TEACHERS AS RECONTEXTUALISERS: A CASE STUDY ANALYSIS OF OUTCOMES-BASED ASSESSMENT POLICY IMPLEMENTATION IN TWO SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

THESIS

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by

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ABSTRACT

The research presented in this thesis is a case study analysis of outcomes-based assessment in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences of Curriculum 2005 in two South African schools. The research consists of two parts: Phase One, 2002 to 2003, was a qualitative case study, interpretive in orientation and using ethnographic techniques, aimed at understanding teachers' responses to curriculum policy and the role of a school-based intervention, located within critically reflexive practice, in supporting change. During this phase, I was a co-participant operating from an insider position. During Phase Two, 2004-2005, I withdrew from the schools and took up an outsider position in order to analyse and theorise the case study.

The findings of the interpretive review revealed a fascinating process of change, with some unexpected results that I lacked the theoretical and methodological tools to process. With support from critical friends, I realised that a dynamic and social process of knowledge recontextualisation had taken place, and that the research had moved beyond its initial goals. Not wishing to compromise my integrity as a qualitative researcher, I changed direction and made use of Basil Bernstein's theorising (1990, 1996) to arrive at a suitable vantage point for the analysis.

The main contention of this thesis is that the new OBE curriculum framework offers exciting opportunities for teacher participation in curriculum processes. However, if teachers are to maximise these and become agents of change, they need to acquire the rules of recontextualisation and reposition themselves in the recontextualising field. This implies epistemological empowerment, which takes time and mediation but

which can be achieved through an approach to teacher professional development located in critically reflexive practice.

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- To Ms Judy Cornwell for checking my references.
- To my friends, for reminding me that there is a world outside the academy.
- To my parents, Muriel and David Woods-Davis, for teaching me to walk in faith, believe in love and live with hope.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Rob and my children, Geoffrey and Kirstin.

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CASE AUDIT

Teachers as recontextualisers: A case study analysis of outcomes-based assessment policy implementation at two South African schools.
by
Pamela Dianne Wilmot

To whom it may concern

I have checked the data files, the case record and the research journals relating to the above doctoral thesis. This is to confirm:

1. the existence of all research documents referred to in the thesis;
2. the accuracy of all such references;
3. the ethical appropriateness of the way in which these references have been used by the researcher.

In sum, it is my professional judgement that the statement of empirical findings is based on the data collected and that the enquiry has been conducted according to the ethical guidelines of respect for persons and respect for truth.

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13 October 2005

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACE	Advanced Certificate in Education
C2005	Curriculum 2005, the first post-apartheid national curriculum for compulsory schooling (the GET band, Level 1 of the NQF)
CASS	Continuous Assessment (school-based)
CAT	Common Assessment Tasks
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CTA	Common Tasks of Assessment
DoE	National Department of Education
EAT	External Assessment Tasks
FET	Further Education and Training band (Level 2 of the NQF), Grades 10-12 of schooling
GET	General Education and Training band (Level 1 of the NQF), Grades R-9 of compulsory schooling
GETC	General Education and Training Certificate
HSS	Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2005
IEB	Independent Examinations Board
ISASA	Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa
MEC	Member of the Executive Committee
NEPA	National Education Policy Act of 1995
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
OBA	Outcomes-Based Assessment
OBE	Outcomes-Based Education
RNCS	The Revised National Curriculum Statement (a strengthened and simplified version of C2005)
SASA	South African Schools' Act of 1996
SS	Social Sciences Learning Area of RNCS

CHAPTER 1

AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This research is a case study analysis of outcomes-based national assessment policy in the Grade 9[1] Human and Social Sciences learning area of Curriculum 2005[2], in two independent[3] South African schools. The purpose of this chapter is to outline the context of the research and describe its conceptual and methodological orientation.

1.2 Background to the study

After the transition to democracy in 1994, the new South African government was faced with the urgent need to dismantle the deeply flawed education system it had inherited. *The White Paper on Education and Training* (Department of Education [DoE], 1995:17) articulated a vision of transformation driven by the need for education and training to empower people to participate effectively in all the processes and institutions of a democratic society and build a nation free of race, gender and any other form of discrimination.

The White Paper on Education and Training acknowledged the educational legacies of South Africa's unequal and divided past, and described the contrasts and paradoxes that characterised the national education system at this turning point in history.

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[1] Grade 9 (Year 9) is the final year of compulsory schooling in South Africa and the exit point of the General Education and Training (GET) band of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The structure and organisation of schooling is explained in more detail in Chapter 3.

[2] Curriculum 2005 (C2005) is the first post-apartheid national curriculum for the GET band of compulsory schooling. C2005 is an outcomes-based integrated learning area curriculum. Geography and History are subsumed under the umbrella of the Human and Social Sciences (HSS) learning area. The curriculum receives more attention in Chapter 3.

[3] The 1996 South Africa Schools Act (SASA) makes provision for two categories of schools: public and private. It is explained in Chapter 2.

Declaring that "a new era has dawned", the Ministry invited "the goodwill and active participation" of all South Africans in bringing about transformation (DoE, 1995:20).

Since the articulation of this new vision, South Africans have witnessed the introduction of a number of policies aimed at reconstructing and transforming the education system. Although many of these new education policies have been acclaimed by international experts as ranking among the best in the world, there is little evidence that the goals of transformation – including redress, equity and democracy – have in fact been achieved (Jansen, 2001:271). Instead, there is abundant evidence of a "policy gap", that is, a "mismatch between policy intention and policy practice" (Sayed, 2002a: 29). Powerful and varied accounts of the chasm between policy rhetoric and practice abound (Jansen, 2001; Mattson & Harley, 2003).

This study focuses on the implementation of a new outcomes-based assessment policy in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences within Curriculum 2005 (C2005), the first post-apartheid national curriculum for the General Education and Training (GET) band of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). C2005, probably the most significant reform in South African education in the 20th century, was intended to enable the educational system to shed the legacy of a divided and unequal past and step confidently into the 21st century. C2005 has been described as "both bold and revolutionary in the magnitude of its conception" (Chisholm, 2000:1). Yet despite its noble intentions, the curriculum transformation process has been characterised by tensions and struggles, and a disjuncture between what was intended and what has in reality proved attainable.

Through my work as a lecturer in the Education Department at Rhodes University in Grahamstown, I have been involved in teacher education in the Eastern Cape, both pre-service and in-service, for more than a decade. The majority of teachers in the Rhodes University Education Department are from historically disadvantaged educational contexts.[4] Through my experience of interacting with them, with

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[4] 904 of the 977 students registered in the Education Department at Rhodes University in 2004 were from previously disadvantaged groups, that is, Black, Coloured, and Asian.

curriculum developers at a post-graduate level, and with PGCE[5] mentor teachers in local schools, I have become aware of high levels of confusion, frustration and anxiety about current educational transformation initiatives, in particular those associated with curriculum and assessment policy.

The findings of research presented in *Changing Class*, a recent book on South African education, provide startling evidence not only of a lack of change but even that “the conscious intent of policy has been contradicted by its outcomes”. Yet in the introduction, the editor, Linda Chisholm, argues against research providing “a simple balance sheet of achievement and failure”, which she claims is too common in national assessments of progress since 1994. Instead, she contends, we need “to present a multifaceted picture of change and continuity” (Chisholm, 2004:2).

It is self-evident that if South Africans want their fledgling democracy to survive and flourish, then they need as a matter of urgency to deepen their understanding of the complexities, tensions and challenges that they face, and to seek ways of resolving the issues that confront them. Although it is context- and content-specific, this study focuses on teachers’ responses to national assessment policy at one level of the South African school system, and thus hopes to contribute, albeit in a small way, to a multifaceted picture of change, continuity and future possibility.

This study is indeed informed by a pedagogy of hope and possibility (Simon, 1992; Giroux, 1997). While illuminating tensions and problems, it seeks to move beyond mere analysis of constraints by opening a window onto what might be achieved, and how. The study is informed by the belief that no matter how flawed the system may appear to be, no matter how complex the tensions within it, no matter how many difficulties and challenges confront us, we owe to it those who struggled so hard for their freedom, as well as to ourselves and to our children, to continue in our efforts to make the vision of transformation succeed. This requires that we embrace and seek to communicate to others a sense of hope and possibility. The following quotation

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[5] The Post-Graduate Certificate in Education is a one year, full-time pre-service teacher qualification which provides an entry point into the teaching profession. I co-ordinate the Educational Studies component and I am the Geography Teaching Method tutor.

encapsulates the essence of what I believe, and the spirit in which this research has been conducted:

> Either we have hope within us or we do not. Hope is a dimension of the soul and is not essentially dependent on some particular observation of the world. Hope is an orientation of the spirit, an orientation of the heart. It transcends the world that is immediately experienced and is anchored somewhere beyond its horizons. Hope in this deep and powerful sense is not the same as joy that things are going well or willingness to invest in enterprises that are obviously headed for early success, but rather an ability to work for something because it is good, not just because it stands a chance to succeed. Hope is definitely not the same thing as optimism. It is not the conviction that something will turn out well, but the certainty that something makes sense regardless of how it turns out. It is hope, above all, which gives the strength to live and continually try new things.
>
> Vaclav Havel (1991)

1.3 The research focus and goals

The research consists of two parts:

- Phase One (January 2002 to December 2003): A case study of policy implementation in two independent South African schools. This phase was a school-based intervention.

- Phase Two (January 2004 to November 2005): An analysis of the case study. This was a period in which I assumed a detached, analytical perspective in order to interpret and describe what had happened in the case study.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the research's two-part design and chronology. It shows how the research consisted of three distinct – although interconnected and interdependent – cycles of analysis that all contribute to its overall meaning. Figure 1.1 also indicates clearly how the thesis presented here results primarily from Phase Two of the research, and pertains to the second and third cycles of analysis and meaning production. I discuss this in more detail in the next section.

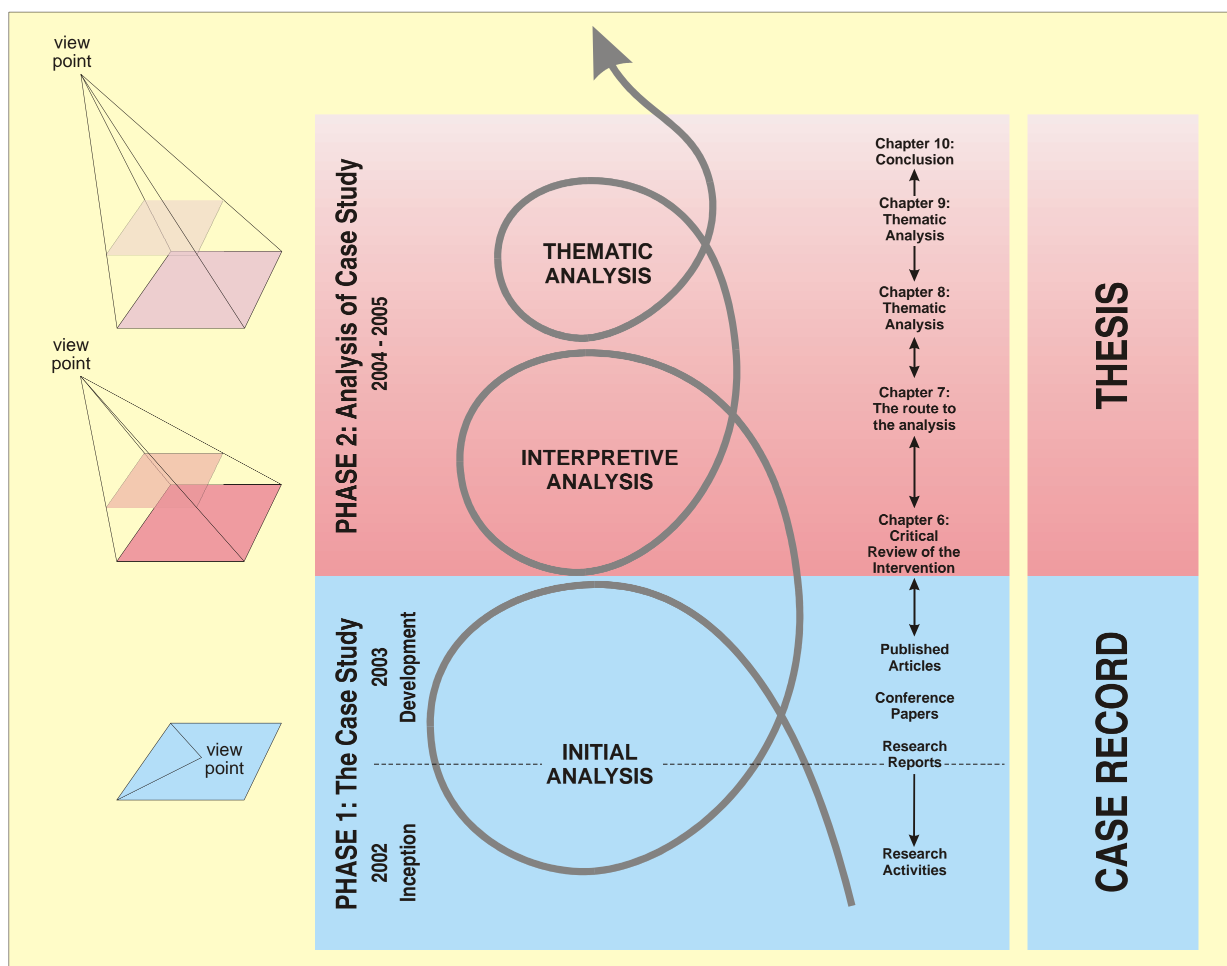

Figure 1.1: Overview of the study

1.3.1 Phase One (2002-2003)

The case study of assessment policy implementation began in January 2002. It was triggered by a State mandate for change that carried the threat of sanction,[6] and my dissatisfaction with an assessment briefing workshop run by the Independent Examinations Board[7] at the two schools that participated in this study. From January 2002 to December 2003, I worked alongside the History and Geography teachers at

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[6] Independent Examinations Board (IEB) Circular No 65/2001, communicated to principals, stated "…all learners in Grade 9 must be assessed for a General Education and Training Certificate (GETC)", and further, "…all schools will write the GETC or face being de-registered through the Schools Act (Act No 84 of 1996)." The circular outlined the General Education and Training assessment model for 2002, and stated that the Independent Examinations Board would provide support and training for teachers.

[7] The Independent Examinations Board (IEB) is a non-governmental association not for profit that oversees curriculum policy implementation in non-public schools that are affiliated to it. The relationship of the IEB to the state and the schools participating in this study is described in Chapter 2.

the two schools, supporting and guiding them as they implemented the first national application of the new assessment model for the General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) in Grade 9.

Phase One of the research, the case study, focused on a topical, important and frustrating issue, namely policy implementation in South African schools. The value of the research was essentially practical: describing policy in practice; providing feedback, albeit context- and content-specific, on policy implementation processes to policy makers; and indicating how certain issues described in general terms in the international literature on assessment play out in a specifically South African context.

When the research was conceptualised in 2002, the primary purpose was to understand how history and geography teachers responded to outcomes-based assessment policy at one level of the South African education system (Grade 9) in a specific context (two independent schools). The overall goals of the research were broad:

- to describe, analyse and document how teachers in a given context respond to the imposition of a new national assessment policy;

- to identify the extent to which teachers are able to develop an understanding of the possibilities and opportunities offered by policy through developing the deep understanding required;

- to describe and analyse the role of a school-based intervention in facilitating and supporting change located within a critically reflexive practice; and

- to analyse and theorise the case study in relation to the national goals of transformation.

Because the research was concerned with understanding an educational phenomenon in a specific context, the case study method was chosen. This method allows for depth of investigation into a phenomenon, and is thus productive of rich interpretation and thorough understanding (Bassey, 1999; Stake, 2000a, 2000b; Flyvbjerg, 2001;

Merriam, 2001). The research goals also informed my decision to use ethnographic techniques, in particular participant observation, and mandated the extended period of time I spent in the schools.

As a participant in the research, I worked from an insider position during this, the first phase of the study. My roles were varied and included those of mediator and scaffolder of learning, co-learner and facilitator. The teacher professional development model underlying the intervention was that of critically reflexive practice. According to this model, teachers need to empower themselves epistemologically in order to be effective agents of change. It was this consideration that led me to adopt a participatory research approach in which democratic research relationships were fostered.

Phase One, the school-based intervention, consisted of an Inception and Development phase in 2002 and 2003 respectively. The research process during the two-year intervention involved weekly meetings and workshops at which the teachers and I explored the new educational policy framework, and participated in curriculum and assessment development processes. Flowing out of this were a series of classroom-based, action research-type cycles which involved the teachers implementing their innovations in Grade 9 classes.

Data generated through thick description were analysed – that is, sorted, coded, indexed, filed, and used to identify trends and patterns, guide the unfolding research process, and document with substantive evidence the research narrative. Throughout this thesis, where appropriate, I cross-reference to the data file(s) [coded DF] which contain(s) evidence that supports claims, descriptions and statements. An inventory of the data files is included as Appendix A (p.350). Because of the quantity of material gathered, it was not possible to include all of it in the thesis (nor was it appropriate given that much of it was in a raw form). Instead, a selection of the data files, as samples of evidence, is included in the Case Record [coded CR] that accompanies the thesis. An inventory of documents included in the Case Record is included as Appendix B (p.365). The case archive, containing all the documents and raw data, is available for inspection should it be required. The case archive was audited (see Audit Certificate at the front of the thesis).

The research outputs of Phase One of the study, the consequence of the 'Initial Analysis' in Figure 1.1, were two research reports [CR 6 & CR 7]. These opened a window on the practical implementation of policy and provided feedback to the national department of education (DoE), provincial education departments, and the Independent Examinations Board. Similarly, two articles published in an accredited South African education journal [CR 5 & CR 8], enabled the research to be disseminated to a wider national audience.

1.3.2 Phase Two (2004-2005)

At the end of 2003, I withdrew from the schools, and assumed a detached position for the purpose of analysing and theorising the study. This involved reviewing the intervention from a position of hindsight (the second cycle of analysis shown in Figure 1.1 and Chapter 6 of this thesis). The findings of the interpretive analysis revealed a fascinating process of change taking place as a result of the intervention and were commensurate with the goals of the research, as outlined above. These included an understanding of how teachers responded to OBE assessment policy, and how a research intervention could support a dynamic process of change. However, analysis of the process of change that took place during the two years also illuminated areas of anomaly and paradox that were puzzling and frustrating. I was unable to make sense of them because I lacked the methodological tools and conceptual framework to do so. I found myself in a methodological and theoretical impasse.

It was thus only when I took up an outsider position and tried to make sense of the intervention that I realised that the study had moved beyond its initial goals. The goals of the research had shifted and evolved to the following:

- to understand the dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that had taken place in the intervention; and

- to develop a conceptual and methodological framework that would facilitate an understanding of what had happened in the intervention.

More specifically, the research goals had become:

- to create a heuristic for describing and making sense of ‘what’ had happened in the intervention in terms of knowledge recontextualisation;
- to probe ‘how’ and ‘why’ knowledge recontextualisation took place as it did in the intervention;
- to describe and analyse the meaning-making process which enabled the teachers’ epistemological empowerment and their acquisition of the recontextualising rules;
- to describe and analyse the teacher professional development model which supported the recontextualising of knowledge that took place in the intervention; and
- to describe and analyse the political implications of the knowledge recontextualisation that occurred in the intervention.

In order to achieve these goals, I undertook a third cycle of analysis (the ‘Thematic Analysis’ shown in Figure 1.1) in which I conceptualised what had emerged in the case study in terms of an external authority.

This phase of the study draws on a Sociology of Pedagogy perspective. It works with Bernstein’s theory (1990, 1996) of how a ‘privileged text’ is produced, recontextualised, transmitted, reproduced and acquired within a differential pedagogic field in order to understand the complexities of the reception of OBE in two South African secondary schools.

Bernstein provided me with a richly descriptive language for theorizing what happened in the intervention. It helped me to understand how, by acquiring a deep understanding of change, teachers may reconstruct their pedagogic identities as recontextualisers rather than reproducers of knowledge. It also helped me to describe

the consequences of disrupting historical boundaries, and the implications this has for teacher participation in national curriculum processes.

By working as I did with Bernstein's ideas, I was able to link curriculum processes at the micro-level of the classroom to those at the macro-level of the national education system. Bernstein also helped me to see modernist oppositional or binary constructs as artificial and rhetorical (Ball 2004:5) and move beyond them. In particular, I was able conceptually to transcend the opposition of agency and structure and consequently understand how the teachers in this study both were self-determining – that is, they 'acted on' and shaped policy as it was enacted in their classroom – and, at the same time, were themselves 'acted upon' and shaped by policy.

1.4 The structure of the thesis

The thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 2: Contextual Profile of Educational Transformation in South Africa
In this chapter, I offer a commentary on the national educational transformation context in which the research is located, and in which all South African educators currently work. Drawing on national and international literature, I illuminate a number of issues relevant to national educational transformation as they pertain to this study.

