were adequate but it all depended on how the educators made use of them. The researcher is of the view that the Department of Education supplied the schools with policy documents as no member of the SMT who participated in this study complained about the availability of resources.

5.3.1.6 Challenges in implementing policies

The researcher found that the manner in which the educators responded to the questions showed that workload and resources were their major challenges (see 2.2.1.3.3). Educators mentioned that workload and resources hindered their progress in teaching. The analysis made on this state of affairs showed that most educators who complained about the resources were those in the townships and farm areas. Educators in the former Model C School only complained about the workload. This is an indication that the schools are not equally or equitably resourced.

5.3.1.7 Interventions by the Department of Education

As far as the twenty (20) educators who participated in this study were concerned, the only support they got from the Department of Education was in the form of workshops. This implied that the Department of Education does not have other intervention strategies to assist educators in understanding these teaching and learning policies. Educators were also of the view that though they received training on the various teaching and learning policies, follow-up from the side of departmental officials was inadequate. The researcher is of the opinion that since educators were trained for a few days, it would be difficult for them to implement these policies appropriately (see 2.2.1.4).

All twenty (20) educators conceded that they received training on various teaching and learning policies. Furthermore, there was evidence in this study that educators were trained for C2005, RNCS, the NCS as well as the CAPS (see 2.2.1.3.2). However, educators had different views in terms of the workshops they attended. Twelve (12) educators stated that in most workshops the facilitators gave them activities, guided through the activities and gave opportunities to demonstrate how they were going to implement these policies in their classrooms. Eight (8) educators indicated that the presentations in the workshops were not appropriate to what they were doing practically in their classes (see 2.2.2.3).

The researcher is of the view that for the educators to be effective and efficient in their daily teachings there should be in-service training. These are regarded as those education and training

activities engaged in by educators following their initial professional certification and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to teach effectively (see 2.2.2.2). There were problems with regard to time allocation for training workshops and the long distances travelled to the training workshop centres as indicated by sixteen (16) educators. The researcher also observed that, as a result of the long distances travelled, the educators arrived late for the workshops while others were already tired by the time they reached the training centres.

All six (6) members of the SMTs who participated in this study indicated that they had attended training workshops. One member indicated that they were trained on various policies on teaching and learning such as C2005, RNCS, NCS and lately, the CAPS (see 3.6, 3.8 and 3.12). However, the members of the SMTs had different views about how the training empowered them. Four (4) members of the SMTs indicated that they were expected to read and implement the policies although they had difficulties in interpreting them. Judging from the responses, members of the SMTs did not get enough time to be taken through these policies. This was evident when one of the members of the SMT stated that the training started at 15h00 to 17h00 and some of the attendees arrived late because of the problem of transport. The analysis showed that the members of the SMTs were trained for less than three hours per day for three days, which is a clear indication that the time was inadequate for them to understand most of the contents of the policies (see 2.2.1.9). On the other hand, one of the members of the SMT indicated that he was well empowered and can manage the curriculum. However, further conversation with the participant did not confirm his knowledge of teaching and learning policies (see 2.2.1.3.3). That was evident when the participant further indicated that the policies were imposed on them to implement.

The findings of this study indicated that most educators viewed the facilitators of the workshops for C2005, RNCS, and NCS as not competent enough. There was general agreement that the facilitators of the workshops for CAPS were much better. This implied that the educators are more comfortable with CAPS than the previous policies on teaching and learning. However, it should be indicated that the educators have not yet implemented CAPS but were referring to training but not implementation (see 2.2.1.9). The researcher's assumption was that the facilitators of the workshops on CAPS were more prepared and could satisfy the educators' expectations.

5.3.1.8 Outcomes-based assessment (OBA)

The researcher noticed that the educators had contradicting views about outcomes-based assessment. This was evident when four (4) educators indicated that they assess reading and comprehension, six (6) educators indicated that they assess by using tests and letters, while two educators indicated that they assess learning outcomes (see 3.9.7). Furthermore, the lack of knowledge of outcomes-based assessment was evident when eight (8) educators failed to explain what they understood by the concept outcomes-based assessment. Based on the responses of the educators, it was clear that the concept of outcomes-based assessment was not well understood (see 2.2.1.3.2). It would appear that facilitators may have given the educators contradicting statements about outcomes-based assessment.

The data presented by the members of the SMTs who participated in this study indicated that the Department of Education supplied all schools with assessment policy documents (3.9.7 and 3.9.8). However, the issue was interpretation of these documents as shown by the participants' different concerns. This was evident from one SMT member who indicated that he was not happy with assessment policies because some learners are just being pushed from one grade to the other (see 3.10.6). On the other hand, the other SMT member mentioned that from the beginning of the year, they received the mark sheets from the department and they had to do all the exercises such as exams and orals. In contradiction to the above, the other SMT member stated that each school had its own learning area policies on assessment. The researcher in this study reached the conclusion that members of SMTs interpreted assessment policies differently (see 2.2.1.4).

The lack of knowledge of the various assessment methods was confirmed by the educators' blurred understanding of the different assessment methods (see 3.9.8). Lack of knowledge of the various assessment methods was also evident from the educators' responses. Some educators indicated that assessment methods are the building blocks of tasks while others mentioned that assessment methods are questions and answers. However, some of the educators had knowledge of the various forms of assessment as they mentioned aspects such as assignments, investigations, essays, projects and responses to texts (see 3.9.8). The data presented by educators in this study

showed that some educators knew about the various assessment methods while others had no idea of the new methods used in assessing learners' achievements of learning outcomes.

The researcher noticed that the Department of Education had supplied the educators with assessment guidelines (see 2.2.1.3.2). Educators mentioned some documents such as mark sheets and grids, which are assessment tools. The fact that educators indicated that they had assessment guidelines but they had challenges in implementing them indicated that they could not interpret them appropriately.

The educators indicated that the Department of Education has given them guidelines which they follow when progressing learners from one grade to the other (see 3.10.4). On analysing the assessment guidelines, the researcher noticed that learners in grades 4 to 8 progress with their age cohort. This contradicted the next guideline that indicated that any decision about progression should be based on the evidence of a learner's performance against recorded assessment tasks (see 2.2.1.3.2). Data further indicated that no learner should stay in the same phase for longer than four years (see 3.10.6). The researcher is of the view that some learners therefore progress from one grade to the other without having achieved learning outcomes.