Chapter 3: Contextual Profile of Curriculum and Assessment Transformation
Flowing out of Chapter 2 and linked to it, Chapter 3 sketches the opportunities and challenges associated with Curriculum 2005 and its assessment policy, in particular, the assessment model for the General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) at the end of Grade 9.

Chapter 4: Contextual Profile of the Research Site and Participants
This chapter provides a contextual profile of the schools and teachers participating in the study and includes a justification for my decision to work in two atypically well-resourced schools in the independent sector.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

This chapter accounts for the qualitative case study method I have used, and the methodological approach I have taken in order to generate, organize and manage data during the two years of engagement with the teachers. I describe the various ways in which I worked with the data and how it involved three cycles of analytical activity (as illustrated in Figure 1.1) and different layers of meaning-making. I explain the collaborative and participatory research orientation I adopted and the challenges and difficulties I experienced when I took up the role of detached researcher trying to interpret and make sense of a process in which I had been so intimately involved.

Chapter 6: Critical Review of the School-Based Intervention

Chapter 6 is a critical review of the processes that unfolded, and the significant events that took place, during the two-year intervention in which the teachers, supported and guided by me, navigated a way through curriculum policy and implemented the Grade 9 assessment model. The chapter is a synthesis of the various research narratives written during the two-year, school-based intervention from the position of an insider.

Chapter 7: The Road to the Analysis

In this chapter, I describe the dilemmas I faced when confronted by the fascinating issues that emerged in the review of the intervention, and the various forms of action that I took to resolve these dilemmas. I describe how, by building a road to Bernstein, I was able to take up a theoretical vantage point from where I could begin to understand the recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place in the intervention.

Chapter 8: Recontextualisation of Knowledge: The Epistemological Dimension

The focus of this chapter is on understanding how and why by empowering themselves epistemologically, the teachers' became recontextualisers of the curriculum as opposed to simply implementers of someone else's interpretation of the curriculum. I analyse the meaning-making process that enabled their acquisition of the recontextualising rules, and illuminate the teacher professional development model and environment that were supportive of recontextualisation.

Chapter 9: Recontextualisation of Knowledge: The Political Dimension

This chapter analyses the unintended political empowerment that was enabled through the teachers' epistemological empowerment, and the implication this had for teacher authority and voice.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

In this chapter, I synthesise the various layers of meaning emerging from the study in order to identify the lessons learned.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXTUAL PROFILE OF SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATIONAL TRANSFORMATION

2.1 Introduction

This research, as outlined in Chapter 1, centres on a case study analysis of educational policy implementation. Its primary goal is to *understand* the micro-level processes of curriculum change within a specific school context. In order to do so, the ‘historicity’ of these processes – that is, the overarching time/place/space framework provided by the macro context in which they are embedded – must be taken into account (Popkewitz, 1999:18). The purpose of this chapter is therefore to explore and describe the complex and dynamic national context of South African educational transformation. As a contextual profile, in other words, its aim is “to provide insight into the status quo of the context in which the project has been operating” (Lotz-Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg, 2000:5).

This is not the first time that I have provided an overview of the national context in the course of the research process. There is evidence in the Case Record (Appendix B) indicating that I sketched the context at different times during the unfolding case study, and communicated it to various audiences through conference presentations and publications [see CR 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9]. My intention in this chapter is to consolidate and extend the discussion that has already taken place.

In this chapter, I describe and explain the significance of key elements in the national landscape of educational transformation (Jansen & Christie, 1999; Sayed & Jansen, 2001; Lewin, Samuel & Sayed, 2003, Coleman, Graham-Jolly & Middlewood, 2003; Chisholm, 2004). These are as follows:

- the vision of transformation in relation to a larger state modernising project driven by two powerful and competing imperatives for change;

- the significance of the values and principles of transformation in terms of the redefinition of roles of educators intended through the policy process and the opportunities, difficulties and challenges it contains;

- and the structure and functioning of the national system in terms of legislation, and processes of devolved authority and control, democratised management and increased participation.

In exploring these elements, I describe a complex and multi-faceted process of change that is fraught with uncertainties and challenges and yet remains vibrant with possibility. A key theme weaving through the discussion in this chapter is that of tension. Educational transformation is taking place along several axes of tension, including:

- social reconstructivism and economic instrumentalism, the two competing modernist imperatives driving change;

- modernist democratic ideals and neo-liberal values, and traditional ways of being;

- centralised and decentralised educational governance and management, and

- curriculum processes and mechanisms for enabling greater teacher participation and bottom-up curriculum approaches, and systemic assessment centralism and top-down curriculum implementation approaches.

Following from the discussion in this chapter, Chapter 3 profiles the national curriculum and assessment policy context with special reference to the General Education and Training band (GET) of schooling in which South African educators currently work, and in which Curriculum 2005 (C2005), the first post-apartheid national curriculum, and its associated General Education and Training (GET) assessment policy, are currently being implemented. This is followed by a contextual profile of the research site and participants in Chapter 4. In Chapters 8 and 9, I discuss

the findings of the study in relation to the issues and tensions outlined in this chapter and the next.

2.2 The vision of transformation

Post-1994 South African education transformation initiatives encompass essential priorities, including redress, equity, democracy and quality. These are seen as being linked to a larger governmental modernising project, the goal of which is to ensure local legitimacy and international credibility (Kraak, 1999:21; Sayed, 2001b:255; Mattson & Harley, 2003:288). But paradoxically, this modernising project is informed by two competing state imperatives for change. The state's socio-political imperative for change is driven by the requirements for redress, social justice and equity, and the need to create a more consistently modern, democratic way of life. On the other hand, the state necessarily responds to an economic imperative for change, motivated by the need to alleviate poverty and unemployment and ensure that South Africa is competitive within a global economy. According to Kraak (1999:21), dissonance between these discourses has given rise to great confusion and controversy in the policy terrain.

In the following section, I draw on relevant literature to explain why there is a tension between the economic imperative for change – linked to a performance-based culture and driven by accountability and the need for increased state regulation and control – and the political imperative, which calls for critical thinking, increased personal autonomy and democratic participation.

2.2.1 The political imperative for transformation

Transformation is underpinned by modernist liberal ideals of a fairer and more just society, increased individual freedom, and a vibrant economy with efficient and skilled workers (Dahlberg in Popkewitz, 2000:202). With its investment in notions of democracy, reason, progress and equity, transformation implies the dismantling and reconstruction of traditional communal social structures. According to Dahlberg (2000:215), the state is committed to the notion of agency or freedom both as a liberal

ideal and, in a Foucauldian sense, as a mode of organising and regulation, a way of administering a population that depends on the capacities of free individuals. The resultant patterns of inclusion and exclusion, and the politics and pedagogy of participation, are among the key issues associated with the modernisation process that are significant to this study. They are discussed in Chapter 9.

Popkewitz (1999:18) contends that modernisation involves the democratisation of the individual, which means that people are "expected to be seen and see themselves as individuals who could act on their world." His thesis concerning how the "register of freedom" became tied to the "register of social administration" is relevant to this study because it points to the tension that lies at the heart of the issues addressed by this study: professional autonomy and self-determination on the one hand, and regulation and external accountability to the system on the other.

Bernstein (1996:5) argues that there are necessary conditions for an effective democracy. First, "people must feel that they have a stake in society" (ibid.:6). This means that "not only are people concerned to receive something but that they are also concerned to give something". Secondly, "people must have confidence that the political arrangements they create will realise this stake, or give grounds if they do not" (ibid.). Bernstein applies these conditions to a school context, but I believe that they are also applicable to the macro-level of the education system as follows: teachers must feel that they have a stake in the system, and be confident that the organisation of the system will realise or enhance this stake, or, if not, be shown good grounds as to why not. Bernstein continues: "if these conditions are to be realised in schools, then we will need to ensure that we have institutionalised three interrelated rights" (ibid.). These are as follows:

- the right to individual enhancement,
- the right to inclusion, and
- the right to participate.

For Bernstein enhancement works at the level of the individual, and has to do with boundaries, that is, "tension points condensing the past *and* opening possible futures"[italics in the original] (ibid.). It is more than simply being more or better, but rather involves securing "a right to the means of critical understanding and to new

possibilities" (ibid.). Bernstein claims that this right is the condition for confidence, without which it is difficult for teachers or students to act. The second right, the right of community, obviously operates at a social level, although Bernstein points out that "to be included socially, intellectually, culturally and personally also requires the right to be separate, to be autonomous" (ibid.:7). Thirdly, Bernstein argues that the right to participate is not only about discussion but also about practice, which has practical outcomes. This is "the right to participate in the construction, maintenance and transformation of order", and is a condition for "civic discourse and practice" (ibid.:7).

Now if we accept this model of pedagogic rights for an effective democracy as credible and appropriate, the question that arises is: How will this model map onto the existing South African system? This key question, concerning the extent to which South African educational policy – in particular the curriculum policy (DoE, 1996, 1997) and the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000) – enables or militates against the realisation of the democratic ideals of participation, freedom and self-determination, is germane to what emerged in the data of this study and is discussed in Chapters 8 and 9.

2.2.2 The economic imperative for transformation

A review of the literature (for example, Popkewitz, 1999, 2000; Ball, 2004a; Olssen, Codd & O'Neill, 2004) reveals that South Africa's education system, like those in other national contexts, has been forced to respond to the needs of a global economy. This has resulted in the integration of the historically separate worlds of work and learning through the creation of a new framework for qualifications, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), as provided for by the 1995 South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act. The consequence has been the emergence of a new discourse that includes notions of skills, re-skilling, outcomes, competence, accountability, quality assurance, life-long learning, and the adoption of an outcomes-based education (OBE) orientation to education and training. The significance of this orientation becomes apparent when one links it to wider debates on performativity.

Ball's (2004b) account of performativity, and the shift towards a performative society, is relevant to ongoing education transformation processes in South Africa. He defines performativity as "a technology, a culture and a mode of regulation, or even a system of 'terror' in Lyotard's words, that employs judgements, comparisons and displays as means of control, attrition and change" (ibid.:143). Ball explains how new forms of regulation based on accountability and competition, which Lyotard describes as a new 'discourse of power', operate as both "a structure of surveillance" and as "a flow of performativities" (ibid.:144). According to Ball, performativity, as a form of governmentality, gives rise to new forms of social and interpersonal relationships in which *we* sit on peer reviews, *we* audit each other, *we* write the accountability reports, *we* run instructional procedures for monitoring and improving 'output' (ibid.:145). It also creates a new kind of teacher – an 'agent' and 'subject' within the regime of the performativity of the system (ibid.:146).

Ball (2004:147) contends that educators have to work within the tension of the time needed for acquiring "the performative information necessary for perfect control" and the time and energy needed for making "improvement inputs," and points to the danger of this producing "institutional schizophrenia". In this study, the implementation of the outcomes-based GET assessment policy in Grade 9, its increased paperwork and bureaucratic requirements, its emphasis on evidence for external accountability purposes and teacher-regulated moderation procedures, provides evidence of the shift to a performative society at one level of the national school system. The GET assessment model constructs a new kind of teacher similar to the one whom Ball describes. This study reveals how teachers in a specific context responded to and navigated their way through the tensions of a policy which is both an enabling mechanism for greater self- determination, and a new form of control (see Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9).

The shift towards performance knowledge and skills as a corollary of trends in the global economy is explored by Olssen, Codd & O'Neill (2004). Their typology of different policy perspectives, in particular their characterisation of the neo-liberal perspective, is useful for understanding the tensions in South African education (ibid.: 81). It illuminates the tension between the notions of 'worthwhile' knowledge as that which develops the mind and character, and knowledge as a form of capital or

currency that can be traded and used to compete in the market place; between education as: “broad and deep and emphasising propositional knowledge and understanding which is not accessible in terms of measurable outcomes,” and education which “emphasises performance knowledge and skills of use to employers which are accessible in terms of measurable outcomes”.

I have described how the vision of South African educational transformation has been shaped, on the one hand, by certain economic forces, particularly those linked to the need to be competitive in the global economy. On the other hand, the vision has been shaped by the need to redress the legacy of the past through the creation of democracy, social justice and equity. How the tension within this vision caused by two competing modernist discourses manifests itself in curriculum policy is discussed in the next section.

2.2.3 The vision of transformation in relation to Curriculum 2005

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), was conceptualised and developed within the vision of educational transformation described in the *White Paper on Education and Training* (DoE, 1995). Within the *White Paper* and in the subsequent adoption of an outcomes- or competency-based system in C2005, there is an enduring and uneasy tension (Gultig, 2003; Jansen, 2003; Mattson & Harley, 2003).

Gultig (2003:173) argues that, on the one hand, C2005 was intended as a blueprint or framework that would unite all citizens as equal in a democratic and prosperous South Africa. As a national project concerned with nurturing a new South Africa, C2005 was politically inspired and driven. On the other hand, it was intended to respond to an imperative for change driven by economic rationality and the desire to be part of a global economy. The tension is evident in the principles informing the curriculum design, which include:

- human resource development, in particular, the need for South African citizens to acquire the knowledge, skills and technologies useful for the workplace and for competing within a global economy, and

- the knowledge and values seen as necessary for effective participation in a vibrant democracy.

The tension manifests itself in the disparity between the critical outcomes of C2005, which call for critical and creative independent thinkers, active participants, problem-solvers and informed decision-makers, and the performance indicators, which are training-inspired and outcomes-based, with learning broken down into discrete skills which, it is assumed, can be demonstrated and measured (Gultig, 2003:173).

The principles of:

- relevance linked to a need for workers in a modern economy to possess appropriate knowledge and skills;
- integration linked to a view of learning that rejects a strict division between academic and practical or vocational knowledge, and
- flexibility which acknowledges the need for learners to progress at their own pace and have choices in terms of how, when and what they wish to learn

are evidence of how an instrumental view of education and training driven by an economic or technical rationality has helped to shape C2005. According to Gultig (2003:174), this view construes school knowledge as validated in terms of its performativity – an extrinsic criterion – as opposed to its intrinsic value and humanising potential (ibid.). Similarly, the principle of life-long learning and the adoption of an outcomes-based orientation to education and training promote the centrality of skill acquisition, of re-skilling and of the transferability of skills, as forms of training appropriate to participation in a modern economy.

This is essentially how Jansen (2003:44) views the situation, maintaining that the state's "internal legitimacy depends on its capacity to involve the educational rhetoric of struggle, through C2005, including the logic of participation," while its "external legitimacy requires it to invoke the language of globalisation – global connectedness and economic competitiveness." Likewise Mattson & Harley (2003:285) contend that the social reconstructivist imperative is evident in the emancipationist discourse and pedagogy of policy. The emancipationist ideals are evident in the broad critical

outcomes of C2005 and the specific outcomes of each learning area, which emphasise critical and creative thinking etc., and its flexible, participatory, learner-centred methodology. The economic imperative is embedded in the discourse of high skills, competency, transferability, performativity and life-long learning. The regulatory ideals are evident in the lists of assessment criteria and performance indicators that serve to commodify and atomise knowledge and emphasise the outputs or outcomes of learning.

Mattson & Harley (2003:286) see the discourse of economic rationality as leaning towards a performance-geared culture driven by accountability and requiring increased state regulation and control, while the discourse of social reconstruction calls for critical thinking, participation and the adoption of democratic values. When implementing C2005 in their classrooms, teachers are thus faced with the dilemma of how to work creatively in the face of potentially conflicting demands that they develop learners as critical and independent thinkers, while at the same time ensuring that they can demonstrate skills deemed necessary for the effective functioning of the economy.

The pressure to modernise and become part of a global community both politically and economically has meant that South Africa has drawn primarily on Western models for curriculum development (Lotz-Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000:30). This is why Curriculum 2005 is referred to as an “indigenised foreigner”: it is an imported model which was developed in very different societies and hybridised for our specific needs (Harley & Parker, 1999:186; Popkewitz, 2000:5).

I have argued previously (Wilmot, 2004b:39) that the evolving national education landscape is fraught with uncertainties and challenges, yet vibrant, dynamic and full of opportunities for enhancement, renewal, innovation and transformation. I believe that teachers have a crucial role to play in effecting change in our schools. If teachers are to work creatively and meaningfully with change, they need to be able to work within the axis of tension created by the two competing forces for change described above. Teachers need to understand the implications that the two imperatives for change have for their professional identity and practice. If they do not, there is a danger that they may not be able to maximise the exciting opportunities for

innovation, renewal and transformation contained in policy and, at worst, become victims of the technologies of the new, invidious and often invisible forms of governmentality that aim to regulate and control education. The extent to which it is possible to realise such an understanding in practice is suggested in Chapters 6 and 8.

In the next section, I discuss the significance of the values underpinning the vision of transformation in relation to teachers' receptiveness to change.

2.3 The values and principles of transformation

In addition to the competing imperatives for change, the *White Paper on Education and Training* (DoE, 1995) describes a dilemma that relates to the values and principles underpinning the vision of education. These include, *inter alia*:

- democracy (through participation)
- freedom (through critical and independent thought)
- equity (through opening access to education and ensuring equality)
- justice (through redress of educational inequalities)
- life-long learning
- improvement of quality and restoration of the culture of teaching and learning.

These values, evident in the curriculum (DoE, 1996, 1997a) and the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policies (DoE, 2000), raise two issues. First, these values, however desirable, are not innocent. As Western liberal values associated with late modernity, they infer a "universal subject" linked to certain identities and "ways of being" which policy makers assume the public and teachers in particular will buy into (Popkewitz, 2000:3-10).

Recent research findings (Chisholm, 2004) suggest that curriculum and assessment policies developed since 1994, rather than achieving the declared goals of redress and equity, have conduced to the expansion of a racially integrated middle class. This is evident, for example, in the research on C2005 cited by Harley & Wedekind (2004:205-206), which points to a widening gap between historically advantaged and

disadvantaged schools. According to them there is little evidence that C2005 has achieved its intended goals. Fiske & Ladd's (2004:81) critical analysis of fee policy shows how, contrary to the expectations of international consultants and policy-makers, the fee policy has done little, if anything, to help historically disadvantaged schools. From these and other accounts, including, for example, Soudien (2004:111) and Muller (2004:227), one may infer a gap between the rhetoric of policy and what is being achieved in practice.

In the context of this study, it is important to understand the mismatch between the policy's intentions and its achievements in terms of the values it espouses and the way in which it constructs teachers' identities. Of the several powerful and varied accounts of the 'chasm' between policy rhetoric and practice, there are two of particular relevance to this research, namely the notions of policy as "political symbolism" (Jansen, 2001:272) and as "mimicry" (Mattson & Harley, 2003:293).

2.3.1 Policy as Political Symbolism

Drawing on his analysis of statements made by senior bureaucrats, politicians and policy analysts, Jansen (2001:272-273) argues that policies developed in the first five years of democracy served the purpose of "political symbolism". He contends that they marked the shift from apartheid to post-apartheid education, and helped to establish the ideological and political credentials of the new government. According to him policy-making was not linked to any serious intention to change practice at the sites where it was to be implemented, that is, classrooms. If we accept Jansen's argument, then it follows that C2005, our first post-apartheid national curriculum, should be viewed in the first instance as 'symbolic' rather than 'realist'.

Jansen argues (2001:273) that since 1999 there has been a shift from a period of symbolic change to one of deep transformation, in which policy is enacted and real change has started to take place in classrooms. This is evident, for example, in the appointment of a committee to review C2005 in 2000, the consequence of which has been the development of a strengthened and streamlined revised National Curriculum Statement. Of significance to this study is the question of whether and to what extent the changes that took place in the school-based intervention (that is, the case study

analysed in this thesis) were real as opposed to symbolic. This is discussed in Chapters 6, 8 and 9.

2.3.2 Policy as strategic mimicry

Following on from their account of the two competing modernist discourses informing South African education policy (see Section 2.2, above), Mattson & Harley (2003:287) contend that the policy lays bare a more profound disjuncture between two different ways of being. Its modernist and modernising project necessarily involves the learner in a shift from a traditional to a modern way of being – which poses huge difficulties for many teachers, particularly rural teachers, in South Africa.

Drawing on Giddens (1990),[8] Mattson & Harley argue that modernist, neo-liberal discourses cannot simply be integrated into traditional settings through policy mandates, specification of teachers' roles and the good intentions of social reconstructionism (ibid.:287). Following Harley & Parker (1999) and Kraak (1999), who also invoke Durkheim's typology of different forms of social cohesion,[9] Mattson & Harley apply the notions of mechanical and organic solidarity within which teachers in schools must construct their professional identities. Their study describes the strategies teachers adopt in their attempts to engage with policy not aligned with their own values and 'ways of being'. Most of the schools in their study were neither wholly mechanical nor organic in their social organization, but caught somewhere in the middle. They found that this can give rise to "an edgy sense of displacement" (ibid.:290).