Educators indicated that reporting was done quarterly (see 3.10.4). The educators also indicated that they kept some recording sheets at school for a long time. All educators who were interviewed responded that each school has its own policy informed by the one supplied by the Department of Education. On analysing the recording sheets, the researcher discovered that some educators did not record against learning outcomes and assessment standards as required by the assessment policy (see 3.9.3). The researcher also noticed that the educators used the national codes for recording learner performance (see 3.10.4). However, some educators did not record against learning outcomes and assessment standards.

5.3.1.9 Requirements for successful implementation of policies

All educators indicated that the Department of Education had introduced too many new teaching and learning policies. Data further indicated that the educators were not conversant with these

teaching and learning policies. The researcher, however, believes that the educators should be taken through these policies appropriately. This analysis was confirmed by educators who complained that they cannot appropriately interpret and implement most of the policies on teaching and learning.

5.3.2 Analysis of the observation schedule

In this study the observation schedule was used to gather information about teaching and learning activities and observe how teaching and learning policies were implemented. Lesson observation focused on three categories, namely, lesson plan, lesson presentation and assessment.

5.3.2.1 Lesson plan

The observation made was that four (4) educators stipulated learning outcomes and assessment standards to be addressed when planning their lessons (see 3.8.3.1 and 3.8.3.2). However, the learning outcomes and assessment standards were not written in full, but only the numbers were written in those columns. When asked if they knew what those numbers represented, all five (5) educators referred to the policy documents. The researcher realised that the educators did not know the learning outcomes and assessment standards that they were addressing in their lesson plans. Although the educators stipulated different resources in their lesson plans, the researcher realised that not all the resources were available and used in the lesson presentations (see 2.2.2.1.3.2). The researcher reached the conclusion that what appeared in the lesson plans was not what the educators were doing in class. Furthermore, some educators indicated that the duration of their lessons would be 40 minutes, while others indicated time frames of one, two or three weeks (see 3.8.4.3). Thus, the time frames of the lessons did not correspond with the number of learning outcomes and assessment standards to be addressed.

5.3.2.2 Lesson presentation

In the introduction the researcher found that the educators did not link the known with the unknown appropriately (see 2.2.2.1). This was evident from the educator who instructed learners

to open their books on a specific page and started teaching. Two (2) educators tried to introduce their lessons by asking a few questions but the learners could not respond appropriately. The researcher was then convinced that the learners did not understand the language of learning and teaching as the educator's questions were clear. However, in one school the educator tested the learners' prior knowledge by asking a few questions and the learners responded appropriately. This further convinced the researcher that learners who are taught in their home language understood the educator's questions better than those who were taught in second or third language. The educators stipulated the various teaching and learning activities in their lesson plans, but they did different things in the classroom compared to what they had planned (see 2.2.2.2). The researcher reached the conclusion that most educators did not teach what they had planned for.

5.3.2.3 Assessment

Although the learners did not respond appropriately to the questions, all educators asked questions throughout the lesson presentations. This was an indication that educators understood that assessment should be continuous (see 3.9.5); however, not all educators engaged the learners in assessment activities at the end of the lesson (see 3.9.7.4). However, where this did happen the activities were relevant to the lesson though some learners did not respond appropriately.

5.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the responses of the participants as collected by the researcher during his fieldwork. Of particular significance to this study, this chapter presented the data from educators, members of the SMTs and the learners. Data generated from focus group interviews included educators' views on issues such as teaching methodologies, role of learning outcomes, language of learning and teaching, professional development and outcomes based assessment. Educators' views on CAPS were also presented. Data generated from interviews with members of the SMTs included their views on teaching and learning policies, workshops they attended, support they give to educators as well as the availability of resources. The data from observation schedules presented included lesson plans, presentations as well as assessment. Data emanating

from interviews, observations and examination of documents from the five schools under investigation were further analysed to help answer the research questions to this study. This chapter also made some efforts to answer five of the research questions in this study by linking the relevant data to each of the research questions for meaningful interpretation. The ensuing chapter presents the summary, concluding remarks based on the research study questions and recommendations based on the strategies to improve learners' skills and competencies, language of learning and teaching, learning and teaching support materials, professional development, outcomes-based assessment as well as lesson plans and presentations.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this study was to investigate how educators implement teaching and learning policies in South African primary schools in the new democratic dispensation (see 1.5). Chapter five presented the research findings from interviews, observations and examination of documents (see 5.2). The findings were qualitatively presented in line with the five objectives of the study (see 1.5.2 and 5.2). In order to do this effectively, the aims, objectives and main research questions were re-stated as a background to the presentation of the findings (see 1.5 and 5.2.1). The conclusions and recommendations that are deliberated on in this chapter stem from the preceding chapters.

The aim of this chapter is to give a brief summary, conclusions and recommendations. The findings of all the participants are collated in order to make recommendations of this study. This chapter also contains the summary of the study. In addition, conclusions are formulated based on the findings related to the research questions and limitations of the study. In the light of the conclusions made, pertinent recommendations and areas of further research regarding policy implementation in primary schools are suggested. This is done relative to the objectives of the study.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in general and in primary schools in particular, in the democratic dispensation, have been discussed in different sections of the preceding chapters, (see 1.3; 3.2-3.12). This study provided a deeper understanding of teaching and learning policies in South African primary schools in the new democratic dispensation. It gave voice to different ideas of the participants selected in this study, namely, intermediate phase educators and learners, as well as members of the School Management Teams, (see 5.2). Implementation of teaching and learning policies was investigated, (see 5.3).

6.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this section, the major conclusions of this study are discussed in relation to the research questions as stated in chapter one (see 1.4). This study focused on the teaching and learning policies in South African primary schools in the new democratic dispensation and the objectives were:

- To determine strategies that educators employ in order to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively.
- To establish the knowledge educators and learners have in terms of language of learning and teaching.
- To describe knowledge of educators' needs for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies.
- To identify the kind of training or professional development typically offered to the educators.
- To note inconsistencies in use of the criteria or guidelines used by educators in progressing learners from one grade to the other.