Mattson & Harley contend that, for schools operating within a mechanical solidarity, the shift to organic solidarity advocated by policy (DoE, 2000) requires a fundamental change. It threatens the foundations on which social cohesion is built and de-values the social order held in place by custom and covenant (Mattson & Harley:291). It runs

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[8] Mattson & Harley use Giddens' (1990) thesis that modernity arose in reaction to pre-modern thought systems and developed as a global project to bring enlightenment to an irrational world. As such, it cannot be integrated with tradition: it can only displace tradition.

[9] According to Durkheim mechanical solidarity cohesion is based on a covenant which binds individuals. With organic solidarity, it is based on contract, obligation and interdependence.

the risk of creating a sense of despair and powerlessness at the very time that teachers are being called upon to play a major role in transformation. They conclude that policy, based on an imported model which emerged in countries with an organic solidarity, assumes as already existing what it is intended to produce and fails to recognise that the shift to an organic mode of solidarity is a fundamental dislocation with the past (ibid.:291). For many teachers the consequence of policy has been the adoption of a "mimicry" strategy in an effort to "look modern" and gain credibility as change agents (Mattson & Harley, 2003:296). Similar trends are evident in earlier studies (Mattson, 2000; Mattson & Harley, 1999), and in a more recent one (Harley & Wedekind, 2004).

Harley & Wedekind (2004:214) insist on the importance of knowledge and understanding of the way in which C2005 is being implemented in schools, without which there can be little hope of achieving the goals of the political project it was intended to serve. Of significance to this study is the associated question: To what extent are teachers who take the values, institutions and technologies of late modernity for granted, able to work creatively within the tension of competing discourses? This question is dealt with in Chapters 8 and 9.

2.3.3 Teacher identities in relation to the policy

The issue of teacher identity and the disjunction between teachers' values and beliefs and those espoused by policy must be viewed against the backdrop of the larger state modernising project and the tensions associated with it (as described above).[10] The questions of teachers' beliefs and values, of how they see themselves and the role they should play in the education system, as against their identity and role as constructed by policy, lies at the very heart of the case study (see Chapters 6 and 8). In this section, I discuss the significance for this study of the findings of recent South African research on teacher identity.

[10] I draw on Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988 as cited in McTaggart 1997:31) notion of teachers' culture as that which includes: the language teachers use and the way in which they talk about their subject and teaching; their 'ways of being' (which includes their values and beliefs and ideology as expressed in their ideas and theories, and evident in the identities they construct for themselves and the roles they perform, and their relationships, that is their position and functioning within structures of the broader system, and their 'ways of doing', that is, their practices and pedagogy.

It is argued that the preferred identity of reflexive practitioners as constructed by the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000) sits quite comfortably with institutions and teachers who take late modernity for granted (Baxen & Soudien, 1999:138). According to Baxen & Soudien, the most self-defining feature of late modernity is self-reflexivity. But for teachers and institutions in contexts yet to fully experience modernity, for example, teachers in rural KwaZulu-Natal (Mattson & Harley 2003:285), policy's preferred teacher identity sits uneasily. Based on their various research experiences, Mattson & Harley concur with Christie (1999) that teachers in our better-resourced, 'historically privileged' schools are far better able to take on the identities constructed by curriculum and assessment policy. This is evident also in the findings of more recent research (Naidoo & Harley, 2004). Similarly, Chisholm (2004:6) argues that while the new curricula have promoted philosophies and forms of education that shift the goals of schooling, this is has been done in a way that facilitates middle-class leadership and its creative self-expression.

Carrim (2003:306) takes issue with theories of teacher identity within a modernist perspective for having "bipolarised structures and agents, professionals and workers." He argues that

> teachers are positioned as purveyors and reproducers of human rights, democracy and citizenship, while ironically their own human rights tended to be ignored. Through C2005, South African teachers are to be re-professionalised with a greater sense of autonomy and decision-making powers. (ibid.:319)

The findings of Carrim's research, which were consistent with those of the Review Committee of C2005, suggest that contemporary South African teachers are caught in the ways of the 'old' whilst wanting to work in the ways of the 'new'. He concludes that teachers do not see themselves as owning the transformation of education in South Africa but as subjects of it. They see themselves as implementers of policy that is handed down to them from the top, rather than as formulators of policy. Carrim calls for teacher development in South Africa to prioritise teacher professionalism and autonomy, and to affirm teachers' role in the formulation of policies as an aspect of their rights as human beings within a democracy (ibid.).

Teachers' roles and participation in curriculum processes are problematised by Jansen (1999a, 2001, 2002, 2003). The findings of research done by Jansen in 1997 suggest that the vast majority of teachers had "very little insight into or substantive participation in the curriculum process" (Jansen 2001:215). He concludes that policy's legitimisation of the discourse of participation is likely for the foreseeable future to remain at the level of rhetoric. Further, he contends that the dominant mode of curriculum policy will retain its centralised and context-blind character (2001:215).

More recently, Jansen (2003:44) and Graham-Jolly (2003:105) have pointed to the likelihood of curriculum policy processes remaining top-down but not necessarily authoritarian. This is because the logic of a top-down 'policy-to-practice' curriculum mode is so strongly entrenched in policy-makers and teachers. Jansen (2003:44) explains:

> There is little understanding that practice can direct policy and less that practice could represent policy. Policy is something that happens in Pretoria, something that is handed down to teachers for implementation. There are no established traditions of locally-driven curriculum development; in fact, studies have repeatedly show teachers willing to declare themselves impotent with regard to curriculum process in South Africa. Again, such an orientation co-exists comfortably with a public discourse about participation, ownership and transparency.
>
> It is important to note however, that even though curriculum policy is proclaimed and issued from central government, such policy is mediated at lower levels of the education system so that what appears in classroom practice is seldom a mirror-image of what was intended by government policy.

The literature on South African education reviewed in this chapter has provided evidence that, for various reasons, teachers are not grasping the opportunities for curriculum participation intended by outcomes-based education policy. The issue of teacher participation in curriculum processes at a level higher than mere curriculum reproduction in the classroom will receive attention in Chapters 6, 8 and 9.

2.3.4 Teacher 'buy in' and ownership of policy

A review of literature from a number of different fields relevant to this study reveals the importance of teacher 'buy in', that is, of a sense of ownership and control of policy on the part of teachers, as a pre-requisite for effecting meaningful change in the classroom (see, for example, Fullan, 1993, 1999, 2002, and Hargreaves, 1994, 2003 in organisational development; Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall & William, 2002 in assessment; Rawling, 2001 and Osborn & McNess & Broadfoot, 2000 in curriculum; Van Harmelen & Kuiper, 1996, Wilmot, 1998, 1999, 2000, and Wilmot & Van Harmelen, 2004 in pedagogy).

According to Fullan (1993:3), any attempt to foist radical change on an inherently conservative school system (he refers to those of the USA, Canada and UK) will run into problems that cannot be solved without a fundamental mind shift concerning change. He argues for education to develop change capacity which will enable teachers, as skilled change agents, to engage "pro-actively and productively" with change (ibid.:4). For this to happen, there must be a "moral imperative" for change, that is, teachers must believe that change will improve an existing situation that needs improving (ibid.:8). Using the example of the implementation of the National Curriculum in England to illustrate his argument, Fullan concedes that an "external stimulus" in the form of a state initiative provided the impetus for change. But for this change to be profound and lasting, a "critical mass" of implicit assent was a necessary precondition (ibid.:40).

Van Harmelen & Kuiper (1996:2) contend that, in the South African context, developing a new mindset about change requires more than the articulation and implementation of policy. It requires the adoption of a new theoretical position. But before this can be achieved, teachers need to articulate and interrogate the theories that inform their current practice. Once they have an understanding their own theoretical perspective, they will be in a position to understand the new theoretical perspective, to recognise its possibilities and plausibility, so that they can grasp its relevance and develop the tools and resources required to put it into practice. In brief, teachers need to believe that the intended policy changes are valuable and necessary and worth any risks they might have to take in order to achieve them.

I agree that teacher ‘buy in’ is an important prerequisite for realising the goals of transformation. However, experience has taught me that teacher ‘buy in’ is not necessarily spontaneous or voluntary. It requires advocacy, knowledge of policy (both declarative and procedural), skills development and experiential learning opportunities. I have provided evidence elsewhere of how this can be achieved in the in-service and pre-service teacher education courses at the university where I work (Wilmot 1998, 1999, 2000, 2004; Wilmot & Van Harmelen 2004). Importantly, I have argued for a deep and critical understanding of change through critical reflexivity as a way of avoiding the dangers inherent in blindly following fashionable, or expedient, or politically correct trends. These issues are discussed at some length in Chapter 6.

The discussion in this section has emphasised the importance of teachers’ values in shaping their identities and beliefs about their roles and responsibilities. In the next section, I focus on the political context of curriculum policy processes. I describe the structure and functioning of the national system, enabling processes and mechanisms for democratising and increasing teacher participation in curriculum processes, and teachers’ positioning and functioning in the national system.

2.4 The South African education system

Although the two schools that participated in this study are located in the independent school sector, it is nevertheless important to understand the larger system of education of which they are part. It has been suggested that the national system is ‘tight’ in terms of its structure but ‘loose’ in terms of its functioning (Lotz Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000:33). In this section, I explain what this means in practice and why it is significant in the context of this study. I start by outlining the following:

- the structural arrangements and organization of the national school system in terms of levels of governance and decision-making, the distribution of authority and responsibility within the three distinct levels that comprise the system, and the position, status and authority of teachers within the structures;

- the administrative and management functioning of the educational bureaucracy at the different levels of the system, namely the national and provincial education departments and schools in the public sector, and the Independent Examinations Board (IEB) which carries out similar responsibilities outside but parallel to the state bureaucracy.

I describe how the stakeholder approach to policy formulation and the principle of co-operative governance have shaped the national education system. They are intended as enabling mechanisms for democratising the system through devolved governance and decision-making, and increasing participation from the bottom up. I identify and discuss the challenges and difficulties of achieving these goals within the South African school context.

2.4.1 The structure of governance and decision-making in the national system

The primary goal of my study is to arrive at an understanding of how and why teachers responded as they did to the imposition of an outcomes-based assessment policy in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences in two independent schools, and the consequences it had for curriculum, pedagogy and teacher professionalism. In this section, I sketch the national system against the background of which the processes in my study unfolded. According to Lotz Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg (2000:33), the national education system needs to be understood in relation to:

- its structure of governance and management/administration, and
- the efficiency of the functioning within the different levels of governance and the bureaucracy tasked with implementing and managing policies as stipulated in the National Education Policy Act 27/1996 (NEPA).

The NEPA adopts a stakeholder approach to policy processes at all levels of the national system in an effort to enlist participation and address the legacy of apartheid. A directing principle of NEPA is co-operative governance, which seeks to devolve power from the centre outwards so as to democratize the system. NEPA inscribes in law policy, the legislative and monitoring responsibilities of the Minister of Education, and the governance and professional management of the national school system. Governance involves determining the policy and the rules by which the

national school system is organized and controlled. Professional management refers to the day-to-day administration and organisation of curriculum, teaching and learning, and the carrying out of the responsibilities prescribed by law.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the structure and functioning of the national education system as legislated by NEPA. It shows the three distinct levels – national, provincial and school – which constitute the structural arrangement of the national system in terms of both governance and professional management. The pyramid shape and gradations of pink shading represent the hierarchical distribution of power associated with governance structures, with power being diffused outwards from the centre and downwards from the national legislature (parliament) at the apex of the pyramid, to the school governing body in the bottom tier.

On the left side of the left face of the pyramid, the official responsible for policy determination and legislation within each level is shown, while on the right side of the left face, the head of the professional management of education in each level is shown. The front face of the pyramid shows the educational bureaucracy, which consists of the national and nine provincial departments. Schools, the sites of policy implementation and teaching and learning, occupy the bottom tier. Schools in the independent sector are shown as next to but outside the public sector.

Governance and decision-making at the national level are carried out by the Minister, who is responsible for policy determination and legislation through the national parliament. In the second tier, policy determination and provision of education is carried out by the Member of the Executive Council (MEC) responsible for education in each province and the provincial legislature. At a school level it is the responsibility of the school's governing body (SGB). Importantly, each tier falls under the authority of the one above it. For example, while a school's governing body may formulate policy and lay down the broad guidelines for decision-making in a school, it does so under the authority of the provincial and national structures.

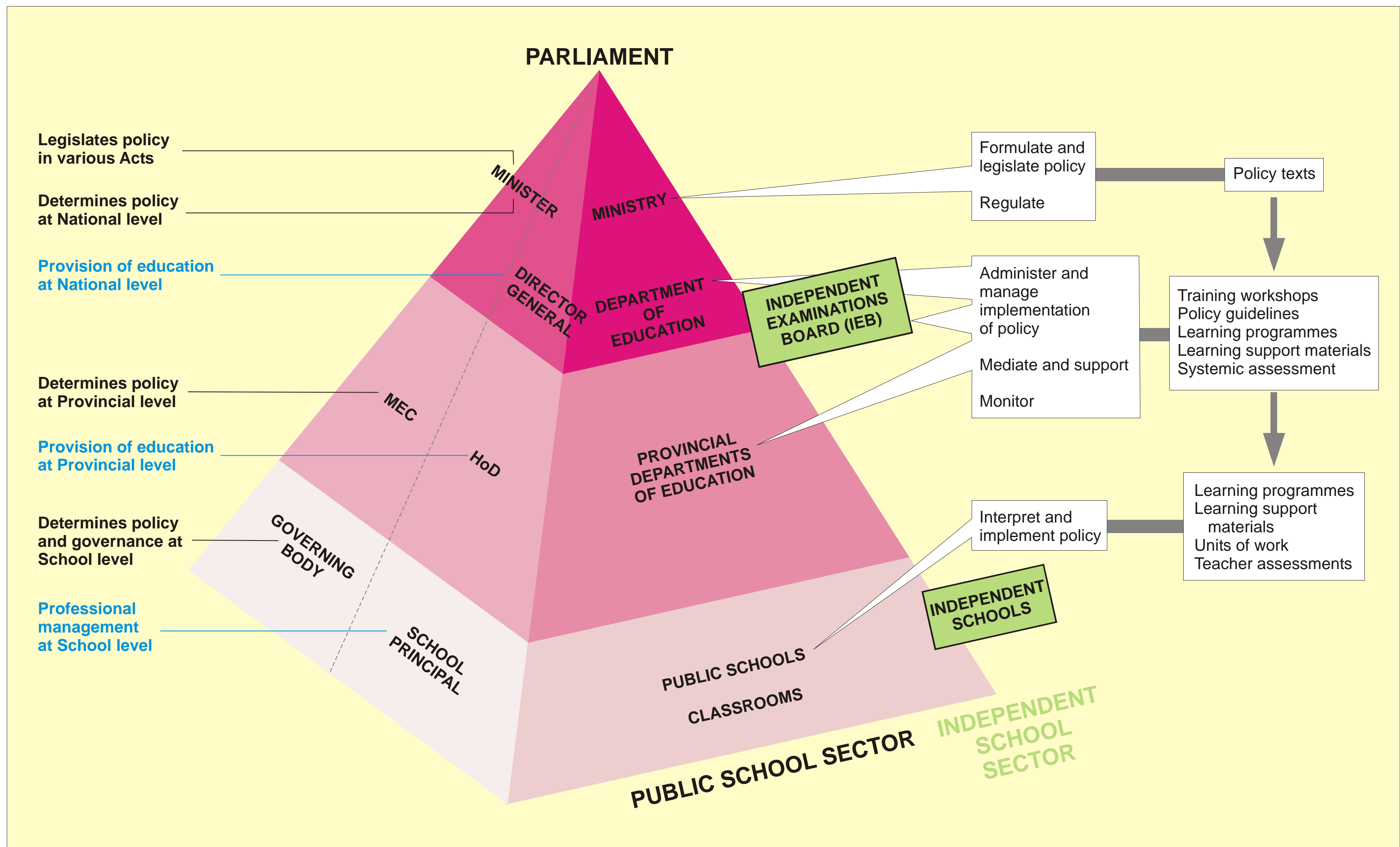

Figure 2.1: The structure and functioning of the South Africa school system

Although the principle of co-operative governance means that laws, regulations and rules can be made within each of the three levels, the Minister and his/her Ministry are responsible for national norms and standards and thus have more power and authority than the provincial legislatures and local government authorities (SGBs). This means that while there are more opportunities for self-determination and autonomy *within* each level and, because of the principle of co-operative governance, *between* different levels, these occur within a tightly structured system characterized by hierarchical power relations.

Unequal power relations militate against the realization of NEPA's inclusive, democratic and participatory ideals. According to Motala (2001:242), the analytical framework used for policy in South Africa has paid little, if any, attention to structural constraints on the ability to participate actively. This is particularly pertinent to what emerged in the findings of the school-based intervention, as reviewed and analysed in Chapters 6, 7 and 9.

2.4.2 The Independent School sector

The schools that participated in this study are part of the independent school sector which exists parallel to but outside the three-tiered structure of the public school system (see Figure 2.1). The existence of independent schools is guaranteed by the South African Constitution of 1996, and the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996. According to the Constitution section 29(3), while any person or organisation may establish and maintain an independent school at his or her own expense, the school must be registered by the head of the provincial Department of Education, its standards must not be inferior to standards at comparable state schools, and it must not discriminate on racial grounds (Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004:161).

The independent school sector is very small (2,3% of the national school system [DoE 2004:4]). The sector grew rapidly from 1990-2003, and has changed considerably in diversity and socio-economic spread, with the majority of learners currently enrolled in independent schools being black (Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004:143). Of the 1 951 schools registered in 2001, roughly 880 were members of an association, the largest of which is the Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa (ISASA), followed by the

Catholic Institute for Education (CIE). Associations are jointly represented at a national level by the National Alliance of Independent School Associations (NAISA). Representation is also evident at a provincial level. Despite there being considerable internal politics within the various associations, it is argued that "the force for cooperation against common threats has proven stronger than the divisiveness within the sector," as is demonstrated, for example, by the many joint submissions made by NAISA to government (ibid.:154).

The independent sector has a partnership with the state at both a national and provincial level, and is represented on policy forums and statutory bodies (Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa, 2005). Although public-private partnerships are explicit government policy, Hofmeyr & Lee claim that the independent school associations have experienced difficulties with government participation in formal national partnerships (2004:170). The relationship between the public and independent sector is dynamic and complex, characterised both by collaboration and by ongoing power struggles and contestations. With reference to the development of the new national GET assessment at Grade 9 level that occurred during this research, there was cooperation between the DoE and IEB at national GET assessment developmental workshops, but the result was the parallel and separate development of new assessment instruments.

As its name suggests, the Independent Examinations Board is a non-governmental, non profit-making association, governed by a board. It was set up in 1988 as a response to the loss of the Matriculation Board's Senior Certificate Examination and the threat of inferior and segregated examinations imposed by the apartheid regime (Independent Examination Board, 2004). Whereas the various associations to which independent schools are affiliated are focused primarily on supporting school governance, the IEB as an examining board plays a professional management role which is varied: administering and examining, supporting and overseeing curriculum policy implementation in the schools that write its Grade 12 examination (some independent schools elect to write the DoE's examination rather than that of the IEB). It also plays an important role in teacher training and support.

A major concern in the independent sector has been a recent trend towards increased state regulation and control of the sector. According to Hofmeyr & Lee (2004:163), this first became evident in 1999, when Minister Asmal announced the state's wish to have greater centralized control over the independent and public school sectors. It culminated in The Education Laws Amendment Act No.50 of 2002, which granted the Minister regulatory power over a range of areas, including curriculum and examinations for both sectors. The Act represents an erosion of independence and, as Hofmeyr & Lee point out, has brought to the fore the issue of the extent of control the state has over independent schools. A state-initiated mandate for change carrying the threat of schools being de-registered, which provided the trigger for this study, is an example of the state's attempt to regulate schools – albeit within a framework ostensibly characterised by decentralisation, increased participation and the democratisation of education.

Guided by the principle of co-operative governance, the IEB, like other stakeholders in education – including for example, trade unions, universities and teacher unions – has been an active participant in national curriculum and assessment policy formulation and developmental processes. In terms of its functioning, the IEB (IEB homepage, 2003) claims to:

- provide support for the provinces
- provide capacity building and support for C2005 implementation in several provincial departments at a foundation level;
- be contracted by the DoE to provide nation-wide training in assessment at a Grade 3 and 7 level
- play a significant role in the design and establishment of the National Qualifications Framework, and the structuring of standards for C2005 through direct participation in policy development and through workshops and conferences
- develop a Grade 9 assessment package, which evolved over a number of years and was driven by a search for better and different ways of assessing learners
- design and run "training packages and programmes to develop the knowledge, confidence and practical skills of practitioners in using new forms of assessment and in getting up to standard…".

The flexibility and efficiency with which the IEB performs these functions, and the extent to which it is receptive to greater participation from the bottom up, were key issues in this study (see Chapter 9).