The researcher aimed to answer the following research questions as indicated in chapter 1 (see 1.4):

- What strategies are the educators employing to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively?
- How knowledgeable are educators and learners in terms of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT)?
- What are the educators' needs for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies?
- How are educators trained or professionally developed to implement teaching and learning policies effectively?
- How are learners progressing from one grade to the other?

Based on the interviews, observations and examinations of documents, data were presented and analysed in chapter five which resulted in the conclusions below.

6.3.1 Strategies employed by educators to improve learners' skills and competencies in learning effectively.

Analysis of research question one led to the conclusion discussed in this section of the report. It was found that some educators have changed the way they used to teach after the introduction of the new teaching and learning policies, while other educators did not change (see 5.2.1). Learning outcomes played a significant role to some educators when planning their lessons, while other educators were not guided by learning outcomes in planning their lessons (see 5.2.1). Educators could clearly differentiate between teacher-centred and learner-centred learning (see 5.2.1). It was further found that the Department of Basic Education provided educators with a variety of assessment tools (see 5.2.1).

6.3.2 Knowledge educators and learners have in terms of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT).

The study findings indicated that educators have fair knowledge of the language of learning and teaching, but most learners have poor knowledge of the language of learning and teaching (see 5.2.1 and 5.2.3). The study further found that English is the preferred language of learning and teaching because African learners speak different languages at home (see 5.2.3). Furthermore, most learning and teaching support materials are written in English (see 5.2.1). This study further found that the language of learning and teaching has a negative impact on learning and teaching if learners are not conversant with it (see 5.2.3).

6.3.3 Educators' need for the successful implementation of teaching and learning policies

In this study some educators indicated that members of School Management Teams were supportive, while others indicated that they did not have School Management Teams (see 5.2.1). The study found that schools in urban areas were better supplied with teaching and learning support materials than the schools on the farms (see 5.2.1). Educators could not interpret teaching and learning policies appropriately (see 5.2.1). Furthermore, this study established that workload and resources were major challenges to most educators (see 5.2.1).

6.3.4 Professional development or training of educators to implement teaching and learning policies effectively

The research findings of this study indicated that educators received training on the various teaching and learning policies (see 5.2.1). However some policies were not deemed appropriate to what educators were actually doing in their classrooms (see 5.2.1). The time frames in which educators were trained were not adequate (see 5.2.1). The study found that the only intervention strategy to assist educators in implementing teaching and learning policies was in the form of workshops (see 5.2.1). This study further indicated that the facilitators of the workshops were not sufficiently competent (see 5.2.1).

6.3.5 Progression of learners from one grade to the other

This study established that educators have inadequate knowledge of outcomes-based assessment. Further, the study indicated that educators could not interpret assessment guidelines appropriately (see 5.2.1). Most educators could hardly mention the various methods of assessment (see 5.2.1). Furthermore, most educators were not recording learner achievement against learning outcomes and assessment standards (see 5.2.1). However, the study found that most educators were guided by the assessment policy in progressing learners from one grade to the other and that reporting was done quarterly in all the schools which participated in this study (see 5.2.1).

6.3.6 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

It has been established in this study that educators are more comfortable with CAPS and are confident that it will be implemented in the Intermediate Phase in 2013 (see 5.2.1). Educators view CAPS more positively than C2005, RNCS and NCS (see educators' views in section 5.2.1).

6.3.7 Conclusions from interviews with members of School Management Teams (SMTs)

The study findings indicated that members of the SMTs had different views about teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the democratic dispensation (see 5.2.2). Their contradictory views were an indication that they did not understand these policies well (see 5.2.2). It was established that members of the SMTs attended workshops on the various policies on teaching and learning (see 5.2.2). However, workshops were inadequate in terms of timeframes and members of the SMTs could not interpret these policies appropriately (see 5.2.2). Members of the SMTs had contradictory views in terms of whether the workshops empowered them as curriculum managers or not (see 5.2.2).

The study further found that members of the SMTs claimed that they have supported educators in terms of implementing teaching and learning policies (see 5.2.2). However, some educators were supported while others did not have any members of the SMTs to support them (see 5.2.2). The researcher concedes that members of the SMTs in schools where they existed have good professional relations with most educators (see 5.2.2). It was evident from the data that all members of SMTs who participated in this study viewed a positive school environment for both educators and learners as imperative for teaching and learning to take place (see 5.2.2). The findings of the study revealed that the Department of Basic Education provided schools with resources on teaching and learning policies (see 5.2.2). However, schools did not receive the resources equally or equitably (see 5.2.2). Although the Department of Basic Education provided schools with assessment policies, members of the SMTs interpreted them differently (see 5.2.2).

6.3.8 Conclusions from interviews with learners

The findings of this study revealed that African learners are taught in second or third languages while white learners are taught in their home languages (see 5.2.3). The researcher concedes that learners learn more easily when taught in their home languages (see 5.2.3).

6.3.9 Conclusions from observation schedules

It has been established in this study that educators lack knowledge of learning outcomes and assessment standards (see 5.2.4). Educators could not mention the learning outcomes and assessment standards they have planned to address in their lesson plans (see 5.2.4). Thus, learning outcomes and assessment standards did not play a significant role in educators' planning of their lessons. It was evident from data analysis that the timeframes set by educators did not correspond with the number of learning outcomes and assessment standards they planned to address (see 5.2.4). Although educators stated a variety of teaching and learning resources, they did not use them in their lessons (see 5.2.4).

Furthermore, it was found that most educators lacked skills to link the unknown and the known knowledge learners have in the introduction phase of the lesson presentations (see 5.2.4). Learners' prior knowledge could not be appropriately tested (see 5.2.4). This was furthermore, an indication that learners did not understand educators' questions (see 5.2.4). Moreover, those learners who are taught in second or third language struggle with their learning activities (see 5.2.4).

The findings revealed that educators tried to assess learners continuously during lesson presentations (see 5.2.4). However, learners could not respond appropriately to educators' questions (see 5.2.4). This was further an indication that the language of learning and teaching was a problem (see 5.2.4). It has also been established that the various forms of assessment were not clearly stipulated in the educators' lesson plans (see 5.2.4).

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section is concerned with the recommendations from the findings and conclusions of this study. The data presented and analysed and the findings have yielded a number of recommendations (see 5.2 and 5.3). The recommendations are discussed in the ensuing subsections. The purpose is to enhance the effective implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation.

6.4.1 Strategies to improve learners' skills and competencies (see 1.5 and 5.2)

The Department of Basic Education should train members of SMTs on how to monitor, evaluate and support educators in terms of new teaching methodologies (see 3.5-3.10). It is imperative for all educators to know the learning outcomes of the learning areas they are teaching (see 3.8.3). The HODs for various learning areas should empower educators and make sure that they know the learning outcomes of the learning areas they are responsible for (see 3.8.3). For learners to succeed in achieving learning outcomes, they must have educators who know how to teach every learner to achieve high learning standard. Unfortunately, many educators, especially in developing countries, do not have the necessary skills to do this nor are they equipped to confront the challenges and adverse conditions they face in trying to improve the quality of education in schools (Ahmad, Mohammed, Sharmella & Issa 2009:9). Class size must be reduced to enable effective educator and learner interaction. Educators' interest, tolerance, innovativeness and competency in the subject matter will help sustain learners' interest in the learning activities.

The Department of Basic Education should ensure that all educators in various schools and classrooms are competent to teach the learning areas/subjects they teach. The SMTs can also establish and maintain the culture of teaching and learning by creating positive relationships between educators, learners and the parents. Disciplined setting between educators and learners should be maintained. The SMTs must also make sure that educators are dedicated professionals and are good role models at all times to the learners. Educators should always guarantee that learners are actively engaged in learning through the use of group work, discussions,

investigations, asking questions, and other innovative teaching methodologies to cultivate creative and reflective thinking skills (see 3.5).

Education should make learners self-reliant and competent. There is need to shift from teacher centred to learner centred approaches to teaching as well as a shift from teaching to learning to enhance thinking and reflection among learners and to use learners' prior knowledge and experiences (see 2.2.2). The educators also need to shift from content based curriculum to competence-based curriculum (see 3.5). In education competence can be defined as a complex set of behaviours built on to the components of knowledge and skills. Subject related competence refers to a deeper understanding of the subject and finding an answer to the question. Teaching for competences requires critical teaching where educators help learners find alternative ways of solving problems and looking at issues from different perspectives. Educators should encourage learners to ask critical questions and also to deconstruct and construct knowledge (see 2.2.2). Learning tasks should involve a combination of learning activities like analysis of case studies, working on given problems, doing experiments and various hands on-activities which will enhance thinking among the learners (see 2.2.2).

Competence-based assessment should help learners develop the capacity of being able to act, now and in the future, and to assume responsibility for their actions (see 3.9). A competence is more than just knowledge or skills. It involves the ability to meet complex demands by drawing on and mobilising psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context (Ananiadou & Claro 2009:9). There should be a combination of practical, foundational and reflexive competencies, that is, applied competence (Ahmad et al 2009:39). Competency can be practical, that is, learners should demonstrate that they can do something. Competency can also be foundational, that is, when learners show that they know what and why they are doing it in that particular way and not otherwise. On the other hand, competency can be reflective, that is, when learners show that they can reflect in-and-on their actions and are able to apply their practice and knowledge to new situations. Some of the common reading strategies employed by teachers are pre-reading, while reading and post reading, that is helping learners before, during and after reading (Ahmad, et al 2009:40). Educators should employ various strategies which will assist learners to be competent in what they are learning (see 3.5).

Education should respond to societal needs, advances in technology and globalisation. Teaching and learning should help learners develop their abilities, motivation and desire to play an active role in finding solutions to problems and issues in the society. Educators should have learning area/subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of content (see 3.8). It is imperative for educators to have good communication skills, that is, communicating sensitively appropriate to learners' ages, levels of development, gender, race, as well as individual learning styles and needs. There is also a need for instructional practice, that is, teaching through diverse modes, including new technologies, making curricular content relevant to experiences of learners and management of classrooms (see 3.8). In the ensuing section the recommendations for language of learning and teaching are discussed.

6.4.2 Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) (see 3.4 and 5.2)

The South African Constitution (RSA, 1996 a: art.29) and the South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996: art.6) acknowledge the right of all learners to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where this is reasonably practicable (see 3.4). In accordance with the Constitution and the Schools Act, the Department of Basic Education's language-in education policy (DoE 1997:1) aims to promote multilingualism and the development of the official languages and to pursue conceptual growth amongst learners (see 3.4.1). However, it is recommended that learners be given the opportunity to learn in their dominant home languages if at all possible. Studies have shown the value of home language instruction for ultimate literacy and academic achievement. According to research findings, the home language is the most appropriate medium for imparting the skills of reading and writing, particularly in the initial years of schooling (De Wet 2007:1). Learning in one's language holds a number of advantages. It improves academic performance and access to education and reduces repetition and drop-out rates.

The researcher recommends that in case educators are not able to teach learners in their home language, they should communicate with learners in the language of teaching and learning at all times so that learners are able to practise speaking the language that they are taught in. Educators should always give instructions in simple language at the level of the learners. Learners should be

engaged in learning activities such as debates and role play and be encouraged to speak in the language of learning and teaching (see 2.2.2). The researcher further recommends that educators should use big books with pictures that relate to the story during reading lessons.

According to Department of Education (2010:29), educator training and development programmes should include issues related to language. The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) and curriculum should be streamlined to promote a common purpose and emphasis (see 3.4). The policy on African languages should be stated with greater clarity. In the Foundation Phase, learning and teaching support materials should be made available in all languages.

The Department of Basic Education and policy makers should be persuaded to promote programmes in which home language instruction is given meaningful financial and material support to make the production and rewriting of textbooks and dictionaries across school curricula possible. Educators should be educated on the implications and effects of different language policies (see 3.4). It is also imperative to establish in-service training programmes that will feature, inter alia, topics on the role of code switching, since it was observed in this study that code switching is an important content transmission and classroom management resource.