2.4.3 The functioning of the national system

Although tight in terms of structure, because of the principle of co-operative governance, the national system is 'loose' in terms of its functioning. This is illustrated in Figure 2.1, which shows that while there is a social division of labour in the educational bureaucracy at the national and provincial level, there are also significant areas of overlap. This has implications for curriculum policy processes, as I explain below.

Muller (2000:16) contends that in order to understand the complexity of the challenges we face in current curriculum processes, we need to distinguish between the state's "formal political authority and the administrative functions located mainly in the education bureaucracy." Formal political authority is effected through legislation, and the "administrative regulation of knowledge is effected through the bureaucracy of education departments and associated agencies, and it is on this domain of interpretative cycle that knowledge is packaged in its explicit school curricular form" (2000:17). This means that knowledge selected and legislated as policy is then interpreted and regulated by the educational bureaucracy. According to Muller, the two modes are usually quite closely aligned. This is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 shows that at the top of the hierarchy, by virtue of the power invested in him by the 1996 NEPA, is the Minister of Education. The Act assigns to the Minister and the Ministry the responsibility for generating policy, for legislating it and for monitoring its implementation. The human resources in the Ministry and DoE are, however, the same. This means that the actual work is done by officials within the National Department of Education (DoE) under the auspices of the Ministry. According to Muller (2000:17), the same people are both "legislators and interpreters".

Prior to 1994, the system was even more tightly controlled by the state,with a high degree of insulation between the state and society. This meant that legislation and interpretation within the bureaucracy were integrated activities, performed by the same people in an undemocratic way that excluded participation by all major groups in society (Muller, 2000:17). The adoption of a principle of co-operative governance in 1994 was intended as a means of counteracting the potential danger of the dominant political party in government having too much power. It has, however, not been without its difficulties.

According to Lungu (2001:92), the problems associated with devolving power have stemmed from internal politics and variations in the use of established processes within and between education departments since 1994. He also cites the difficulties inherent in the sheer logistics of ensuring adequate representation in a policy area as large and as complex as education, which consists of nine departments, thousands of schools, labour unions and interested non-governmental organizations. Thirdly, he contends that the stakeholder approach presumes that participants have the knowledge, skills and interest to engage effectively and meaningfully in policy debates, which has not been the case. There continues to be a tension between the policy ideal of devolved curriculum processes and increased participation by all stakeholders, and what is actually being achieved in practice.

A stakeholder approach to policy making (and the passing of the NEPA to support it) was introduced in order to address the legacy of apartheid by enlisting as much input from the public as possible (Carrim, 2001:105; Donaldson, 2001:66). According to these writers, the stakeholder approach has not been without its challenges. Carrim (2001:105) asks two questions which are relevant to my research: First, what are the emerging patterns and problems associated with a democratic approach to policy making? Secondly, has such an approach increased the participation of people in practice?

In terms of the principle of co-operative governance, the Ministry, and by association the Department of Education, invites representatives of the academy and other specialized research organisations and consultancies to be part of policy formulation

task teams, for example curriculum. Figure 2.1 shows how at a national level the independent school sector is represented by the Independent Examinations Board and the National Alliance of Independent Schools' Association. Officials from these bodies participate in national curriculum forums and task groups.

The state education bureaucracy, which oversees the management and administration of policy, consists of the national and nine provincial departments of education. The national DoE sets the norms and standards for curriculum policy. Interpretation and implementation of policy is devolved to the provinces and – for schools in the independent sector that write the IEB matriculation examination[11] – the IEB. Depending on the level, overseeing and administering policy implementation includes, to a lesser or greater degree and in varying combinations, the following activities:

- interpreting and transforming policy into curriculum documents and guidelines
- packaging knowledge into an explicit school curricular form
- mediating policy and guidelines through the design and development of curriculum and assessment exemplars, and
- modeling policy through practical activities at workshops.

These activities are linked to the notion of regulating policy in practice. They involve interpreting and transforming knowledge contained in the primary policy text into secondary texts, and then, through various acts of re-interpretation, into yet other texts. On the one hand the system creates dynamism, and on the other hand confusion. The new education framework, in promoting as it does a shift towards increased provincial responsibility in curriculum processes, represents a flatter management structure. It has not been a problem-free transition.

Lotz Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg (2000:33) describe how, in the context of the *Learning for Sustainability* project, situations arose where DoE curriculum trainers contradicted, and thereby undermined, their provincial colleagues' interpretation of

[11] Some schools in the independent sector opt to write the state as opposed to the IEB matriculation examination at the end of Grade 12.

the curriculum. The situation has been exacerbated by poor and ineffective communications within the provincial and district offices as a result of a high turnover of staff, and the inefficiency of the 'cascade' training model (ibid.:37, 53).

The 'cascade' model, adopted for curriculum training by the national and provincial education departments, has evoked strong criticism. It works on the principle of the training, by the DoE, of a core of officials in the provincial departments of education. The latter then 'cascade' the knowledge they have gained to officials at district offices. The district officials are then expected to 'cascade' the curriculum knowledge to teachers in schools.

According to the Review Committee of C2005 (Chisholm, 2000:55), the cascade model was inappropriate for preparing not only teachers in schools for the implementation of C2005, but also departmental officials. A lack of capacity within some provincial departments and a superficial understanding of the new curriculum framework have militated against officials being able to perform the role of curriculum interpreter or developer.

In the case of the *Learning for Sustainability* project, teachers did not always have confidence in the curriculum developers, and curriculum developers did not seem to have the confidence to conduct workshops with teachers except when they were fulfilling a dissemination of information function by informing teachers of the technical requirements for curriculum implementation (Lotz Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg, 2000:38). This has resulted in an approach to teacher training which is focused on the technicalities of change and privileges procedural knowledge at the expense of a rich knowledge of the epistemology and pedagogy of C2005 (ibid.:53).

More recently, Jansen (2003:35), drawing on case studies of curriculum change in South Africa, investigates how the state-managed curriculum policy is working in the face of the tension between a legacy of a top-down, tightly controlled, authoritarian, fragmented and racialised curriculum framework, and one that is open-ended, democratised and participatory. He raises two points of significance to this study. First, according to him, the policy-to-practice logic is deeply entrenched in policymakers and teachers, with little understanding being evinced of the potential of

practice to shape policy. This means that the top-down curriculum orientation that has been so dominant in the past is likely to remain, and that policy ideals will remain the stuff of rhetoric (ibid.:44).

Secondly, and perhaps more worrying, is Jansen's observation that although curriculum policy is developed and promulgated by central government, it is subjected to various interpretive acts as it moves through the system to classrooms. What is achieved is seldom a mirror image of what was intended. Jansen points to the danger of misinterpretation of policy as a result of the various agents involved in the movement of policy through the system themselves not understanding the policy. The question of how to guard against the danger of knowledge deformation was also raised by Muller (2000:67). It is discussed in more detail in Section 2.4.5, below. Jansen concludes that through a variety of mechanisms, intended and unintended, educators and administrators at varying levels of decision-making give new meanings to national policies, irrespective of how strong the political authority of the state may be (2003:45).

The structure and functioning of the national system, in particular the functioning of the IEB, is discussed in more detail in Chapter 9. Noticeably absent in the discussion up to this point has been mention of the functioning of teachers in relation to the structure and functioning of the national system. I focus on this in the next section.

2.4.4 Teachers' functioning in the national system

Traditionally, the primary function of South African teachers in relation to policy has been to implement it. In terms of authority and decision-making, teachers occupy the bottom tier of the national system (as shown in Figure 2.1). Since 1994, policy initiatives have reflected a shift away from a traditional view of teachers as technicians implementing someone else's policy, a view promoted and maintained by the top-down, authoritarian and fragmented national system during the apartheid era (Jansen, 2003:35; Jansen & Middlewood, 2003:51).

The adoption of an outcomes-based education orientation effected through the development and implementation of the national curriculum framework (C2005) in all

South African schools, was an attempt to loosen up a previously tight school system (Malcolm, 1998:82; 2001:206). The new OBE framework is intended as an enabling mechanism for the democratisation of the curriculum and the empowerment of teachers through increased participation in curriculum developmental processes. It is evident, for example, in the DoE's adoption of a national framework around which provinces and schools might build their own learning programmes (DoE 1997a), and in the establishment of a planning framework aimed at increased teacher participation in learning programme development at a school level (DoE 1999).

The issue of teacher participation, or lack of participation, in education policy processes has received much attention in South Africa by the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005 (Chisholm, 2000; Lotz Sistka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000:33; Malcolm, 2001:206; Jansen & Middlewood, 2003:55; and Chisholm, 2005:194). A key theme running through the literature cited is the lack of teacher capacity for participating in change, which is linked to the notion of South African teachers being technicians as opposed to critical professionals. Gultig (2003:177), citing Harley & Parker (1999), goes so far as to argue that "organizationally and psychically C2005 and related educational policy presupposes the kind of system it aims to build but which is currently lacking in South Africa".

In the previous top-down, authoritarian system underpinned by a technical approach to curriculum (Frame, 2003:19), South African teachers were not expected, nor were they prepared, to participate in curriculum development processes. Jansen & Middlewood (2003:52) describe the movement of the curriculum through a "chain of command" from the DoE at the top of the hierarchy to teachers in the lowest tier. Despite the policy shift towards localised curriculum development processes, that fact that most South African teachers have no experience of curriculum development militates against the effective implementation of the policy in schools. The situation is exacerbated by many of the official 'trainers' having themselves been trained in a technicist manner under the previous authoritarian system and having failed to develop the high level of skills required by the new curriculum framework.

This discussion has highlighted the problems facing South African teachers in their new role as curriculum developers. I still believe that teachers, as the primary

implementers of change, have a vital role to play in effecting change in South Africa schools. However, if they are to implement policy meaningfully, that is, in ways that achieve the goals of transformation, they need to develop a deep understanding of change, as well as the appropriate attitudes and skills to work creatively within the opportunities and constraints of policy.

2.4.5 The curriculum policy process in relation to the national system

The conceptual framework developed by Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold (2003:66) is a useful aid to construing the movement of policy through the system. They use the ideas of 'policy as intended', 'policy as implemented' and 'policy as attained' to describe how policy snakes its way from the Ministry and DoE to the provincial departments and their regional and district offices, and then into schools and classrooms. For the schools that participated in this study, the curriculum process was similar but different, with the IEB working parallel to but separately from the provincial departments.

Given the difficulties arising from the lack of capacity within the system, one might infer that the movement of curriculum from its site of policy formulation to its site of enactment in schools and classrooms is slow and recursive rather than linear. It involves the interpretation and re-interpretation of policy by the DoE and provincial departments and IEB through various activities including workshops, the production of different texts, including, for example, manuals and guideline documents, learning programmes and learning support materials and exemplars.

The strength of the various acts of interpretation and reinterpretation is that they help to create what Muller (2000:11) refers to as "dynamism" in which there is a series of micro-processes of interpretation taking place simultaneously and parallel to each other in the different departments and organisations. On a less positive note, my experience with in-service teachers at the university where I work has revealed high levels of frustration among them arising from confusion over which interpretation is 'correct' or 'valid'. This issue is discussed in Chapter 9.

The various acts of interpretation of policy give rise to the dilemma of how to determine the relative status of the various policy and guideline documents emanating from the national Department of Education. This is illustrated by the following example. Subsequent to the recommendations of the Review Committee on C2005 in 2000, the national Department of Education published two Assessment Guideline documents, an electronic one in March 2002 and an undated booklet later in the year. Neither, according to Hendricks (2003:29), can enjoy more than a nebulous "indeterminate status". Hendricks points out that a document only counts as official when it has been printed in the Government Gazette, and that discussion or guidance documents, while possessing a certain "moral status", have "an indeterminate status until they have been legislated or officially ratified" (ibid.).

The situation is exacerbated by the National Qualifications Framework, which makes provision for new and alternative channels for becoming an accredited provider of training and education in South Africa. This has resulted in a mushrooming of providers operating at the school level, which has in turn given rise to a multitude of different policy interpretations. By the time curriculum reaches schools, it has been interpreted and re-interpreted for teachers both within the structures mentioned above and by publishers and learning support material developers.

The curriculum policy process may be likened to playing "broken telephone", a game in which the message gets increasingly distorted with each relay. It thus comes as no surprise when Muller asks: "How do we ensure that the deforming potential of redescription is minimized?" (2000:20). He identifies two mechanisms: public assessment systems and school visits or inspectors, both of which he argues "depict the school as a highly controlled instructional site where the official ideology is reproduced." His observation alerts us to the implications of the state's recent innovations.

The introduction of an outcomes-based curriculum that emphasizes the outputs of schooling, and the introduction of the GETC, a national assessment at the end of Grade 9, both represent a shift towards increased state control and regulation at an earlier stage of schooling than was the case previously. At the same time as the state is increasing its grip on teachers and schools, it is putting itself at risk. If the deformities

are worse than anticipated, they will manifest themselves in the form of a high level of failure in the GET Grade 9 assessment. This will affect the lives of millions of learners and damage the credibility of the state education system. It may well be part of the reason why in July 2005 the DoE took the decision, once again, to delay the full implementation of the Grade 9 national assessment.[12]

In spite of a shift towards greater teacher participation in education and policy's intention to develop reflexive educators (DoE, 2000), the review of literature in this chapter suggests that South Africa still has a long way to go. While the new curriculum framework provides far greater opportunities for teachers to be curriculum engineers and designers, its integrated design feature assumes an unrealistically high level of curriculum knowledge and skill capacity on the part of teachers.

The analysis in this section has shown that, while there are distinct and clearly demarcated organizational structures in the national system, there is flexibility in terms of functions, roles and responsibilities within the structures. A loosening-up of the system is part of the intention of transformation. This is evident in the creation of the NQF, in the participatory and negotiated approach taken to education policy formation which sought to involve stake-holders from all sectors connected to training and education, including teachers, and in the new identity of teachers as extended professionals who are able to play multiple roles (see the Norms and Standards for Educators' policy [DoE 2000]).

I have highlighted the complexities inherent in the current operation of policy processes. Although the state's leaning towards an open-ended, participatory curriculum framework provides more exciting opportunities for teacher participation in curriculum processes than in the past, there is a darker side to it. The shift from a centralised bureaucracy to more indirect forms of state control in which teachers are 'apparently' given more freedom, but only within the context of predetermined expected outcomes, carries certain risks (Janse van Rensburg & Lotz Sisitka,

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[12] Assessment Instruction 16 of 2005, issued by the Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education states: "This serves to inform you that the Minister of Education… has approved a deviation from Section 17 of the *Framework for Assessment and Promotion of Learners Grade 9 (2003).* This implies, for 2005, the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA) will not have a Section B, and will only have Section A tasks that should be completed over an extended period."

2000:77). In Chapter 6, I provide evidence of how this situation manifested itself in the context of the case study or school-based intervention.

At a deeper level, the state's efforts to democratize the curriculum policy process through the creation of self-regulating citizens carries with it a new, perhaps more invidious form of governmentality. Muller (2000:94), drawing on Popkewitz (1995), asserts that "this relation of self-regulation to governmental regulation through the construction of creative self-regulating citizens is the emblematic policy aim of governmentality", and "the form of symbolic control pursued by curriculum reforms." Citing Ball's (1994) notion of "steering at a distance", Muller (2000:95) contends that there are many recurring motifs in curriculum policy worldwide that are used as a means of coupling self- and governmental-regulation. One of these, learner-centredness, is relevant to my study and will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.5 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter, I have profiled the national context in which my study is located. I have illuminated various axes of tension within which South African educational transformation is taking place and which are relevant to this study. I have described how educational transformation is linked to the state's larger modernising project which is driven by competing political and economic imperatives for change. I have explained that transformation is not value-free and assumes that teachers will buy in to the values underpinning the new education framework. I have outlined the structure and functioning of a national education system, which consists of a public and independent school sector. Finally, I have focused on teacher participation in national curriculum processes.

Chapter 3 is a continuation of the profile of South African educational transformation. The focus, however, shifts to curriculum, in particular, C2005, and its associated GET assessment policy, and teacher professional development.

CHAPTER 3

PROFILE OF CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT TRANSFORMATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is a contextual profile of curriculum transformation currently taking place in the General Education and Training band, that is, Grades R to 9 of compulsory schooling in South Africa. The purpose of this chapter is to describe how the broad vision and the values of transformation outlined in Chapter 2 translate into the GET curriculum and assessment framework, and how the latter are mapping onto the complex and diverse landscape of South African classrooms.

The chapter consists of four parts, the first three of which focus on curriculum, assessment and teacher professional development respectively. More specifically, in terms of the curriculum framework, I describe:

- the structure, organisation and implementation timeframe of C2005
- the vision of transformation in relation to C2005
- the design features of C2005 and their underpinning epistemology and pedagogy, and
- the implementation of C2005 and the state and teachers' responses.

In terms of the GET assessment framework, I describe:

- the GET assessment policy in relation to international assessment trends
- the assessment model for the GETC
- issues and dilemmas associated with the Grade 9 assessment model, and
- the political economy of assessment.

In terms of teacher professional development, I describe:

- the official teacher training model and approach, and
- alternate models and approaches.

In the final section, I summarise and conclude the discussion.

3.2 The national curriculum framework

This study focuses on the implementation of a new outcomes-based assessment policy in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences of Curriculum 2005 (C2005), the first post-apartheid national curriculum for the General Education and Training (GET) band of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). In this section, I describe the GET curriculum framework in relation to the NQF, the organisation of schools, the time-frame for implementation of C2005 and the General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) at the end of Grade 9.

The NQF consists of 8 levels, two of which – the GET and Further Education and Training bands (FET) – span formal schooling (DoE, 1996). The GET band incorporates a reception year (Grade R) and nine years of compulsory schooling (Grades 1 to 9). It is divided into three phases – foundation, intermediate and senior – each of which consists of three years. Grades 10 to 12 constitute the FET band.

When it is applied to the current situation, this categorisation of the school years is problematic. First, the GET band does not 'fit' the physical division of primary and secondary schools that is the norm at present. Grade 7 is the final year of primary schooling and is usually physically and experientially separate from Grades 8 and 9, the latter being part of secondary school. This translates into a significant discontinuity between Grades 7 and 8, with little, if any, interaction between teachers in the primary school teaching the first year of the three-year senior phase of C2005 and their secondary-school successors.

The implementation of C2005, which started with Grade 1 in 1998, was completed in 2003 when it reached Grade 6. Table 3.1 summarises the implementation of C2005, and the introduction of the Grade 9 national assessment programme. It shows how, in 2000, Curriculum 2005 underwent a review. Importantly, this took place *before* C2005 had been implemented in Grades 8 and 9 in the secondary school. The review was a response to the problems and difficulties associated with implementation. It was

also triggered by startling evidence emerging from research, which showed that South African children were under-performing in relation to both C2005's expected levels and international standards for the same age (Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003: Chapter 3; Muller, 2004: 233-327). Table 3.1[13] illustrates a curriculum policy landscape that is evolving and fluid, and characterised by struggles and challenges described elsewhere in this chapter.

Table 3.1: Curriculum implementation timeframe

Year	C2005	GETC assessment	Review of C2005	RNCS	FET curriculum
1998	Grade 1				
1999	Grade 2				
2000	Grade 3 and 7		Report of the Review Committee		
2001	Grade 4 and 8		Draft RNCS		
2002	Grade 5 and 9	Pilot GETC	RNCS accepted		
2003	Grade 6	(certification postponed)		Grade 1,2,3	FET curriculum accepted
2004		(certification postponed)		Grade 4,5,6	
2005		(certification postponed)		Grade 7	
2006				Grade 8	Grade 10
2007				Grade 9	Grade 11
2008					Grade 12

The problems of implementation associated with C2005, although similar for all teachers irrespective of grade or phase, have been more acute for teachers in secondary schools, where the situation is going to get worse before it gets better. As shown in Table 3.1, secondary school teachers (Grades 8 and 9) have had to continue with the implementation of C2005, despite the fact that it has been reviewed and revised. To make matters worse, Grade 9 teachers were mandated to implement C2005's associated assessment policy in 2002. The intention was to pilot the General Education and Training Certificate using a new assessment instrument, the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTAs) at the end of 2002.

[13] The shaded area shows the period during which the school-based intervention, that constituted the case in this study, took place.

In October 2002, the DoE announced that because of problems with translation and with the distribution of CTAs to schools, coupled with the lack of teacher training, the writing of the CTAs would not be compulsory. Similarly, in 2003, the year in which the certification process was meant to have started, the CTA was postponed.[14] The postponement provided a valuable window period for Grade 9 teachers and learners to try out the new assessment instrument and for research such as this case study to provide feedback to the state. It also bought time for the state to ensure that the system was able to deliver the educational goods promised to the public. The GETC has since been postponed again.[15]

Table 3.1 shows how, in 2006, secondary school teachers will be: implementing the RNCS in Grade 8; continuing with C2005 in Grade 9; implementing the new outcomes-based FET curriculum in Grade 10, and teaching the traditional discipline-based curriculum in Grades 11 and 12. It is likely to be a daunting task for even the most skilled and experienced teacher.