Learners should be given opportunities to talk and write about previous experiences, individual or group reading of fiction or non-fiction texts, book talks, learner-dictated stories and texts, collaborative and process writing, as well as working on personal word lists (Marungudzi 2009:29). Children learn language when they actually use it to think and communicate in meaningful situations (see 2.2.2). Educators should promote an environment favourable to second language development. Learners should be provided with opportunities to actively construct meaning from the language input they receive from others. Strategies may include body language, visuals and manipulatives in learning activities as well as introducing and formally teaching new vocabulary words. When introducing new words, it is imperative to clearly and effectively convey meaning to the learners, and then, to check for their understanding (see 5.2). Learners should be taught techniques of asking and answering oral questions as well as to participate in classroom discussions, oral presentations and writing reports. Learners should be given guidelines and exercises on the use of dictionaries.

6.4.3 Learning and teaching support materials (see 3.12.4 and 5.2)

The Department of Basic Education is encouraged to give more financial support to schools in order to provide the basic infrastructure. Schools should be provided with sufficient infrastructure that allows easy access to resources for both educators and learners (see 5.2). School libraries should be well equipped to offer effective service to educators and learners. Librarians should be appointed to manage the libraries effectively. Furthermore, current resources should also be reviewed to align with new developments. The Department of Basic Education should ensure that every school has the minimum of resources to function well enough to deliver quality education. Educators in former disadvantaged schools should liaise with educators in the former Model C schools to learn effective use of modern resources. The Department of Basic Education should also make sure that all schools receive resources on time and that they are available to all schools (see 5.2).

Educators should improvise resources by planning and executing activities together. Improvisation in English language requires creativity and resourcefulness; local resources in the immediate environment should be used to develop instructional teaching-learning materials that can assist in the smooth dissemination and transfer of knowledge from teachers to students (Emeka 2009:3). Improvisation requires that educators use resources available in the surrounding area (Yara 2010:3). Asokhia (2009:80) suggests the following guidelines on how to improvise for the lower levels: making cut-out alphabets from old calendars and cardboards, using flashcards to depict the new words in a passage for the older learners, using cut out letters or words for matching or organising experience, engaging learners in the art in order to fascinate them as well as orderly and neatly managing the available space in the classroom. There are possibilities of alternatives to teaching and learning aids, for example if educators need magnets, they can harvest them from broken microwaves and loud speakers. The internet also has many resources for educators that can significantly increase the content of educators' teaching toolboxes (see 5.2.2).

Learning and teaching support materials should be used to contribute to planning of classroom activities. For planning of activities to be successful, it is important to make sure that the learning

and teaching support materials are available in the planning process. Educators should use learning and teaching support materials in team planning. The researcher recommends that educators should increase time spent on planning lessons using the learning and teaching support materials provided. Consideration should also be given to using learning and teaching support materials that support the learning goals/objectives. Learning and teaching support materials should be used to contribute to the educators' knowledge of learning outcomes (see 3.8.3). Learning and teaching support materials should be used to improve learner participation and the achievement of learning outcomes and assessment standards (see 3.8.3).

It is further recommended that educators should manage situations where learning and teaching support materials change the intended activities carefully. The Department of Basic Education and the school should ensure that the learning and teaching support materials also cater for the learners who experience barriers to learning (see 3.8.2.3). Picture-based learning and teaching support materials can be useful in overcoming language barriers. Educators should be guided by the best textbooks available in designing their learning programmes (see 3.8.4).

Developing materials in a multilingual environment requires educators to carefully consider language issues from a number of different perspectives, for example, learners' age, the language they speak at home or in the community as well as their fluency in the language of learning and teaching. Another issue to consider is the level of language used. Educators should also consider the language used in the materials as this can have both negative and positive impact on participation of learners in their classroom performance. Educators should carefully consider how the lesson can be structured to maximise learners' ability to use limited learning and teaching support materials.

6.4.4 Professional development of educators (see 1.5 and 5.2)

The need for high quality professional development is imperative for improving quality education in South African schools (see 5.2). Policy makers increasingly recognise that schools can be no better than educators and administrators together (Guskey 2002:383). It is therefore necessary to find appropriate professional development approaches to ensure that all the educators, even the

most experienced ones, are equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills for improving learner performance (Hirish 2005:40). Just like the practitioners in other professions, educators need to broaden their knowledge and improve their skills over the course of their careers (Report on Teacher Professional Development 2006:79). Research seems to indicate that most professional development programmes for educators are unsatisfactory and do not meet their intended goals (Boyle, Lamprianou, and Boyle 2005: 17). Policy makers have to explore professional development from the side of the participating educators in order to clearly understand what would be best for changing their classroom practice (see 5.2).

According to Robinson (2003:27), recent views of professional development frequently emphasise the importance of involving educators in defining their needs and developing opportunities for their own professional development. To make informed policy and programme decisions regarding professional development, district and school leaders need to know whether professional development programmes are currently reaching the teachers who need them most (Desimone, Smith & Ueno 2006:181). Educators are the key actors in continuing professional development and should be involved in the decisions made by the authorities. Educators should thus be given the opportunity to give their own opinions on professional development programmes (see 5.2).

This study has uncovered major sets of findings and these findings provide suggestions for what the educators identified as the best characteristics of effective professional development programmes (see 5.2). In order for professional development programmes to be successful, they have to be meaningful to the participating educators. The challenge to policy makers and management is to understand what the educators want and what they find meaningful, and then design continuing professional development programmes that respond to the educators' needs. Only if the continuing professional development programmes have personal meaning for the educators, will they have the potential to be transformative and life changing (see 5.2).

It is therefore recommended that for effective implementation of teaching and learning policies, the Department of Education should provide adequate knowledgeable curriculum staff to do extensive training for both the educators and members of the SMTs. Training of educators in new

skills, insights and qualities should be prioritised. Educators' training or professional development should be longer, albeit shorter than initial training (see 5.2). Educators should collaborate and establish learning area/subject clusters to resolve mutual curricular challenges.

Pre-service and in-service training should aim at empowering educators with skills that will enable them to fulfil their roles as mediators of learning. This may have to involve the revision of curricular in teacher training institutions to meet the demands of the present world. As part of educator development, the Department of Basic Education should sponsor educators to take upgrading courses in First Additional Language teaching. Educators are lifelong learners, that is, ongoing education is a requirement for educators in all schools. This can be in the form of workshops, seminars and training courses. Educators can participate in activities such as courses/workshops (on subject matter or methods and other education related topics), education conferences or seminars (at which educators and researchers present their research results and discuss education problems), qualification programmes (e.g. diploma or degree programmes), observation visits to other schools, participation in a network of educators formed specifically for the development of educators, individual or collaborative research or a topic of professional interest as well as mentoring and peer observation and coaching as part of formal school arrangement. This will help educators to stay up to date with new trends and learn new strategies, techniques and methods for classroom challenges (see 5.2).

Professional development must both align with and support system-based changes that promote learning. Quality professional development should focus on supporting the improvement of teaching by enhancing knowledge and skills (see 3.12.7). Professional development programmes should also help to transform educators' thinking in terms of new developments. Professional developers should be guided by the research and practice knowledge about how effective change happens in education settings. The Department of Basic Education should develop a differentiated professional development programmes to respond to educators' range of concerns (see 5.2).

6.4.5 Outcomes-based assessment (see 1.5; 3.9 and 5.2)

The researcher recommends that the Department of Basic Education should conduct workshops on assessment for both educators and members of SMTs (see 3.9). It is further recommended that assessment be done informally during small group discussions and quarterly to compile year marks. People with expertise on assessment should be invited to workshops to share ideas with educators. Facilitators should do continuous follow up and support after such workshops. The number of forms to be filled in daily by educators should be reduced as this is time consuming and, as such, educators tend to develop a negative attitude towards outcomes based assessment (see 5.2). Educators can only implement assessment appropriately and willingly if they can develop a sense of ownership of this kind of approach. This can be done by inviting motivational speakers during workshops.

It is imperative that educators put in place measures to monitor their learners' progress (see 3.10). Educators should assess learners' achievement of learning outcomes as unpacked by the various assessment standards (see 3.8.3). The researcher further recommends that the Department of Basic Education should train educators on the various methods of assessment and particularly on how these methods should be conducted (see 3.9.7). Educators should not only be provided with assessment tools but should be trained on how to develop these assessment tools for different learning areas/subjects. Progression and promotion are essential components of assessment and thus educators need thorough training on how to interpret the various criteria used for progressing and promoting learners from one grade to the other and from one phase to the other respectively (see 3.10.6 and 3.10.7).

Chrissie's (2009:7) suggestion is appropriate for this study, namely, that before planning one's assessment strategies, one needs to set specific outcomes for one's subject/learning area. For the purpose of integrating teaching-learning and assessment successfully, educators should develop assessment plans during lessons. Assessment should find out how much knowledge, skills and attitudes learners have acquired in learning, and how well they can use the knowledge and skills for better life (see 2.2.2). Educators should design and use various evaluative procedures to assess learners' achievement of learning outcomes. Assessment should not encourage reproduction of

content but should look at production of new knowledge (see 2.2.2). Assessment can be done through regular class exercises or assignments in the learners' own time and submitted for control and comments.

6.4.6 Lesson plans and presentations (see 5.2.4)

The following essential aspects of a lesson plan should be addressed: lesson details (learning area/subject, grade, theme/topic, date/s, time allocation/duration); learning outcomes and assessment standards as well as the content analysis (teacher activities, learner activities, resources, teaching approaches/methodologies, assessment activities/ strategies/methods/tools) (see 5.2.2). The educator should know the content, be able to decide on method or teaching approach, level of the learners as well as the learning and teaching support materials to be used in the lesson (see 3.12.5).

According to Milkova (2007:5), a successful lesson plan addresses and integrates the following key components, that is, objectives for student learning, teaching/learning activities as well as strategies to check student understanding. Furthermore, Milkova suggests the following steps for preparing a lesson: outlining learning activities (topic, what learners should learn, what learners should understand and be able to do at the end of the lesson, what learners should take away from this particular lesson); developing the introduction (starting with the question/activity to gauge learners' knowledge of the subject, developing a creative introduction to the topic to stimulate interest and encourage thinking); planning specific learning activities (preparing several different ways of explaining the materials, explaining the topic, illustrating the topic in different ways, engaging the learners in the topic, relevant real-life examples and learners' needs to enable them to understand the topic better); planning to check for understanding (specific questions to check for understanding, deciding whether learners should respond orally or in writing); developing a conclusion and a preview (summarising the main points of the lesson, reviewing learners' answers to gauge their understanding and explaining anything unclear the following lesson) as well as creating a realistic timeline (narrowing the objectives to two or three key concepts, ideas or skills, estimating how much time each of the activities will take and planning some extra time for each, planning a few minutes at the end of the lesson to answer any remaining questions and to sum up

key points, planning some extra activities or discussion questions in case there will be time left, being flexible, that is, being ready to adjust the lesson to learners' needs and focusing on what seems to be more productive rather than sticking to the original plan) (see 5.2.4). The researcher recommends that the Department of Basic Education should provide national templates of lesson plans for all the schools. Educators should strive to establish how learners should learn, what teaching and learning activities they will use and how they will check learners' understanding.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FURTHER AREAS OF RESEARCH

This research provides an insight in teaching and learning policies in the Intermediate Phase classes in selected South African primary schools. It is a step further in the investigation of teaching and learning policies. However, the sample of this study was drawn from the educators, members of the SMTs and learners of selected primary schools only in Gauteng Province. Therefore, it is not representative of the entire population of educators, members of the SMTs and learners in this country. Further studies need to be conducted in other provinces. Its findings might not necessarily apply elsewhere as schooling in South Africa vary within districts in a province and vary across districts in the country. The sample presented only one district in the Department of Basic Education in Gauteng Province. Only public schools were the target population in this study. Further research, focusing on independent schools is needed.

Another limitation is that educators could not be observed over a period of time to establish how they implement these teaching and learning policies. Basically, this study serves as a detailed foundation establishing how teaching and learning policies are implemented in South African primary schools. This study therefore does not purport to be a comprehensive and final examination of how teaching and learning policies are implemented. The sample of this study was drawn from the Intermediate Phase classes only. There is need for a study of the Foundation, Senior and Further Education and Training Phases. Only interviews, observations and documents were used to collect data. Further research, using a combination of these tools and others is needed.