It is patently obvious that the time frame for the implementation of the curriculum has been unrealistic and inappropriate, given the parallel and simultaneous review and revision process. The fluid and unstable curriculum environment has in the mean time made life very difficult for teachers and learners alike. For Grade 9 teachers, it has been exacerbated by the need to implement an assessment model aligned to a curriculum statement that is flawed and outdated, while at the same time trying to stay abreast of curriculum developments in other levels of the system. It has been challenging and difficult and a source of frustration and confusion for secondary school teachers, including those who participated in this study.

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[14] The Department of Education's decision to postpone the GET certification process until the end of 2004 came as no surprise. The reasons given were, inter alia, "to build capacity within the system; prepare teachers and learners for the assessment of outcomes; trial and develop recording and reporting procedures" (IEB Circular No 41/2002).

[15] Assessment Instruction 16 of 2005 from the Province of the Eastern Cape Department of Education, dated 13/06/2005, informed schools "… that the Minister of Education, Ms Naledi Pandor (MP), has approved a deviation from Section 17 of the Framework for Assessment and Promotion of Learners Grade 9 (2003)".

3.3 Outcomes-based education and Curriculum 2005

Numerous accounts (for example, Christie, 1999; Jansen 1997, 1998, 1999b ; Kraak, 1999) have been written of the origin and roots of OBE in South Africa (which, contrary to what some teachers and officials think, is not the same as C2005). The NQF has an outcomes-based design and orientation, and it is a legal requirement that all curricula that it authorises, irrespective of the level or provider, adopt an OBE orientation. A key issue associated with this orientation is its origin in industry, which has led to questioning of its appropriateness for education.

Explaining how OBE emerged historically in South Africa, Jansen (1999b:14) writes:

> The historical account emphasises that OBE did not emerge as a coherent and comprehensive curriculum reform in South Africa; its origins lie in a number of disparate influences, both internal (for example, competency debates in labour) and external (for example, the Spady version of OBE in the United States); both historical (the apartheid legacy) and contemporary (managing the contradictory claims of reconstruction, redistribution and reconciliation); both educational (performance-based learning) and economic (globalisation pressures to participate meaningfully in competitive economies).

This statement highlights the complexities and tensions inherent in OBE, which have tended to carry over into the new curriculum framework and impact on teachers. The following summary is an amalgam of ideas drawn from the literature on OBE in South Africa of relevance to this study (see for example, Jansen, 1997, 2001, 2003; Lotz Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg 2000; Malcolm 1999, 2001; Muller, 2000, 2001, 2004; Sayed 2001, 2004; Gultig 2003; Jansen & Middlewood 2003; Govender 2004; Harley & Wedekind 2004):

- C2005's outcomes-based orientation is an industry-inspired approach. It was adopted because it was seen as appropriate (by labour and the unions, in particular the Congress of South African Trade Unions [COSATU]) for integrating the historically separate worlds of work and education. As such, it was seen as a means of opening up a previously tight dualistic system that consisted of an academic and vocational stream;

- An outcomes-based orientation to curriculum, driven by outputs and outcomes as opposed to inputs, is seen as an enabling mechanism for devolving curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom. It creates opportunities for teacher participation in curriculum design and decision-making, and offers more flexibility in terms of the selection of the content of education, thus opening up multiple pathways to reach the outcomes. It assumes a high level of teacher knowledge and skills, and professional autonomy.

- An outcomes-based curriculum orientation, with its emphasis on tangible and concrete outcomes, is seen as providing the state with a management and control mechanism. It signals a shift to external accountability to the state and the increased importance of, and need for, public assessment systems to monitor teachers.

- An outcomes-based orientation, while decentralising curriculum, is seen as creating a situation more in need of external validation, in which quality assurance and control play an increasingly important role. It is based on a low trust approach, and represents a de-professionalising of teaching.

- An outcomes-based curriculum, in emphasising as it does the products or outcomes of learning, is driven by assessment. Outcomes enable comparability in terms of the learners' performance in relation to the levels specified by the curriculum, and comparability between learners, schools and national systems. Outcomes-or competency-based education has been the driving force behind the standards-based educational reform movement evident in many national contexts.

- An outcomes-based curriculum framework's emphasis on skills rather than content is seen as promoting an atomisation of knowledge into discrete skills which can be transferred to other contexts. The emphasis on performance promotes shallow as opposed to deep learning. Deep learning cannot be broken up into discrete actions or skills.

- An outcomes-based approach is underpinned by the principle of 'design-down' from the critical cross-field and specific outcomes for a particular learning area rather than a prescribed list of content. It represents a radical departure from the way teaching has happened in South African classrooms, and requires a major mindset change amongst teachers.

- An outcomes-based curriculum framework makes assumptions about teachers' discipline and curriculum knowledge, and school-based curriculum development processes. In the case of C2005, the situation is exacerbated by the lack of a coherent conceptual framework, and this is due to integration being emphasised at the expense of conceptual development and progression, and under-specification of content.

OBE, as outlined above, has given rise to axes of tension within which the major battles associated with curriculum have taken place between different interest groups in South Africa. Through its flexible methodology, OBE is on the one hand seen as a technology for devolving curriculum processes to the micro-level and as an enabling mechanism for greater participation and self-determination in educational processes. On the other hand, because of its emphasis on the outputs or outcomes of education, OBE is seen as being used by the state as a mechanism for managing, monitoring and regulating the education system. This tension is at the nexus of all the tensions within which this study on assessment policy implementation is located. The extent to which teachers are able to work productively within this tension is explored via the case study findings in Chapters 6, 8 and 9.

In Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.3), I described how, on the one hand, C2005 has been shaped by an instrumental view of education linked to economic rationality and the desire to be competitive in a global economy. This is evident in C2005 policy which calls for education, particularly the Senior Phase Grades 7 to 9, to prepare learners for the life of work after school (DoE, 1997b:6). This was a key force that shaped the decision to adopt an outcomes- or competency-based orientation for the NQF and hence for all curricula in South Africa.

OBE was the most significant force shaping the design of C2005, which is based on generic critical outcomes and specific outcomes for each learning area. The latter outcomes are linked to assessment criteria and lists of performance indicators. While the outcomes are non-negotiable, an OBE orientation is flexible in terms of the selection of content. OBE is an enabling mechanism for devolving curriculum design processes to the individual teacher. At the same time, however (as described in Chapter 2, Section 2.2), OBE also signals a shift to a new form of governmentality, and a new way of regulating teachers under the guise of decentralised curriculum processes.

Importantly, the Review Committee found that C2005's design was significantly flawed (Chisholm, 2000:18). This was addressed by reducing the design features (for example, performance indicators and range statements were scrapped), and making the language more accessible and simpler by removing the assessment-driven terminology which is evident in the National Curriculum Statement (Chisholm, 2005:197).

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. C2005 was seen as fostering learning which encompassed human rights, multi-lingualism and multi-culturalism, and a sensitivity to the values of reconciliation and nation building (DoE, 1997a: foreword). The principle of learner-centeredness was adopted because of its emphasis on participation, active learning and non-authoritarianism. This approach was seen as appropriate for developing an ability to reason independently, engage in open argument and accept multiple solutions to a single problem (DoE, 1997b:6). These abilities are clearly indicative of the subject's rational autonomy, freedom and responsibility, as envisaged by the emancipatory and democratic ideals of policy. However, despite the importance of the political and social intent of C2005, little research has been done on the extent to which the rhetoric of social justice and human rights has been achieved in practice (Harley & Wedekind, 2004:211).

Harley & Wedekind (2004:212) argue that meliorism, that is, a commitment to 'what should be' to the exclusion of a serious consideration of 'what is', has characterised C2005. They argue that because of it, policy-makers overlooked the profound

inequalities that characterise the South African school landscape. According to them, this has led to a situation in which C2005 has become 'scriptural', that is, underpinned by faith and belief rather than rationality (ibid.:212). Citing Morrow (2001), they argue that the simplistic oppositionalising of the 'old' and 'new' has led to a belief that:

> If we are opposed to Apartheid Education then we must be in favour of OBE. We might be a bit unsure of what OBE is, but we must find ways to make it work, because it is the path we have chosen to transform education in South Africa, it is our new scripture…
> (Morrow, 2001 in Harley & Wedekind, 2004:212)

This, according to Harley and Wedekind, has resulted in a disturbing tendency to act as though OBE cannot be debated or modified. A non-negotiable stance towards OBE is evident in the brief given to the Review Committee of C2005: the brief was to review C2005, not OBE (Chisholm, 2000:5). From this one may infer that OBE is the new order and as such is not open to scrutiny or challenge, other than in terms of how to improve and resolve issues associated with implementation and management. This is disturbing in the light of research findings suggesting that the pedagogical project of C2005 is working against its social and political transformative goals (Harley & Wedekind, 2004:217; Muller, 2004:2; Parker, 2004:1).

A national assessment at the end of Grade 9, the exit point of the GET band of the NQF, will provide a powerful indication of the extent to which C2005's goals are realistic and achievable. The General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) is a high stakes self-assessment instrument that the state will be able to use for accountability purposes. The public will be able to use it to judge the credibility and effectiveness of the state's promise to improve education and raise standards, especially among those groups disadvantaged by the apartheid regime. This takes on a new significance when one considers that existing research on C2005 indicates that South African learners are lagging in terms of the C2005's expected standards and international standards (Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003:chapter 3; Muller, 2004:233-237). The issue of whether C2005 and its assessment model could enhance learning and raise standards was crucial in this study. It is discussed in the research reports (CR 6 and CR 7) and Chapter 6 of this thesis.

3.4 Curriculum 2005

C2005 is regarded as the most significant reform in South African education in the twentieth century. It was intended as a means of breaking away from the past and catapulting South African education into the 21st century. C2005 has been described as "both bold and revolutionary in the magnitude of its conception" (Chisholm, 2000:1). Yet despite its noble intentions, the curriculum transformation process has been characterised by tensions and struggles and a disjuncture between what was intended and what has been attained in reality.

Early curriculum documents described C2005 as a 'paradigm shift' because it represented a radical departure from the previous curriculum in terms of theoretical underpinnings, design features, teaching and learning processes, and assessment (DoE, 1996, 1997a). A paradigm shift was seen as necessary for normalising and transforming teaching and learning in South African schools (DoE, 1997a:1). This mandated a shift away from a traditional aims-and-objectives approach to an OBE approach (DoE, 1997a:1). OBE is seen as an enabling mechanism for effecting the desired change.

C2005 advocates a shift from a system based largely, albeit in varying degrees, on the tenets of positivist epistemology and behaviourist learning theory to one located within the ambit of constructivist epistemology and learner-centred education (DoE, 1997a, b). Key features of the new curriculum framework include:

- a shift to an integrated curriculum in which traditional discipline boundaries are collapsed. This has resulted in history and geography being subsumed within the Human and Social Sciences Learning Area

- a view of teaching/learning as a participatory and interactive process characterised by a high level of activity-based learning and non-authoritarianism

- a shift from a teacher-centred didactic approach to one in which the teacher facilitates learning

- a broader notion of assessment as a process concerned with gathering rich evidence of the process and product of learning from different sources using a variety of techniques, and

- the adoption of an OBE orientation which emphasizes the outputs of education and is assessment-driven, offers greater flexibility and devolves curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom.

A review of the literature (see for example Christie & Jansen 1999; Czerniewicz Murray & Probyn, 1999; Taylor & Vinjevold 1999; Chisholm, 2000; Lotz-Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000; Sayed & Jansen 2001; Taylor, 2002; Parker, 2003) reveals two recurrent issues associated with the theoretical framework underpinning C2005 as outlined above. The first issue is the DoE 's lack of rigour in establishing a conceptually strong theoretical framework, which has had consequences in terms of how C2005's epistemological and pedagogical underpinning have been interpreted by officials and teachers alike. Secondly, mistaken assumptions were made about the contextual reality of South African schools in which C2005 was to be implemented. These issues are discussed in the next section.

3.4.1 C2005: Theoretical issues

The DoE's attempts to develop a theoretical framework for OBE drew heavily on Spady's 'Transformational OBE' model and used polarised schemata in which the old and new were constantly oppositionalised (Lotz-Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000:51). Criticised for its limiting and limited views of curriculum and learning, it also helped to promote the naïve and simplistic view among teachers and officials involved in C2005 training that anything 'old' was 'bad' while anything 'new' was 'good'.

This is evident in the way in which constructivism, for example, is presented as being in 'opposition' to 'traditional' ways of teaching and about constructing knowledge

and not receiving it – which implies that all knowledge is already in the minds of learners, who do not need to 'receive' any new knowledge (Lotz-Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg, 2000:51). Chapters 8 and 9 deal with how the issue played out in this study.

The naïve and simplistic interpretation of constructivism on the part of the DoE has been criticised by Moll (2002) for resulting, for example, in teachers adopting the view that they should not 'teach' in the traditional sense but only 'facilitate'. This has not only derogated from the importance of teachers but effectively removed them from the classroom stage, promoted a disregard for factual information and memorization, and privileged everyday knowledge and experience at the expense of principled discipline knowledge.

Dichotomising the 'new' and the 'old' is not only contrived and unnecessary, but also dangerously misleading. In assuming as it does that all existing ('old') practices are 'bad' and in need of radical transformation, it adopts a context-blind approach to curriculum change. Given the legacy of apartheid, the landscape of schooling is diverse and uneven. The Chisholm Report (2000:11), acknowledges that progressivist, learner-centred principles underpinned the work of many teachers in South Africa prior to the advent of OBE. The failure to recognise the multi-dimensionality of educational contexts and practices has been identified as a major weakness of C2005 initiatives.

Of significance to this research, particularly to the case study method it uses, is the recognition that change is context-specific. According to Rogan (2000:119), current efforts to implement C2005 assume that all schools are essentially the same and will therefore benefit from the same kind of training and implementation strategy. He contends that, while policy mandates for change, for example C2005, are a national affair, the interpretation and implementation of change is a process which is context-specific. He claims that "the process of change is an intimate affair that will play out differently in each and every school" (ibid.). We need to understand how teachers working in different contexts, each with their own particular set of problems, challenges and opportunities, respond to change. This necessitates the creation of "test beds" where the implementation of C2005 can be developed and researched (ibid.).

The school-based intervention reviewed in Chapter 6 opens a window onto what C2005 looks like in practice.

3.4.2 C2005: Design features

According to Malcolm (2001:209), Curriculum 2005's combination of learner-centred and outcomes-based education, together with its particular set of critical and specific outcomes and its absence of strong accountability[16] measures, make it "arguably one of the most liberal and adventurous education frameworks in the world." At the same time he cautions that C2005 is vulnerable to allegations of bureaucratic pretension because of its assessment-driven language and OBE design features. What these comments mean in practice should be elucidated by a closer look at C2005's language, its design features (outcomes-based orientation and design, integration and learner-centredness), the epistemological and pedagogical underpinnings of these, and how teachers in classrooms have responded to and implemented the new curriculum.

At its most fundamental level, the new education framework challenges teachers' beliefs about knowledge, teaching and learning, and curriculum processes both in terms of design and management. C2005 is also seen as having a sufficiently flexible methodology to provide more exciting possibilities for curriculum innovation than was the case in the past (Van Harmelen, 1999; Wilmot, 2000, 2004).

- **Language and terminology**

C2005 is couched in complex, obscure, and highly jargonised language. Traditional school subjects are replaced by integrated learning areas, teachers are 'educators' whose role it is to 'facilitate' rather than teach, pupils become learners, the syllabus becomes a learning programme, learning support materials replace textbooks and common tasks for assessment replace examinations. In her reflections on the review of C2005 and subsequent development of the RNCS, Chisholm (2005:196) points out

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[16] The situation will change when the certification of the General Education and Training qualification begins. As a high stakes assessment it signals the shift to external accountability to the state at an earlier stage of the school system than has been he case until now. This is explained in Section 3.6.

that the new language of C2005 was symbolic. It signified a break with the past and heralded new ways of conceptualising education.

New concepts were created to describe the various constituent elements of the educational enterprise. ‘Critical outcomes’ described the broad generic competencies to be developed by C2005, while 66 ‘specific outcomes’ described learning specific to the eight learning areas in the curriculum. Phase and programme organisers, assessment criteria, performance indicators and range statements were just some of the new concepts with which teachers were confronted. Teachers suddenly found themselves in a whole new world of education.

C2005’s complex structure and esoteric terminology has resulted in confusion and misunderstanding. Inconsistency in and obfuscation resulting from the use of the terminology has been widespread and has perhaps led to an over-emphasis on the technicalities of language (Lotz Sisitka & Janse Van Rensburg, 2000:33). Multiple interpretations and misinterpretations have resulted, and – going on my experience with in-service teachers at the university where I work – the consequence is a situation in which teachers are obsessed with the ‘correct’ terminology. This has meant that a great deal of time has had to be spent on sorting out conceptual and linguistic confusion, an implicit prioritising that carries the danger of privileging ‘what’ knowledge – that is, procedural knowledge – at the expense of engaging in critical analysis and debate at a deeper theoretical level. I have also witnessed the power of language as a gate-keeping mechanism and a means of silencing teachers, an issue of significance to this study (see Chapter 9).

The Review Committee identified the use of “meaningless jargon and vague and ambiguous language” as a significant weakness that rendered the curriculum’s impact exclusionary (Chisholm, 2000:16). This problem was addressed by simplifying and making the language more accessible, reducing the design features and removing the assessment-driven terminology (Chisholm, 2005:197). In addition to the confusion caused by C2005’s terminology and OBE design features, the issue of integration and progression, both at the practical level of implementation and at the conceptual level of epistemology, have received a great deal of attention in South African educational circles.

- **Integration and progression**

The 1997 policy document for the Senior Phase of C2005 states that:

> South Africa has embarked on transformational OBE. This involves the *most radical form* [emphasis mine] of an integrated curriculum. There are several forms of integration. This most radical form implies that not only are we integrating across disciplines into learning areas but we are integrating across all 8 Learning Areas in all educational activities.
>
> (DoE, 1997b:31)

The Chisholm Report (2000:40) and, more recently, the DoE (2002b:12) explain that a curriculum contains a demarcation of knowledge which is of two sorts: lateral and vertical. The former indicates how one knowledge focus within a learning area or field relates to or is separate from another, for example, history and geography as two foci in the Human and Social Sciences, or, say, hydrology and climatology as two foci within geography. Vertical demarcation, on the other hand, is concerned with the sequence and level of conceptual complexity with which knowledge is taught and learned.

The DoE itself concedes that C2005 "over-emphasizes connective relations and fails to provide structured guidelines for sequence, progression and pacing", thus running the risk of under-preparing learners for the FET phase of schooling (DoE, 2002b:16). As far as the apparent lack of content in C2005 is concerned, the DoE explains that the content was purposively omitted because of the ideological biases of the past and because the intention was for teachers to generate content (ibid.:17).

According to Gultig (2003:185), a central problem of C2005's shift from a strongly classified discipline base to an integrated learning area approach is that it undermines the importance of teachers' discipline-specific knowledge. It also presupposes, as Jansen pointed out in 1997, a high level of discipline knowledge and skills on the part of teachers, small classes and a resource-rich environment (Jansen, 1997:74). There are many who concur with this view (for example, Christie 1999:283; Muller,

2001:59; Taylor, 2002:86; Mattson & Harley, 2003:285; Parker, 2002:30; Chisholm, 2004:6; 2005: 194; Harley & Wedekind 2004: 208).

The design features of C2005 – specific outcomes, range statements and performance indicators – do not identify the conceptual framework that ought to be developed. For a teacher without a solid foundation of discipline knowledge, this represents a daunting challenge. The absence of a conceptual framework means that while C2005 is strong on integration, it is weak on conceptual progression. The latter is exacerbated by C2005's under-specification of content, and learner-centredness.

The findings of research on C2005 confirm that the under-specification of curriculum content and the lack of an explicit conceptual framework have detracted from learner performance in South Africa (Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003: Chapter 3; Muller, 2004:238). The implications for a curriculum of under-specified content and a lack of vertical conceptual coherence and progression between phases and grades, becomes clearer when one examines Mode 2 knowledge production.

Muller's account of the distinction between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge, albeit assembled within the context of universities and research, is useful when it comes to understanding C2005 (2000:46-48). According to Muller, who draws on Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott, and Trow (1994 in Muller, 2000:47), Mode 2 knowledge, a new form of knowledge, is trans-disciplinary. It emphasises generic competencies and transferable skills, strategic understanding and problem solving. Mode 1 knowledge is orthodox, disciplinary knowledge production (ibid.:48). Muller contends that since Mode 2 knowledge production depends on a sound Mode 1 disciplinary base, undergraduate courses need to strengthen and consolidate Mode 1 knowledge so that a shift to Mode 2 can be achieved at a post-graduate level. Applied to C2005, Muller's thesis is instructive.

According to Mattson & Harley (2004:287), C2005's knowledge integration has its roots in Mode 2 discourse. It demands a high level of discipline or Mode 1 knowledge and expertise on the part of teachers and is seen as being underpinned by an 'extended' view of professionalism. Simply put, this means that learners can't solve

an environmental issue in a geography class without having and being able to apply an understanding of the principles of ecology.

The recommendations of the Review Committee, in terms of integration, were for learning areas to be retained but with a strengthened conceptual framework and greater specification of content. The learning outcomes developed for the RNCS specify the sequence of core concepts, content and skills to be taught in each learning area at each grade level (Chisholm, 2000:4). The strengthened RNCS separates history and geography as two key foci within the Social Sciences Learning Area. It signals a shift towards a discipline-based curriculum, albeit reconfigured under the banner of Social Sciences. Curriculum shifts of this kind, that took place from 1997-2002, are clearly of significance to this study. In Chapter 6, I describe how the teachers in the case study negotiated the tension between discipline-specific knowledge and the integrated curriculum.

- **Learner-centredness**

The third tenet of C2005 is learner-centredness. This approach needs to be understood in relation to the constructivist epistemology informing C2005. According to the Chisholm report (2000:46) this pedagogical approach embraces the notion of active and visible learners constructing their own knowledge, and an active but invisible teacher, whose role it is to facilitate rather than direct learning. It emphasizes a non-authoritarian classroom environment, and the importance of activity and skills as a basis for knowing and knowledge. The simplistic and dichotomous way in which learner-centredness was introduced to teachers through official training workshops, however, promoted a naïve, simplistic and superficial understanding of learner-centred pedagogy as groupwork and group-, as opposed to teacher-regulated learning (Jansen & Christie, 1999; Harley & Wedekind, 2004).

Parker (2003:30) contends that the focus on learners "self-driven search" for knowledge decentred the teacher and diminished his/her role to that of a facilitator. It also placed a strong emphasis on performance that is rooted in the learners' socially constructed knowledge of the world. Learner-centredness was seen as an enabling mechanism for "bringing to the surface the local, hidden, silenced knowledge and

everyday realities of learners". The consequence of this would be a surfacing of cultural knowledge that had been suppressed by and which would challenge Eurocentric hegemony (Chisholm 2005:194).

The attraction of this pedagogy, which is informed by a progressive educational discourse of human rights and social justice, was its emancipationist and democratic ideology. C2005's adoption of learner-centredness needs to be seen as part of a much larger national political vision and social project that has as its goal social reconstruction, equity and social justice. C2005's social recontructivist intent is justified in the rationale of each learning area. It is evident in the prevailing discourse of human rights and social and environmental justice, and a sustained emphasis on active and responsible citizenship through the development of critical and independent thinking, problem solving and decision-making. However, the under-specification of content and over-specification of outcomes in the form of lists of performance indicators has militated against the realisation of these noble goals in practice.

Muller (2001:59) argues that, in education, the desire for social justice is associated with "progressivism's zealous efforts" to discard the traditional curriculum framework which is seen as favouring the middle class and perpetuating class inequalities. Given South Africa's past, it was not surprising that People's Education, the powerful oppositional educational ideology that drove the struggle for freedom and played a significant role in the demise of apartheid education, was underpinned by progressivism. Firstly, it carried the promise of equitable educational outcomes for working class children who because of skin colour were disadvantaged during the apartheid education era. Secondly, its learner-centred, non-authoritarian participatory pedagogy in the tradition of Paulo Freire, carried the promise of education as a collective and liberationist enterprise. It was seen as appropriate for developing a critical understanding of major contemporary problems and issues associated with social change (Muller 2001:4; Harley & Wedekind, 2004:198).

The particular form of progressivism adopted by C2005 was radical. In following the pedagogical approach outlined above, it placed greater emphasis on the 'doing' of education at the expense of 'knowing' (Muller, 2001:9). This was further exacerbated

by C2005's integrated approach to knowledge, which involved collapsing and reconfiguring a traditional ('conservative') discipline-based curriculum into one organised in broad learning areas. The latter is premised on teachers' having strong discipline knowledge for designing purposive activities that will promote and enhance learning, and is linked to the notion of Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge as described above.

Progressive education is characterised by a curriculum based on the integration of knowledge ('weak classification' in Bernstein's language) as opposed to traditional 'subjects' in which there are strong boundaries ('strong classification'). Whereas the latter approach has traditionally focused on content and an understanding of the principles of the discipline, in the former, the focus is on the learner's self-development, and the pedagogy emphasises active learning processes, enquiry and skills development. It is thus seen as having a 'strong grammar' or internal structure with progression and sequencing of subject topics being drawn from the structure of the discipline (Bernstein, 1999:160; Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003: 77-79; Naidoo & Harley, 2004:1-3).

Despite the failure of many progressive reform initiatives to effect the change intended – in the UK and the USA, for example – South Africa, through C2005, went ahead and adopted a radical form of progressivism (Muller, 2001:62). Although these are beyond the scope of this study, it is nevertheless interesting to note contemporary developments in the UK and USA, where even the most ardent advocates of progressivism have taken up a more moderate position (Darling Hammond, 1997). Most recently, in the case of the USA, the *No child left behind* legislation represents "a logical extension of a conservative standards movement that tossed the lefts' critique of U.S. education back on itself" (Sadovnik, 2004:1). The legislation seeks to eliminate progressive pedagogies of the past and to replace them with more traditional forms of curriculum and pedagogic practices. The legislation was prompted by an egalitarian call for equity following the failure of the left's progressive education project to reduce the social class basis of inequality. (For a discussion of the struggle between progressives and traditionalists in the UK, and the consequences this has had on school geography, see Rawling 2001, 2003.)

Recent research findings (for example, Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold 2003: Chapter 3; Muller, 2004:236) provide evidence of how progressive education, as adopted by policy and interpreted and applied by teachers in South Africa, has favoured middle-class children. It has militated against the realisation of its goals, and has helped instead to perpetuate and widen the very inequalities that it was intended to overcome (Muller, 2001:62; Chisholm, 2005:194).

3.4.2 Review of C2005

When the curriculum framework was announced, it evoked a response from a wide range of groups and organisations. The key concerns (see for example, Graham-Jolly, 2003:105; Jansen, 2003:39) were as follows:

- the school environment was under-prepared in the sense that teacher training, material provision and curriculum awareness were not in place;
- OBE encouraged a behaviourist approach to teaching and learning; and
- the timeframe bowed to political expediency rather than genuine educational concerns.

According to Jansen (2003:39), there was "blindness to context", with all schools being treated the same. Policy makers were accused of simply ignoring the reality of a school system in which the majority of teachers lacked the knowledge and skills that the new curriculum assumed them to have. Many schools did not have the culture of learning and teaching that was seen as a pre-requisite for the new framework to succeed. The strongest attack came from Jansen (1997, 1998) who gave 10 reasons why OBE would fail in South Africa. It provoked intense and extreme reaction from the state (Jansen, 2003:39).

Initial research on C2005 carried out in 1999 as the President's Education Initiative (PEI) exposed major problems of implementation. As a consequence, in 2000 a committee was appointed to review C2005, with Prof Linda Chisholm as chair (see Table 3.1 in Section 3.2). The key findings of the committee concerning C2005 relevant to this study included, *inter alia*:

- a skewed curriculum structure and design, which included the use of complex language and confusing terminology in C2005 documents,

overcrowding of the curriculum, and weak conceptual coherence and progression due to a lack of content being prescribed;

- inadequate orientation, training and development of teachers;
- learning support materials that varied in quality and availability;
- policy overload and limited transfer into classrooms, and
- a lack of alignment between curriculum and assessment policy.

These issues were resolved by a strengthened and streamlined Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) that was developed and accepted in 2002 (as shown in Table 3.1). The RNCS has four, as opposed to eight, design features, these being Critical Outcomes, Learning Area Statements, Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards. It addresses the problem of progression, pace and sequencing through specifying content and by strengthening the links between the learning outcomes and assessment standards for each grade, as opposed to phase. In the Human and Social Sciences, the disentanglement and reconfiguration of history and geography as Social Sciences in the RNCS represents a shift from a 'hard' to a 'soft' Social Sciences approach and a strengthening of discipline knowledge.

Importantly, the acceptance in 2002 and subsequent implementation of the RNCS in 2003 (as indicated in Table 3.1) took place parallel to the implementation of C2005 in Grades 8 and 9. This meant that teachers had to continue struggling with the implementation of a policy that they knew was flawed and problematic. In the case of Grade 9 teachers, it meant not only working with a curriculum statement that was problematic but also having to contend with the imposition of a national assessment based on C2005's flawed and complex design. In the next section, I describe teachers' responses to C2005.

3.4.3 Teachers' responses to C2005

Drawing on a large-scale survey of curriculum innovations, MacLaughlin (2002:183) describes three possible teacherly responses: non-implementation, co-optation and mutual adaptation. The first is self-explanatory. The second describes implementation through the modification rather than transformation of traditional practices. It refers to what Mattson & Harley's (2003:288) termed 'mimicry' (see Chapter 2, Section 2.2

above): teachers going through the motions of change without buying in to the new framework, perhaps because their understanding of the new framework is too shallow.

But of most significance to this study is the third response described by MacLaughlin, that of mutual adaptation, evident in situations where implementation has been successful (2002:183). MacLaughlin argues that institutional receptivity, that is, the readiness and willingness of a school to accept change, is a necessary but not sufficient condition for successful change. It requires also the use of implementation strategies that allow institutional support to be engaged and mutual adaptation to occur. She explains that the pedagogical approach must provide teachers with a sense of involvement and experiential learning, breaking down their tradition of isolation and nurturing in them a sense of ownership of the process.

Concerning training and support, Maclaughlin argues against "one-shot training" or training heavily concentrated at the start of implementation (ibid.:187). Of significance to this study is her observation that, with few exceptions, outside experts were not seen as useful. They could not relate to classroom realities and their advice tended to be too abstract to be of use. In the few instances where an outsider did help, it was because the person's participation was concrete and the process consisted of 'hands-on' inquiry-based workshops and materials development that happened regularly for a few hours at a time over an extended period. This approach was seen as appropriate for enabling teachers to undergo the re-socialisation or learning (and unlearning) process in order to develop new attitudes, practices and skills for the new role expected of them (see also Fullan 1993, 1999). In this study, Chapters 6, 8 and 9 focus on one example of the role of an outsider in facilitating change.

Given the diversity and complexity of the school landscape in South Africa, it is to be expected that there have been great variations in teachers' understanding of, and commitment to, the principles of OBE and C2005. This was already apparent within ten months of the implementation of C2005 in Grade 1 in 1998 (Jansen, 1999a:211). It was also acknowledged in the PEI Report (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999) and the Report of the Review Committee on C2005 (Chisholm, 2000). More recent work by Harley and Wedekind (2004), while acknowledging the limitation of a lack of classroom-based research and probing of the design features of C2005, and the lack of

research evidence on learner's levels of achievements in the higher grades, open a window onto what is happening in practice. Their account, based on their research and their students' research at a South African university and an extensive review of over a hundred publications and higher degree dissertations, provides startling insights into how C2005 "practice is *undermining* policy" (emphasis in the original) (Harley & Wedekind, 2004:201).

Citing Eiser (2000), Harley & Wedekind argue that the school is more likely to change the incoming message than the message is likely to change the school. This is borne out in their 'cameos of C2005 practices', which identify five ways in which C2005 has manifested itself in the diverse context of South African classrooms. These are as follows:

- 'C2005 as accommodation and compromise', as evident in a twin-stream curriculum with C2005 running alongside a traditional subject-based curriculum in Grade 9 at a well-resourced independent school;

- 'OBE is a good policy but it's not for us' as evident in a rural secondary school;

- 'C2005 deferment', evident in an ex-Model C[17] school which was characterised by a high degree of diversity and a will to change, but which lacked a common culture and shared understanding as a basis on which to face change;

- 'serious engagement with C2005' as evident in an affluent independent primary school in which teachers' engagement with C2005 started with a clarification of constructivism, and was followed by regular meetings and curriculum and teacher development through action research cycles; and

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[17] Model C schools were state schools for white children during the apartheid era. They were classified as Model C because they had applied for and been granted greater powers of governance and self-determination. These schools have experienced the highest level of racial integration since 1994.

- ‘symbolic display of C2005 principles’, evident in historically disadvantaged schools where teachers appropriated and displayed the tenets of C2005 through group work and activity-based learning but without promoting conceptual learning.

The significance of these to this study will become apparent in Chapters 6, 8 and 9.

The discussion in this chapter has so far focused on curriculum transformation, in particular the forces that shaped and influenced C2005, the opportunities that its flexible, open-ended and devolved processes make available for teacher participation and self-determination in curriculum processes, and the challenges of its under-theorised, poorly understood and simplistically interpreted framework. In the following section the focus shifts to a discussion of the outcomes-based assessment policy framework for the GET band of schooling, in particular the Grade 9 GETC assessment model that was imposed on schools at the beginning of 2002.

3.5 The GET assessment policy framework

In 2002, the implementation of C2005 started in Grade 9, the exit level of the General Education and Training (GET) band of the NQF. In the same year, a new national assessment system, leading to the General Education and Training Certificate (GETC), was introduced.

3.5.1 The GET assessment policy compared to international trends in assessment

The most important characteristics of OBE assessment policy (DoE, 1998) are openness and transparency, the need to collect rich evidence of learning from a wide range of sources both during and after teaching and learning, and the involvement of learners in the process. As such, it mirrors the trends and patterns of assessment described by, *inter alia*, Broadfoot (1996), Madaus & Raczek (1996), Darling-Hammond & Falk (1997), Madaus, Raczek & Clarke (1997), Davis (1996, 1998),

Gipps (1996), Little & Wolf (1996), Goodwin (1997), Shepard (2000), and Brooks (2002).

The shift in the direction of a broader notion of assessment can be attributed to a number of factors. First, developments in the field of cognitive science have deepened our understanding of learning. This has helped to legitimise constructivist learning theories, which view learning as an active and ongoing process of knowledge construction and meaning-making (Shepard, 2000). Within the constructivist paradigm, assessment should be at the heart of any educational enterprise (Shepard, 2000:4). It should, however, not dominate the educational enterprise – a very real danger in any outcomes-based education system where pedagogy is assessment driven (Edwards & Usher, 1994).

There is a strong argument for formative classroom-based teacher assessment because of the valuable role it plays in promoting and enhancing learning (Gipps, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Falk, 1997; Shepard, 2000; Luckett & Sutherland, 2000; Lee, 2001; see Black & Wiliam, 1998a, for an extensive review of assessment research). At the same time there has been an argument for large scale standards-based national assessments (Darling-Hammond, 1989; Headington, 2000; McNeil, 2001). The latter, driven by competency-based education and fuelled by beliefs about measuring and comparing performance in different school and national contexts, represents a new technology for controlling and regulating what happens in classrooms, and for holding teachers accountable for the performance of their learners (Barrett, 1994; Barnes, Clarke & Stephens, 2000; Orfield, & Kronhaber, 2001). Shepard (2000) argues for the need for teachers to find creative ways of working within the possibilities afforded by both large-scale 'high stakes' external assessments and 'low stakes' (but authentic) classroom-based teacher assessments.

Research on the impact of the introduction of a standards-based National Curriculum in England and Wales suggests that in such a system assessment has dominated teaching and learning, and that this has often been at the expense of innovative teaching (Rawling, 2003:34). Within a South African context, the findings of the Review Committee of C2005 suggest a similar trend with C2005 in primary schools (Chisholm, 2000:19). As was explained in Section 3.4.2, this is the down-side of an

outcomes-based curriculum design which is dominated by assessment language and processes.

There is a very real danger of this happening also in Grade 9 in South African schools, the more so because the particular assessment model that is currently being implemented is entirely dependent on teacher assessment. In terms of the continuous assessment (CASS) component of the Grade 9 model, teachers are required to design and implement a range of different assessment strategies (each of which is differentially weighted), to develop and apply criterion-referenced assessment sheets and rubrics, and to implement and assess the externally set summative component (known as the Common Tasks for Assessment or CTA). The two components, when viewed together, involve a substantial increase in paperwork.

The international literature shows that the shift to school-based formative assessment has led to the development of a myriad of new and 'authentic' tasks and assessment procedures to encourage 'deep' rather than 'thin' knowledge (Stobart & Gipps, 1997; Black, 1998; Davis, 1998; Shepard, 2000; Atkins, Black & Comfy, 2001). Despite this, research shows that teachers' assessment practices are weak (Black & Wiliam, 1998a). Reasons cited include classroom practices which emphasise recall and thus encourage rote learning; an over-emphasis on grading; the use of normative rather than criterion-referenced assessments, which leads to competition and de-motivates weaker learners; and the lack of a critical review of assessment practices by teachers. Further, they argue that assessment changes need to be introduced slowly because it is difficult for teachers to change practices that are deeply embedded within their pedagogy (ibid.:10). Work has been done on ways to improve formative assessment by Siebörger in collaboration with Macintosh (1998) in a South African context and, more recently, by Black & Wiliam (2003) in the UK and USA. As yet, there is little evidence to illustrate the extent to which the research is impacting on practice.

Within a southern African context, Lolwana (1996), Lubisi, Wedekind & Parker (1997), Kotze (1999), Pahad (1999), Siebörger (2000) and Pryor & Lubsisi (2002) examine some of the difficulties experienced by teachers trying to make sense of outcomes-based assessment practices. Similarly, in the case of the Namibian Life Sciences curriculum reform initiative, research has shown that testing and norm-

referenced assessment still dominate because teachers have a relatively limited understanding of the new theories of assessment (Murray & Wilmot, 2000:11).

Vandeyar & Killen (2003:119) argue that if teachers understand the principles of high-quality assessment, they will be able to adapt their practices to the new OBE approach. However, they present evidence of how learning is seriously compromised when teachers lack such understanding (ibid., p130). They conclude that the assessment 'paradigm shift' advocated by C2005 was misleading, and that the frustration and confusion it gave rise to were inevitable. My experience with in-service teachers at an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE), Honours and Masters in Education degree level in South Africa reveals high levels of confusion, frustration and anxiety about assessment. For many with a narrow and procedural understanding of assessment, the approach to assessment taken at official C2005 training workshops simply compounds the problem.

The short interventions used by many provincial Departments of Education and the Independent Examinations Board for C2005 and OBE assessment training (these consist of a short – that is, a one- to three-day – workshop in which teachers are briefed about change and told how to change) assume that change will take place overnight (the 'out with the old, in with the new' syndrome). In the case of the two schools participating in this study, it was the dissatisfaction and confusion that resulted from attending one such workshop that provided the impetus for the teachers to participate in the research project.

3.5.2 The Grade 9 assessment model

Whereas the assessment policy document (DoE, 1998) sets out the broad principles of OBE assessment, the assessment guideline documents (DoE, 2002a, b) prescribe, in a rigid way, exactly how policy is to be carried out in classrooms. The model's outcomes-based orientation places assessment at the heart of teaching and learning. Teachers are told to "design down", that is, to start with the outcomes to be assessed before selecting the assessment type and activity. They must have "clarity of focus", meaning a clear picture of what is wanted at the end, and must be able to share this with the learners (DoE, 2002a:3).

In the first instance, the model calls for greater learner participation in assessment and a teacher/learner relationship based on dialogue and discussion. Secondly, the Grade 9 model has a heavily weighted school-based teacher assessment component (CASS), which counts 75% of the overall GETC assessment. The externally set component, the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA), counts for the remaining 25%. Thirdly, the model advocates the use of a wider variety of assessment tasks and strategies than was previously the case. Assessment is concerned with both the product and process of learning. It thus calls for the use of self- and peer- assessment.

The new Grade 9 assessment model described in the assessment guideline document (DoE, 2002a) offers exciting possibilities for maximizing learning through the use of diverse assessment procedures and techniques. However, the mechanics of OBE assessment are complex and demanding: an ability to plan, develop and implement criterion-referenced assessment, together with descriptive rubrics which link to curriculum goals and learning outcomes, and an ability to democratise assessment procedures through the use of self-, peer- and teacher-assessment, assumes a high level of teacher competence. This, together with the rigid and prescriptive way in which the model is currently being deployed in schools, makes its implementation problematic.

3.5.3 The Grade 9 assessment model: Issues and dilemmas

Research on C2005 shows a lack of alignment between curriculum and assessment policy and a lack of clarity regarding assessment policy and practice; moreover, it seems, too much time is being spent on assessment (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999; Chisholm, 2000; Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003). Chisholm (2000:19) has stressed the need for greater attention to be given to assessment in teacher preparation, and for a coherent and clear guideline document on assessment.

As South African teachers do not have a good track record as curriculum developers and assessors (Malcolm, 2001:207), it would be naïve to assume that teachers will manage to implement the sophisticated continuous assessment (CASS) component of assessment in Grade 9 in a meaningful way. Given that CASS constitutes a major part

of a high stakes assessment, that is, an assessment linked to a formal qualification, namely the GETC, this situation takes on new significance. It raises thorny questions about the validity and reliability of school-based teacher assessment, and fuels debate about the need for more externally controlled standardised assessment at the expense of CASS.