In spite of the limitations and further areas of research mentioned above, this study has achieved its objectives of understanding how teaching and learning policies are implemented in South African primary schools in the new democratic dispensation.

6.6 SUMMARY

The main problem investigated in this study was the implementation of teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. The background to this study was discussed by describing the context, the problem statement and the significance for the investigation. The theoretical frameworks underpinning this study were discussed as well as the review of relevant literature. The methods of research and pertinent concepts were highlighted. Data generated was presented, discussed and analysed. It is the researcher's submission that a critical discourse of teaching and learning policies in South African Schools in the democratic dispensation poses many challenges. Thus the need to explore various options and strategies to overcome these challenges is imperative.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

This protocol will be used for an interview that is estimated to last between one and two hours. The protocol will be administered to the educators and School Management Teams and learners. Please note that due to the open-ended questions the interview format and the precise wording may differ with each interview.

APPENDIX A (1)

EDUCATORS

Strategies employed by educators to improve learners' skills

1. Since the introduction of the new policies on teaching and learning, how has your teaching methodology changed?
2. What role do learning outcomes play in your planning?
3. Explain what you understand by teacher centred and learner centred learning.
4. Please give examples of rubrics or marking grids you may have used for assessment.

Educators and learners' knowledge of the language of learning and teaching

1. What is the language of learning and teaching at this school?
2. Why is this language preferred to be the language of learning and teaching at this school?
3. Which language is mostly spoken at this school?
4. How knowledgeable are the educators and the learners with regard to the language of learning and teaching at this school?
5. What impact does the language of learning and teaching of this school has in terms of learning and teaching?

Educators' needs for successful implementation of teaching and learning policies

1. What role do you think School Management Team play in supporting and guiding you?
2. How effective is the School Management Team in leading the institution?
3. What opportunities are created for team work in the Intermediate Phase?
4. What kind of guidance and assistance did you receive from the School Management Team in respect of assessment procedures and practices?

5. What are the requirements for the successful implementation of the new policies?
6. What challenges do you meet in the implementation of the new policies?

Educators' professional development or training

1. What training did you receive in respect of the new teaching and learning policies?
2. Tell me more about the workshops you have attended.
3. What mechanisms are put in place by the School Management Team for your professional development?
4. In what way does the staff development take place?
5. What support do you get from the Gauteng Department of Education?
6. What were a few of the most important or interesting things for you about the training got or attended?
7. Did you find the training activities relevant to what you were doing in class? If relevant or irrelevant, explain.
8. What is your feeling about the workshops for the implementation of teaching and learning policies?
9. What is your opinion about the competency level of the trainers and co-ordinators of the training?

Outcomes-based assessment

1. An important aspect of outcomes-based education is assessment. Tell me more about assessment procedures you are employing.
2. What are some of the principles of outcomes-based assessment?
3. How do learners know what you are assessing?
4. What are some of the assessment methods you commonly use when assessing your learners?
5. How often do you assess your learners?
6. What do you understand by those different forms of assessment?
7. How are the different forms of assessment incorporated into the planning activities?
8. How do you accommodate for different learning styles?
9. Please name a few departmental guidelines you use when planning assessment.
10. What evidence is there for recording learners' progress?
11. How is reporting of learners' achievement done?
12. Please comment on the school's reporting policy.
13. Which criteria are used for progressing learners from one grade to another?

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

1. First I would like to know your views on Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement.
2. How would you rate your understanding of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement?
3. What training did you receive in respect of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement?
4. Tell me more about the workshops you attended.
5. What are your views when you compare the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, the National Curriculum Statement and Curriculum 2005?

APPENDIX A (2)

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAMS (PRINCIPALS, DEPUTY PRINCIPALS AND HODs)

1. First, I would like you to comment on your understanding of teaching and learning policies in the new democratic dispensation.
2. What training did you receive in respect of these policies?
3. How did the training empower you as a member of the School Management Team?
4. How do you provide the necessary guidance and support to the educators?
5. How are your interpersonal relations with members of staff?
6. How do you ensure that the school environment is conducive for learning and teaching?
7. How do educators access information on curriculum matters?
8. How do you encourage the educators to reflect and examine their teaching practice in the light of the new teaching and learning policies?
9. What teaching resources are available for the educators to use?
10. How do you provide follow-up and support for those educators who require assistance?
11. Please explain to me a few examples of departmental documents, guidelines on the new teaching and learning policies.
12. What policy does the school have on assessment?

APPENDIX A (3)

LEARNERS

1. What language do you speak at home?
2. In which language are most of the learning areas/subjects being taught at your school?
3. How well do you understand this language?
4. Which aspects of this language do you enjoy learning?
5. What impact does this language has on your learning?
6. What is your feeling like being taught in the language that is not your home language?

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT

Dear Educator

Thank you for your time. I am conducting a DEd research study entitled: **Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis**, with the University of South Africa (UNISA). The research is aimed at establishing how teaching and learning policies are implemented by educators in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation. **The study will also involve classroom observations, focus group and individual interviews.** Please be assured that confidentiality for participating in this study will be maintained and the researcher (I) will not share the information you provide with any third parties. You will also remain anonymous, that is, your name or any other personal identity will not be made explicit in any written report that is submitted for publication. If interested, the transcripts of the interviews and the findings of this research will be made available to participants, upon request. Your participation in this research study is voluntary and you can withdraw from this study at any time. To ensure accuracy of data the researcher requests to audiotape the interviews. After the transcription of audiotapes has taken place, the researcher will keep the tapes in a safe place.

I appreciate your cooperation and the time you have put aside to help me in this important research study. Should you have any questions or suggestions, please contact me (Tebogo Mogashoa) at 082 681 7934 or my promoter, Professor M.W. Maila at 012 429 8030.

Your kind cooperation is highly appreciated. The interview will not take more than 2 hours of your time.