The international literature on assessment suggests that such issues have yet to be resolved. School-based teacher assessment has made huge demands on teachers in terms of time and management, creating new dilemmas and tensions while its actual value remains unclear. There are signs of negative reaction: for instance, in the case of the General Certificate in Secondary Education (GCSE) in Britain, there has been a retreat from coursework in many subjects because of the perceived subjectivity and lack of rigour associated with teacher assessment (Davis, 1998).

The Grade 9 assessment model is based on a system of internal marking, that is, teachers set and mark their own assessment tasks for CASS, and they mark their pupils' responses to the externally set standardised CTA. The latter consists of two parts: Section A which is developmental and done as part of the normal classroom teaching and learning routine, and Section B, a validation test which is written under controlled conditions. That both sections, together with the CASS, are assessed by the class teacher, raises questions of objectivity and validity and suggests that the model places too much responsibility on teachers.

The GET assessment model is supported by a cluster group moderation process in which teachers monitor and regulate their colleagues' assessments. The success of a teacher-led cluster-group moderation process will ultimately depend on how much assessment training teachers receive. The current Grade 9 assessment model is a complex one. There are many variables that need to be considered if the assessment results are to be valid and reliable. Given that the Grade 9 assessment is 'high stakes' in that it will affect the educational future of learners, it is foolish and dangerous to give teachers the amount of responsibility and power that they have at present. Balances and checks need to be put in place as a matter of urgency. Teachers need to undergo a rigorous assessment training program in order to become skilled assessors and moderators.

Another dilemma facing teachers is that of determining the status of the various policy and guideline documents emanating from the DoE. For example, subsequent to the recommendations of the Review Committee on C2005 in 2000, the DoE published two assessment guideline documents, an electronic one in March 2002 and an undated booklet later in the year. Neither is, strictly speaking, "official", because neither appeared in the *Government Gazette* (see Hendricks, 2003:29). What Hendricks calls the "indeterminate status" of the assessment guideline document (DoE, 2002a) is acknowledged in the preamble, which states that:

> These guidelines are part of a developmental process that is aimed at increasing capacity of the education system… to enhance the effective implementation of Curriculum 2005 by developing an authentic assessment system that is congruent with outcomes based education in general and Curriculum 2005 in particular.

Further, the DoE invites readers to engage critically with the document and alert the Department to any "elements that may detract from the goal of establishing an effective assessment system" (DoE, 2002a). It provides teachers with an opportunity to comment on and make suggestions for its improvement before the document assumes legal status. The extent to which the DoE is serious about obtaining feedback and engaging in debate, and whether or not they will act on recommendations made, remains to be seen.

If we accept that educational change is an ongoing and evolving process, then documents of "indeterminate status" are not only necessary but useful (Hendricks, 2003:69). One must object, however, when a document that has "indeterminate status" is used for formative or developmental educational purposes and, at the same time, for accountability purposes. Although teachers may feel morally bound to follow the recommendations in the assessment guideline document, they are not legally bound to do so. As long as they can provide evidence that they are implementing assessment policy (DoE, 1998), they are not transgressing. Consequently, assessment can and, most likely will, be interpreted and applied differently in Grade 9. If this happens, comparability becomes an issue. As a matter of

urgency, the DoE needs to resolve the issue of the indeterminate status of the assessment guideline document before the GET certification begins.

Dealing with the tensions of working in a period of policy transition deserves further elaboration. Faced with the dilemma of what to do about the implementation of C2005 in Grade 4 and 8 in 2001, and Grade 9 in 2002, the Review Committee recommended that

> once this [the National Curriculum Statement] has been approved [that is, in June 2001], teachers should begin to orient their teaching accordingly, paying attention to the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards for each grade.
>
> (Chisholm, 2000:24)

The Committee also stated that:

> Grade 8 [and by implication Grade 9] should continue on a modified basis. The modified form should entail …the Learning Outcomes informed by the National Curriculum Statement. The Committee thus recommends that the current C2005 trajectory be continued in the short-term with transitional arrangements being made for phasing out implementation in further phases.
>
> (Chisholm, 2000:24)

Given that this recommendation was accepted by the Minister of Education, there is no legal reason why teachers should not work creatively between C2005 and the NCS. Chapter 6 of this thesis describes how teachers participating in the case study worked within the tensions outlined in this section. The consequences of their activities are analysed in Chapters 8 and 9.

3.5.4 The political economy of assessment

In the international context, the political economy of assessment has been thoroughly researched and theorised (see for example, Barrett, 1994; Davis, 1998; Koretz, Broadfoot & Wolf, 1998; Barnes, Clarke & Stephens, 2000; Wragg, 2001). 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.

According to Wragg (2001:17) assessment becomes a political issue when the ruling party tries to defend or establish its record, a notion with clear relevance to the South African context. For Harley & Parker (1999:186), assessment is at the nexus of complex contestations over social, political and economic change. They contend that assessment is increasingly used by governments not only as a mechanism of quality control to ensure that public money invested in education has been well spent, but also as a powerful lever for influencing educational reform driven by economic and political rationalities. More recently, Muller (2004:221) has asserted 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. Together assessment and qualifications determine the level of inclusivity or exclusivity of the system… Assessment is the most important system for signalling systemic efficiency and accountability.

The critical outcomes of C2005 state that Grade 9 learners, having studied the national curriculum, will be critical and creative thinkers, effective communicators, problem-solvers and decision-makers, co-operative and independent learners, etc. The acid test, however, will be the attainment of a General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) at the end of Grade 9. As the first national assessment, the GETC will be a critical benchmark for monitoring and judging the efficiency and effectiveness of post-apartheid educational transformation initiatives.

With the shift to OBE in South Africa, the assessment industry has started to expand. The Grade 9 assessment model is a good example of how assessment has gained currency in our school system. As the exit point of Level 1 of the NQF, and a pre-requisite for admission to the FET band (Level 2 of the NQF), the GETC represents a high stakes assessment that has considerable currency. The issue of accountability takes on new proportions.

First, the results of the GET assessment will provide the state with a powerful indicator of how well provinces, districts, and schools are faring in relation to the expected national standards. As such, the results can be used by the state for quality assurance purposes. They will enable the state to identify and implement a plan of

action to remedy problems in the system. If we follow the route taken in the UK, for example, schools in which learners are performing poorly could be subjected to 'special measures' and those with good results could be used as 'beacon schools' (Tell, 1998:66). South Africa already has a similar system operating at the matriculation level (Grade 12).

Secondly, for individual schools and teachers the introduction of a national assessment in Grade 9 ushers in a new era of increased accountability to the state. Publishing the GETC results in the newspapers will enable schools to compare how they are doing with the rest of the district and country. This information will be useful to schools, teachers and parents. There is, however, a risk involved in using crude scores for comparative purposes. Given the wide range of schools that exist in South Africa, we need to be sensitive to the context and circumstances of schools. In Britain attempts have been made to resolve this issue by producing 'benchmark data' which categorises schools so that similar schools are compared (Tate in Tell, 1998:67). Public 'naming and shaming' may oblige schools to keep on their toes, but it might equally demoralise them. It will, however, place more pressure on teachers at an earlier stage than is the case at present. At present, it is only at the matriculation level that schools, and to a lesser extent, teachers, are held accountable to the state.

There is, however, another side to accountability. As the first national assessment in South Africa's outcomes-based education system, the GETC will provide the public with tangible evidence of the extent to which the state's educational transformation initiatives have or have not succeeded. While various research reports – including, for example, the Review Committee of C2005 – and the media have alerted the public to the weaknesses of C2005, the real test of its success, or lack thereof, will be the GETC results. If published, the results will reveal the extent to which educational transformation initiatives have achieved their goals, raised standards and improved the life chances of our children. As such, the GET assessment carries enormous risks in terms of the government's accountability to the public. If the new system is not seen to be achieving its goals, the government's credibility and legitimacy will be challenged.

Assessment policy (DoE, 1998) makes provision for systemic evaluation to be conducted in Grades 3, 6 and 9. In the case of the first two, such evaluations are to be conducted in a nationally representative sample of learners and learning sites in order to evaluate all aspects of the school system and learning programmes (DoE, 2002:2). The results from the first systemic evaluation at Grade 3 level indicate poor performance (Muller, 2004:233). There have been problems with the Grade 6 assessments and an ongoing postponing of the national GET assessment in Grade 9. Importantly, in a review of the efforts and progress of the state towards systemic external assessment since 1994, Mseleku (2002 as cited in Muller, 2004:236) reveals that there has been "footdragging and unaccountable delays", and that "the systemic data that we do have to date depicts a system that is inefficient and in extremely poor health."

Given the political need for the GET assessment to succeed, and the high risks it carries, the national Department of Education's decision to postpone the GET certification process until the end of 2004 came as no surprise. A subsequent, somewhat surreptitious, decision taken by the national Department of Education (IEB Circular No 38/2003) to tweak the Grade 9 grading levels is problematic. The percentages needed for Levels 1 to 3 of the four-level grading system have been lowered. For example, the range for Level 3 ('achieved') has been changed from 50%-69% to 40%-69%. This represents a significant lowering of standards, presumably a strategic move by the state to reduce the risk of potentially high GET failure rates. One may infer that the state is unsure of the system's ability to deliver on its promises of redress and equity. In a country with a poor track record of educational achievement compared to other African countries – evident, for example, in the findings of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study – Repeat [TIMSS-R] achievement tests of 1998/1999 (Howie, 2001; Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003) – the decision to lower the GET levels represents a regression in terms of educational standards in South Africa.

3.6 Profile of teacher professional development

In this section, I outline the official approach to teacher training adopted for national curriculum initiatives since the transition to democracy in 1994, before describing alternate approaches evident in the private sector.

3.6.1 Teacher training and support for C2005

The development of teachers is seen as a key factor in the transformation of the South African education system (Van Harmelen & Kuiper, 1996; Wilmot, 1998, 1999, 2004; Janse van Rensburg & Mhoney, 2000; Janse van Rensburg & Lotz Sisitka, 2000). There is however a burgeoning body of research which suggests that the official approach to teacher development and the 'cascade model' used by the government since 1994 have militated against the development of teachers into effective agents of change.

Early studies on C2005 implementation carried out by Jansen in 1999 showed that while OBE, through C2005, was being received with great enthusiasm by teachers, the change taking place was largely superficial and procedural rather than philosophical (Jansen, 1999a:211). Similarly, the PEI found that there was "blind following of procedures without understanding how or why these work" (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999:160). It identified teachers' poor conceptual knowledge of the subjects they teach as a major constraint to curriculum work. Likewise, the Review Committee of C2005 found that:

- teachers' knowledge of C2005 was superficial: they had a "rather shallow understanding of the principles of C2005" (Chisholm, 2000:2);

- teacher training on OBE and C2005 was itself superficial, focusing on terminology with "…little attention being paid to the substance of OBE and C2005" (ibid.:19);

- training workshops were not supported with good quality materials, and the approach used by many trainers was not aligned to the principles of C2005; there was virtually no ongoing support and development when teachers were back in their classrooms, and teachers felt that officials did not value their efforts (ibid.:61).

The Review Committee took issue with the duration and quality of the training given to teachers to prepare them for the implementation of C2005. The short interventions made by the DoE and provincial departments – usually one- to three-day workshops – were seen as inadequate, as was the 'cascade model' of teacher training which focused on 'thin' or procedural knowledge, that is, 'how to do' knowledge, at the expense of developing teachers' declarative knowledge, their understanding of the 'why'. According to Janse van Rensburg & Mhoney (2000:45), the cascade model may well 'water down' information and even serve to perpetuate curriculum misunderstanding. They argue that the model is limited because it is based on a limited understanding of what teacher development requires, and its assumption that curriculum knowledge can be passed down is counter to the social constructivist epistemology that is supposed to underpin OBE in South Africa.

Janse van Rensburg & Mhoney (2000:45) contend that the cascade model, in focusing as it does on information, usually terminology and structure, information transfer, and decontextualised learning, represents an essentially technicist approach to teacher development. The Review Committee (Chisholm, 2000:55) recommended that attention be given to the development of programmes that developed understanding, and for teacher development programmes to be aligned to the framework for educators as described in the Norms and Standards policy (DoE, 2000). The latter requires the development of practical, foundational and reflexive competences from which one may infer a deep, as opposed to superficial, understanding. It also recognises the need for higher education to play a stronger role in teacher development.

Despite increasing awareness of the limitations of the technicist approach developed and used for C2005 training, it continues to be used (Frame, 2003:17), and a centralised, top-down approach continues to be the dominant model (Jansen &

Middlewood, 2003:52; Graham-Jolly, 2003:105). The problem appears to lie in a disjuncture between the rhetoric and goals of policy and its translation into practice.

A new policy for educators, the *Norms and Standards for Educators* (DoE, 2000), was developed alongside C2005, for the purpose of preparing teachers and supporting their acquisition of the competencies needed for the effective implementation of C2005. It adopts an outcomes-based approach to teacher education, providing a detailed description of what a competent educator can demonstrate and emphasising practical and foundational competencies as well as the development of reflexive competencies (Parker 2003:29). Educators are expected to perform seven roles including, *inter alia*, those of mediator and assessor of learning, and of curriculum and learning support materials developer.

In 2005, some five years since the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy was accepted, teachers' accounts of the official training workshops for the RNCS suggest that there is still some way to go in the realisation of the policy's intention. There is evidence suggesting that many of the officials tasked with training teachers do not demonstrate the required competencies (Lotz Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg, 2000:38). At the same time, a review of the research that has been done reveals exciting initiatives that are responding to contextual realities and present needs in various formal and informal partnerships between the state and the private sector, and in higher education: in particular, in-service teacher education up-grade programmes and post-graduate courses. The *Learning for Sustainability* project, one such example, is described in the next section.

A disjunction exists between the way in which policy constructs teachers' identities as professionals with well developed reflexive competencies (DoE, 2000), and the 'restricted' professional identity espoused by 'official' training programmes on C2005 and assessment. This is evident, for example, in the findings of the Review Committee on C2005. According to Hargreaves (2003: 55):

> The vision of the teacher behind these goals is not of someone who merely delivers other people's curriculum: it is someone who is socially and politically critical and responsible, professionally competent and in touch with contemporary developments.

Teacher development within the sort of technical paradigm evident in the official 'cascade model' for C2005, has been rejected by a number of prominent theorists in a range of fields (including Hoyle,1980; Hoyle & John, 1995; Robottom, 1987; Giroux, 1988, 1997; Fien, 1993, Fien & Rawling, 1996; Fullan, 1993, 1999; Prawat, 1993; Carr, 1995; Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Lotz 1996; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000, Southwood, 2000; Hargreaves, 2003). The trend is towards the development of teachers as reflexive practitioners, critical inquirers and classroom-based action researchers, and toward the elaboration of constructivist models for teacher development.

3.6.2 Teacher development: alternate approaches and models

The *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000) discussed above signals the state's intention to adopt a new non-technicist approach to teacher education. This has however been anticipated in various ways by university education departments, which have in recent years produced a number of innovative responses to educational transformation in both pre- and in-service teacher education programmes.

The *Learning for Sustainability* project's (1997-2000) 'Spiral Model' of teacher development, is an example of a state/private partnership that has utilised a new and radical approach to teacher professional development. Importantly, it has contributed to the re-thinking of professional development models called for by the ministerial review of Curriculum 2005 (Janse van Rensburg & Mhoney, 2000:66; Lotz Sisitka & Raven, 2001:27). The spiral model is described as follows:

- collaboration and independent learning (the work-together and work-away approach)
- a process-based approach which gave rise to the idea of a spiral in terms of the time required and the recursive cycles of activity that it involved
- an open-ended opportunity in which flexibility was assumed
- a learner-centred approach modelled on the one promoted by C2005, and in which the project staff acted as mediators, facilitators and collaborators rather than authoritarian educators

- an emphasis on meaning-making which emphasised the need for knowledge construction rather than absorption
- activity-based professional development which modelled a constructivist approach
- negotiating meaning, negotiating curriculum, which involved open-ended processes and stressed the need for probing and eliciting teachers' perceptions about C2005
- emphasising context
- a focus on action research processes, that is, reflection-in-action which involved implementing and trying out new methodologies in the classroom, and
- teachers as agents of change, based on Giroux's critical pedagogy and notion of teachers as agents of change in which democratic values were promoted and participation and problem-solving amongst learners in the classroom promoted.

(Janse van Rensburg & Mhoney, 2000:49-52)

This is one example of the type of work that is happening in partnership with the state. In Chapters 6 and 8, I describe the model used in the school-based research intervention that forms the basis of this study, and in Chapter 9, I analyse the consequences that resultant teacher professional development had for teacher authority and participation in national curriculum processes.

3.7 Synthesis and conclusion

This chapter, in profiling the national curriculum and assessment landscape, has illuminated some of the tensions within which South African teachers, tasked with the job of policy implementation, are currently working. It has drawn attention to the opportunities and challenges that characterise an educational context which is undergoing radical and widespread transformation.

CHAPTER 4

PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH SITE AND PARTICIPANTS

4.1 Introduction

The case study focused on policy implementation. It described how history and geography teachers working in collaboration with myself, a university-based education lecturer, responded to the outcomes-based General Education and Training (GET) assessment policy of C2005 in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences. In this chapter, I explain the factors that provided the impetus for the research intervention that constitutes the case study, before describing the schools and the teachers who participated in the study. The discussion then shifts to an explanation of and justification for my choice of two atypical, well-resourced schools in the private sector.

4.2 The impetus for the study

The impetus for initiating and involving myself in a school-based intervention arose out of professional interest pertaining to my university work in the assessment arena,[18]

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[18] I have taught and researched assessment for a number of years. In 2000, the Eastern Cape IEB Geography User Group, that is, the teachers as opposed to the IEB management, invited me to run a workshop on alternate assessment for Grade 12. At this workshop, alternate models of assessment including enquiry-based fieldwork, were explored.

In 2001, my application to be included in the panel of developers of the new instruments (the Common Assessment Tasks [CATs] and External Assessment Tasks [ETAs]) being developed for assessment at the end of the General Education and Training band (Level One of the National Qualifications Framework) at the Independent Examinations Board (IEB) was turned down. No reasons were given. I was, however, placed on the IEB mailing list.

After the schools had closed for the Christmas vacation in December 2001, I received an e-mail from the IEB giving notice of an Assessment workshop for the Human and Social Sciences at a Gauteng school in January 2002. I contacted the principals of the two schools participating in this research and offered to attend the workshop on their behalf. The principals took up my offer with great enthusiasm and offered to pay my expenses. I did not attend the workshop because, faced with the need to implement the GET assessment model in Grade 9 in 2002, the two schools took the initiative to arrange for the IEB to run a workshop at the schools in January 2002. The principals invited me to attend the workshop.

the state's insistence on the necessity for change, and my perception that the History and Geography teachers who attended an assessment workshop run by the Independent Examinations Board in January 2002 were ill-equipped to move ahead with the GET curriculum and assessment implementation. As a consequence of this perception, I approached the principals of the two schools who had organised the workshop, and obtained permission to initiate a collaborative research project [CR 1]. It was fortuitous that on the day I obtained the principals'[19] permission, the head of the history department approached me for help. I approached the teachers [CR 2] who responded positively. As a result I became directly involved in a national policy implementation process via a school-based intervention.

4.3 The schools participating in the study

In this section, I describe the two schools that participated in this research in terms of location, type of school, size, and the relationship of the one to the other. Secondly, I discuss the schools' physical and human resources and facilities, and pupil-teacher ratio. Thirdly, I describe the curriculum and assessment practices at the two schools at the start of the research project.

The schools that participated in this study are both single-sex, independent and faith-based. The one, a boys' school, has 390 pupils from Grade 8 to post-matriculation level; the other, a girls' school, has 334 pupils from Grades 4 to 12. Relatively speaking, they are both small schools. As neighbouring schools, the relationship between them is unique. Although autonomous,[20] they have since 1974 followed a co-instructional academic model in which the two schools co-operate closely on all academic issues while retaining their own distinct identities and traditions. From Grade 10 up, classes are co-educational.

The co-instructional model has systemic implications in terms of leadership, management and organization. For example, there is one academic department for

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[19] Principal is synonymous with head teacher.

[20] They are autonomous in terms of governance and management with each school having its own Council, Head Teacher and rules.

each subject taught at the two schools. In practice this means that the Head of History and the Head of Geography are not necessarily from the same school. Despite this, pedagogical, curriculum and assessment issues, both policy-related and practical, as well as administrative issues such as the timetable, examinations and fieldtrips, are managed within a single department that spans both schools. The co-instructional model facilitates a high level of interaction between the teachers at the two schools. I saw this as a huge advantage both in terms of securing the "critical mass" (Fullan, 1993:40) necessary to achieve change, and for convenience of organization and management of the collaborative research project. It meant that although I was working in two schools, I was working with one team of teachers.