Participant's signature _____ Date _____

Researcher's signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX C

Letter to the District Director

University of South Africa
Preller Street
Muckleneuk Ridge
Pretoria
0003
28 May 2012

The District Director
Gauteng North District
Gauteng Department of Education
Yorkcor Park Building
86 Watermayer Street
Zeal De Grace
Pretoria

Attention: Mr. L. Mkhari

Re: Research Studies

I am currently engaged in completing my thesis for a Doctoral Studies in Curriculum Studies as a student at the University of South Africa under Professor MW Maila as my promoter. The title of my study is: **Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis.**

I would like to conduct interviews with Intermediate Phase educators, **grade 4 and 6 learners** as well as members of the School Management Teams as the chosen sample for my study in your district. Strict confidentiality and anonymity of all participants will be maintained. In-depth formal interviewing will be used as the main data collection method. Other data collecting techniques such as classroom participant observation and informal conversations with the educators will be used to supplement data collected through interviews. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the findings and to determine how educators and School Management Teams implement the various teaching and learning policies in the new

democratic dispensation. I would like to conduct my interviews with two schools in the township, two schools in the informal settlement, and one school from the former model C schools.

For further information regarding the study, please contact my promoter:

Professor MW Maila

University of South Africa

Tel: 012 429 8030

Email: mailamw@unisa.ac.za

I trust that my request to conduct the study will be viewed favourably.

Yours Faithfully

T I Mogashoa

Tel: 012 429 4775

Cell: 082 681 7934

Email: mogasti@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX D

Letter to the principal

University of South Africa
Preller Street
Muckleneuk Ridge
Pretoria
0003

The Principal

Attention:

Re: Research Studies

I am currently engaged in completing my thesis for a Doctoral Studies in Curriculum Studies as a student at the University of South Africa under Professor MW Maila as my promoter. The title of my study is: **Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis.**

I would like to conduct interviews with Intermediate Phase educators (three grade four and three grade six) and members of the School Management Team (**principal, deputy principal and head of department**) as well as five grade four and five grade six learners, as the chosen sample for my study in your school. Some observations of classroom activities will also be conducted. Strict confidentiality and anonymity of all participants will be maintained. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the findings and to determine how educators and School Management Team implement the various teaching and learning policies in the new democratic dispensation.

For further information regarding the study, please contact my promoter:

Professor MW Maila
University of South Africa
Tel: 012 429 8030
Email: mailamw@unisa.ac.za

I trust that my request to conduct the study will be viewed favourably.

Yours Faithfully

T I Mogashoa

Tel: 012 429 4775

Cell: 082 681 7934

Email: mogasti@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX E

LETTER TO THE LEARNER

T I Mogashoa
University of South Africa
Preller Street
Muckleneuk Ridge
Pretoria
0003

Dear learner

Re: Research Studies

I am currently engaged in completing my thesis for a Doctoral Studies in Curriculum Studies as a student at the University of South Africa under Professor MW Maila as my promoter. The title of my study is: **Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis.**

I would like to conduct interviews with you as the chosen sample for my study in your school. Nobody will be told of the outcomes of this study. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the findings and to determine how you are knowledgeable with the language you are taught in at your school. You will be asked some questions to check how you understand this language. You will not be given any money and you are not forced take part in this study.

For further information regarding the study, please contact my promoter:

Professor MW Maila

University of South Africa

Tel: 012 429 8030

Email: mailamw@unisa.ac.za

I trust that my request to conduct the study will be viewed favourably.

Yours Faithfully

T I Mogashoa

Tel: 012 429 4775

Cell: 082 681 7934

Email: mogasti@unisa.ac.za

Signature (Learner)

Date

APPENDIX F

Gauteng Department of Education Research Approval Letter



education
Department: Education
GAUTENG PROVINCE

For administrative use:
Reference no. D2013/117

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	3 July 2012
Validity of Research Approval:	3 July 2012 to 30 September 2012
Name of Researcher:	Mogashoa T.I.
Address of Researcher:	P.O. Box 77696 Mamelodi West 0101
Telephone Number:	012 429 4775 / 082 681 7934
Fax Number:	086 636 9241
Email address:	mogasti@unisa.ac.za
Research Topic:	Teaching and Learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis
Number and type of schools:	FIVE Primary Schools
District/s/HO	Gauteng North

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

- The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
- The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

D.M.

- A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
- A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
- The Researcher will make every effort to obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
- Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
- Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.
- Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
- The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationary, photocopies, transport, taxis and telephones, and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
- The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
- On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
- The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
- Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

D.M.
Dr David Makhado

2012/07/04
Director: Knowledge Management and Research

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

APPENDIX G

LETTER TO THE PARENT

T I Mogashoa
University of SouthAfrica
Preller Street
Muckleneuk Ridge
Pretoria
0003

Dear parent

Re: Research Studies

I am currently engaged in completing my thesis for a Doctoral Studies in Curriculum Studies as a student at the University of South Africa under Professor MW Maila as my promoter. The title of my study is: **Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis.**

I would like to conduct interviews with your child as the chosen sample for my study in his/her school. Strict confidentiality and anonymity of all participants will be maintained. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the findings and to determine how learners are knowledgeable with the language they use as the language of learning and teaching at their school. The child will be asked some questions to determine how they understand this language. There are no monetary benefits and the child is not compelled to participate in this study.

For further information regarding the study, please contact my promoter:

Professor MW Maila

University of South Africa

Tel: 012 429 8030

Email: mailamw@unisa.ac.za

I trust that my request to conduct the study will be viewed favourably.

Yours Faithfully

T I Mogashoa

Tel: 012 429 4775

Cell: 082 681 7934

Email: mogasti@unisa.ac.za

Signature (parent)

Date

APPENDIX H

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Learning Area: -----

Category	Criterion	Comments
Lesson plan	Learning outcomes Assessment standards Resources Duration	
Lesson presentation	Introduction Linking with prior knowledge Appropriate examples Teaching and learning activities Integration of teaching and learning support materials Learner participation	
Assessment	Continuous Summative Relevancy	

APPENDIX I



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

Tebogo Mogashoa [647-608-2]

for a D Ed study entitled

Teaching and learning policies in South African schools in the new democratic dispensation: A critical discourse analysis.

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'CS le Roux'.

Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

19 November 2012

Reference number: 2012 NOV/ 6476082/CSLR