4.3.1 The choice of schools

The 1996 South African Schools Act (SASA) makes provision for two school sectors: public and private (independent). Statistics published by the national Department of Education (DoE, 2004:3) reveal that there are 13,5 million learners in all sectors of the education system, with 86% in public schools and 2.1% in independent schools. According to Hofmeyr & Lee (2004:143-145), the latter sector has undergone significant changes since the 1990s in terms of its size, diversity and socio-economic spread. It has increased three-fold and become more diverse, with a wide range of philosophical and religious orientations and pedagogical approaches evident.

According to Du Toit (2003 in Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004:156), seventy percent of learners at independent schools are black, the majority of schools charge fees of less than R6 000 per annum, and only 14 per cent charge fees of more than R18 000 per annum. At present, the high fee schools, which according to Muller (1992:340, as cited in Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004:150) were traditionally predominantly white and predominantly church-affiliated schools with a strong Anglo-centric ethos, are still predominantly white. However, there is evidence which suggests that the trend is changing with the enrolment of black students having increased by as much as 50% in some cases (ibid.:159). Further, an increase of black representation in the high-income sector (with an increase from 8 to 18 per cent in the over R10 000 per month income category having taken place from the mid-1990s to 2000) suggests that in the long

term, this group will become the main client of the traditional independent schools (ibid.:161).

In the light of the above discussion, and bearing in mind the broad spectrum of schools in South Africa at present, differing from each other in terms of geographical location, socio-economic background, levels of resourcing and former administrative departments (Kgobe, 2001; DoE, 2004), I purposively chose to work in schools at one end of the spectrum. There were a number of reasons for my decision, including my personal and professional relationship with the two schools, the philosophical orientation of their approach to education, their independent status, and the resource-rich environment they offered.

4.3.2 My personal and professional association with the schools

When this study began in 2002, I had a son at one of the schools and a daughter at the other. Secondly, as a pre-service teacher educator, I had developed a professional association with the Geography teachers at the two schools. More specifically, during the past decade, I had placed PGCE[21] student teachers at the two schools for their teaching practice, and used the Geography teachers as mentors. Further, I am a member of Council at one school and thus involved in school governance. In sum, I am associated with the schools as a university based teacher-educator, governor and parent. I am aware that this carries with it the risk of personal bias, particularly insofar as interpreting the data is concerned. This possibility was addressed in various ways that I explain in Chapter 5.

4.3.3 Philosophical orientation

Both schools are well over 100 years old. As established English-speaking, faith-based independent schools, the schools fell outside the ambit of the apartheid state's

[21] During the two year intervention, PGCE students from the education department where I work undertook their teaching practice in the two schools participating in this study.

educational philosophy. Their statement of intent[22] provides evidence of the schools' philosophical orientation and values. From it one may infer that the schools are rooted in a Western liberal educational philosophy underpinned by a Christian value system. Within this framework, the holistic development of the individual to his or her full potential is emphasised. Rational autonomy and critical and creative thinking are thus valued and promoted.

The state system is secular and embedded in a discourse of human rights, as evident in the South African Constitution, which forms the social base of post-apartheid society. In Chapters 2 and 3, I explained how the new education framework is supported both by the values identified here and by competing values driven by an economic imperative to change. Because the two schools' values were closely aligned with many of the values of the new framework, I made the assumption that the teachers who participated in this study would 'buy into' the new framework, at least in a philosophical sense.

At the same time, I realized that the two schools, like others in the independent sector, have prided themselves on 'keeping a distance' from the state. Their resistance to the state's apartheid education policy through the opening of their doors to all South African children, irrespective of race or language, in the 1980s, helped to clear a path along which educational transformation initiatives could later proceed. Resistance evident at the macro-level of policy is also evident at the micro-level of the classroom, extending, for example, to the curriculum.

With the exception of the final two years of schooling (Grades 11 and 12) in which learners are prepared for the final school-leaving examination, the two schools have

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[22] This is communicated to the pupils and parents in the one school's handbook, which states that the school stand for, *inter alia*:

> "Christian witness in thought, word and deed; the provision of quality education in a stimulating and challenging environment which will enable and encourage pupils to realise their full potential; nurturing independent thought and action within the bounds of inter-dependence and companionship; producing confident pupils who are eager to meet the challenges of our changing world and serve the society in which they live."

Developing to his or her full potential is seen as including independence of character, spirituality, academic talent, leadership and confidence in the social context, imaginative and creative faculties, and a love for participation in sport.

chosen to work independently of state education policy initiatives. The teachers in the two schools have in the past organised the Grades 8, 9 and 10 curricula internally and with little reference to national policy. Teachers have thus enjoyed considerable autonomy and latitude as far as subject content, teaching approaches and assessment are concerned. In the case of the History department, this approach resulted in the teachers charting their own curriculum course outside traditional 'text book' history,[23] collecting their own source materials, and developing resources for learning such as activities and worksheets.

I made the assumption that these teachers would bring to the collaborative project a more than adequate level of the skill competency seen as pre-requisite for effective change agency. C2005 was designed to empower teachers to become curriculum developers rather than deliverers of someone else's curriculum (Rogan, 2000:118). It follows that properly qualified teachers – that is, teachers who are subject specialists and who have good discipline knowledge, working in resource-rich schools – are particularly well placed to achieve this goal.

Prior to the start of this study, the History and Geography teachers at the two schools – despite having received guidelines for the implementation of C2005 from the IEB – had continued to chart and navigate their own educational course. This was evident, for example, in their non-compliance with the implementation dates of C2005 in Grade 8 in 2001. It was only with the impending implementation of the GETC, and the state's threat to de-register schools that did not comply with policy, that the schools took action to implement national policy.

As a result of my professional relationship with the Geography Department, I perceived that the schools' geography curriculum was outdated in relation to international school Geography education trends. My perception was that despite solid teaching, the content and pedagogical approach was out-dated. Unlike many schools that I visit as a PGCE tutor, the focus of the teaching at the two schools was conceptual rather than factual, with some fieldwork and independent study taking

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[23] This is why, at the start of the research intervention in January 2002, one Grade 9 history teacher was teaching Russian history, while others were teaching World War 1 [see CR 7: pp.12-13].

place. There was, however, little evidence of issues-based, integrated or problem-solving, environmentally orientated enquiry taking place in the schools. One of my intentions was thus to see if I could play a positive and catalytic role in helping to rejuvenate a 'tired' school Geography curriculum.

Ideologically, I identified strongly with the philosophy and value system of the two schools, and this, together with the fact that I had a personal and professional relationship with them, informed my decision to approach them to participate in this study. I was aware of the potential difficulty of working with teachers who were used to, and comfortable with, designing and following their own curricular route. At the same time, I recognised that the new educational framework offered teachers more possibilities for curriculum and pedagogy innovation than had been the case in the past. I viewed the two schools' resistance to and disregard for state policy initiatives as a professional challenge.

4.3.4 Pedagogical reasons

There were also pedagogical reasons why I approached the two schools. First, the schools fare well when assessed in terms of the macro-indicators used to determine the efficiency and effectiveness of the national school system – for example, infrastructure and equipment, pedagogical conditions and availability and quality of teaching staff (Bot & Schindler, 2000; DoE, 2004). This is evident in the two schools' excellent libraries, computer and science laboratory facilities, low pupil/teacher ratios (12/1),[24] university-qualified teachers, and the availability of a wide range of learning support materials and teaching aids. I was attracted to the schools because I believed that they had the infrastructure and physical and human resources necessary for C2005 to be successfully introduced.

Second, their track record of high pass rates in the Senior Certificate examination as shown in Table 4.1 suggests a strong culture of learning and academic excellence.

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[24] In 2002, the national average for public schools was 33,8:1, and for independent schools 17,5:1 (DoE, 2004:6).

This is significant given that neither school has an entrance examination, nor do they use any other screening or selection procedures.

Table 4.1: Senior Certificate Examination Results 2000 to 2004

GIRLS' SCHOOL	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Total number of candidates	46	51	61	50	51
Number of:					
Matriculation Endorsements	45	51	60	48	50
Failures	1	0	0	0	0
A Aggregates	19	11	13	11	14
BOYS' SCHOOL					
Total number of candidates	93	83	72	84	89
Number of:					
Matriculation Endorsements	86	82	65	74	80
Failures	0	0	1	0	0
A Aggregates	16	20	13	12	17

The significance of these results, in terms of the schools' levels of functioning, success and efficiency becomes apparent when they are compared to national results. In 2002, the overall national pass rate in the Senior Certificate examination was 68,9%. In the Eastern Cape, the province in which the two schools are located, the pass rate was the lowest in the country (51,8% of which only 8,1% passed with a matriculation endorsement, that is, having met university-entrance requirements) (DoE, 2004:18).

Efficient and successful, these schools are best described as 'beacon schools' marking high points on the South African educational landscape. Herein lies a paradox: as well-resourced schools, they represent environments most conducive to the new curriculum both in terms of its pedagogy and philosophy; at the same time, as highly successful schools within a conservative school environment, they are the ones most likely to resist change.

I was thus curious to find out how the History and Geography teachers in this 'traditional'[25] school environment would respond to Curriculum 2005. I saw the

[25] Although my use of the term 'traditional' refers to a conservative school system, it does not have negative connotations. My classification of the schools as 'traditional' is based on the typologies of

latter's outcomes-based orientation, its emphasis on relevance and an integrated approach to knowledge, and its learner-centred pedagogy, as conflicting with the discipline-based curriculum at the two schools. I was thus challenged to find out to what extent I could facilitate their 'buying into' the new educational framework.

I am aware that this research might be seen as lacking credibility because it is not conducted in a context statistically representative of South African schools. At the same time, much of the research on policy implementation has thus far focused on previously disadvantaged schools. Given the legacy of our past, this is understandable. However, while research conducted over the past few years has provided rich insights into what is not working and the various factors inhibiting change, little evidence has been provided of what *can* work, of just what one needs to have and to do in order to implement the changes called for by policy (DoE, 2000).

I chose the two well-resourced independent schools because I believed that they represented 'ideal' situations for policy to be enacted and meaningful change to be effected. Furthermore, I believe that, despite the potential danger of this study being labeled 'politically incorrect', this research can make a valuable contribution to our understanding of educational change in post-apartheid South Africa. In Chapter 5 (Section 5.10.3), I justify this study as a critical case study of 'what is possible' if all the pre-requisites assumed by policy are met. Without it and others of a similar nature, it is difficult to evaluate policy, as opposed to policy implementation. In order to judge the appropriateness and value of the curriculum framework adopted in South Africa we need to critique it from within. This necessitates working within 'ideal' school environments. My intention is to identify the lessons that can be learned from policy implementation in a school environment conducive to its implementation, that is, one that has not been affected by the legacy of the apartheid school system in the way that most state schools have, and one that is generously resourced. I accept that

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Carr (1995:55), Muller (2000:98), Rawling (2001:32). First, following Muller (2000:98), I use the term to describe a "transmission-content pedagogic model" in which the focus or emphasis is on provision, that is, the teacher, the textbook and the curriculum. I also use the term 'traditional' to refer to a conservative organisation of teaching and learning in a school characterised by a rigid timetable that divides the day into fixed periods. Knowledge is discipline-based, and teachers are seen as authorities with good discipline knowledge. I use the term 'traditional' in a way that is similar to the "liberal humanist" ideological tradition described in Rawling's typology (2001:32) and Carr's (1995:55) traditional grammar school.

the findings of this small-scale study are limited in that they are context-specific. Nevertheless, in opening a window onto policy enactment in an ideal environment, the findings may enable inferences to be made about the school system as a whole.

For me, the study offered an opportunity to involve myself in hands-on policy implementation in the classroom, as opposed to working with policy in a more theoretical manner within the courses I teach at the university. Further, I saw the school-based research intervention as offering exciting possibilities for putting into practice my approach to teacher professional development[26] in a school (as opposed to university) context.

4.5 My beliefs and assumptions

My publications thus far (Wilmot 1998, 2000, 2004) all evidence my belief in, and deep commitment to, the social and political ideals of transformation in South Africa in general and in education in particular. As a teacher educator in a university Education Department, I am part of an evolving educational landscape characterised by dynamic and ongoing processes of change. The particular challenge that I face in this study on policy implementation is similar to that faced by other liberal academics in post-apartheid South Africa, namely to shift from the role of critic of the previous educational regime to that of a re-constructor, and to do so without losing the critical voice vital to the well-being of any democracy (Muller 2000:126).

In my university teaching, I have been explicit and transparent about my beliefs and

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[26] Drawing on the ideas of, inter alia, Fullan (1993, 1999), Carr (1995), Simon (1992), Fien (1993), Giroux (1997), Lotz Sisitka & Janse van Rensburg (2000), Van Harmelen (2001), my courses are underpinned by the belief that, as professionals, we should examine change from a critical perspective: that, we identify, analyse and evaluate not only its strengths but also its areas of weakness and potential weakness. It is seen as being achieved through teacher education, as opposed to training, programmes which emphasize the need to:

- create and sustain a supportive and non-threatening environment in which teachers can examine their own educational beliefs and practices
- develop a programme that mediates, supports and guides teachers in their acquisition of a deep knowledge of the educational and social theories informing practice
- develop the skills and capacities, including critical and creative thinking, collaborative and independent work and confidence seen as pre-requisite for dealing with educational change in ways that are pro-active and productive, and
- engender hope and possibility no matter how flawed a system may seem.

theories, both epistemological and pedagogical, and the advocacy role I see myself playing in terms of educational change. Although I believe that the proposed curriculum and assessment changes offer exciting possibilities for renewal and growth, I am concerned by the dominance of a naïve and polarised view of change (framed within a discourse of opposition and characterised by calls for 'out with the old and in with the new') evident in many education policy documents and promoted by various official OBE teacher training workshops. This view of change is problematic in that calling as it does for a clean sweep, it runs the risk of undermining good practice, destroying excellence, and breaking down teacher confidence. At its worst, it can engender doctrinaire thinking in education.

Philosophically and pedagogically, my thinking and practice as a university-based teacher educator have been shaped by critical theories of education, in particular the notion of a pedagogy of critique, possibility and hope in the tradition of, *inter alia*, Simon (1992), Fien (1993), Carr (1995), and Giroux (1997). Central to this is the belief that teachers can be effective agents of change (Fullan 1993:4); critical inquirers (Carr 1995:116); transformative intellectuals (Giroux 1997:104); reflexive or extended professionals (Rawling 2001:31), and reflective and reflexive practitioners (Van Harmelen, 2001:4).[27]

I believe that we teacher educators have a responsibility to use processes of change as a enabling mechanism to critically examine who we are and how and why we do things the way we do, in order to develop and implement appropriate action for improvement. Following Bernstein (1996: 6), this requires that we cultivate an environment based on democratic principles, including respect for persons and respect for truth, in which we feel safe to interrogate our practices with a view to retaining what is good and a willingness to adapt or, if necessary, discard that which is no longer appropriate. I concur with Fullan (1993, 1999) that we need to be willing to put ourselves at risk, to learn to live with risk and be open to new ways of thinking and

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[27] According to Van Harmelen "through reflection we think back over what has happened or what we have done or what we have learnt, and in 'throwing' back (like light or heat or sound being thrown back off the surface it strikes) we make sense of a phenomenon or event by applying it to our existing frame of reference. While 'reflecting on' something helps us to understand, reflexivity goes a step further which we might describe as 'taking action' or 'responding to' that which we have thought about." Her view is similar to that of Fullan (1993:4) who argues for reflexivity as the need "to engage in continuous corrective analysis and action."

doing. Importantly, we need to adopt a forward-looking orientation and engender hope and possibility in the sceptics amongst us.

In sum, I believe that, despite the uncertainties and challenges of transformation, teachers are creative and resourceful people who can acquire the knowledge and develop the skills and capacities to adapt, survive and flourish.

4.6 The teachers participating in the study

When the project began in January 2002, there were 3 Geography teachers and 7 History teachers in the team. Apart from the loss of a History teacher in July 2002, and the retirement of another at the end of 2003, the team did not change during the two-year intervention. This continuity, together with the extended period of the intervention (two years of weekly meetings), enabled us to build strong relationships based on trust and collegiality. It promoted strong group cohesion and a high level of interdependence at both intra-departmental and inter-departmental levels.

Table 4.2 profiles the teachers in terms of age, experience and qualifications. The information was obtained from the teachers by questionnaire [DF 75] and through the interviews I conducted at the start of the project in January 2002 [DF 17]. To protect the teachers' anonymity, I have used neither names nor pseudonyms, nor have I indicated the position held.

Table 4.2: Research participants (as at January 2002)

Subject taught	Age	Gender	Qualifications	Teaching experience
Geography 1	61	M	BA, UED	39
Geography 2	41	F	MA	0 in schools; 7 in HE
Geography 3	24	F	BA(Hons), PGCE	1

Subject taught	Age	Gender	Qualifications	Teaching experience
History 1	50	F	BA, H.Dip Lib., HDE	25 in schools; 10 in HE
History 2	62	F	BA, PGCE	33
History 3	33	F	BA, ELT, NTEP	5
History 4	45	M	MA, HDE	15
History 5	43	M	PhD, HDE	0 in schools; 12 in HE
History 6	50	M	BA, HDE	24
History 7	32	M	BA, HDE	8
University Lecturer	45	F	BA, HDE, BEd, MEd	7 in schools; 12 in HE

Source of data: Questionnaire [DF 75] and Interviews [DF 17]

Table 4.2 shows that the teachers participating in this study are:

- Atypically well qualified

They are all university graduates, and four of them have post-graduate qualifications. All have a professional teaching qualification. This information helps us to understand why some of the teachers had already established themselves as curriculum and resource developers when the study began, and suggests that they were well placed to reach the goals of C2005. Furthermore, their high academic qualifications suggest that there was a high level of epistemological empowerment and intellectual leadership amongst the teachers at the start of the study. The extent to which this enabled or militated against change is discussed in Chapter 8.

- Diverse in terms of age and teaching experience

Although not shown in Table 4.2, the teachers were well balanced in terms of gender – five male and five female. A range of ages (24 to 62) and diversity of teaching experience are evident. The implications of this diversity, particularly the extent to which young and old, experienced and inexperienced teachers responded

to change, and the consequences of this for the research process and outputs, are discussed in Chapter 8.

- Diverse in terms of positions held within the school system

Although this is not shown in Table 4.2, the positions held by the participating teachers ranged from classroom teacher to principal. The significant political power differences within the group were not problematic, for whereas some members of the group, by virtue of the position they held in their school, had political authority, others – by virtue of their post-graduate qualifications – had epistemological authority. At our first meeting, the various power differences were made explicit [DF 14]. The participants recognised and accepted the diversity and difference that existed in the team, and agreed to draw on each other's strengths as opposed to weaknesses.

I joined the participating teachers as an active participant in terms of the research approach I had adopted. This meant that I worked alongside the group of teachers described above on a weekly basis for a period of two years.

4.7 My role in the study

I am aware that, as a university education lecturer, I occupy a position of privilege. Working within the academy, I have had time to explore the literature on educational transformation, in particular, on the epistemology and pedagogy underlying the new educational framework. Rationales and outlines for the courses I teach at the university, conference papers and publications (see, for example, Wilmot 1998, 2000, 2004; Wilmot & Van Harmelen, 2004) offer evidence that I 'buy into' the new framework, albeit it from a critical perspective. For example, I argue (Wilmot, 2003:313) that the new Grade 9 assessment model described in the assessment guideline document (DoE, 2002a) offers exciting possibilities for maximizing learning through the use of diverse assessment procedures and techniques. However, I caution that the mechanics of OBE assessment are complex: to plan, develop and implement criterion-referenced assessment together with descriptive rubrics which

link with curriculum goals and learning outcomes, and to democratise assessment procedures through the use of self-, peer- and teacher-assessment, assume a high level of teacher competence.

Moreover, as a researcher, I have contributed to knowledge generation, and as a learning support materials developer, I have interpreted and recontextualised curriculum knowledge for teachers. From this one may infer that I came into the project with pedagogical authority.

4.8 Access to the schools

It was only when faced with the need to implement the General Education and Training (GET) assessment policy in Grade 9 in 2002, or face being de-registered,[28] that the two schools that participated in this study were prompted to take action. They invited the Independent Examinations Board (IEB), their examining body, to run a workshop on the GET assessment for the teachers at the schools. The critical point of intersection among the two schools, policy and myself took place at this workshop in January 2002.

My dissatisfaction with the way in which the workshop was run,[29] and my perception that the teachers were keen but ill-equipped to implement the GET assessment model, prompted me to write to the heads of the two schools about a collaborative project [CR 1]. In that letter, and in the one I subsequently wrote to the History and Geography teachers, I explained my intentions and described the benefits of the project for their professional growth and development [CR 2, 10]. My approach throughout the intervention was transparent, based on an open and up-front approach and explicit research agenda, and driven by an intuitive sense of negotiating along the way.

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[28] Interestingly, the teachers appeared to be less aware of the seriousness of the mandate to implement the GET. This was evident in the following comment made by a teacher after member checking the draft of this chapter: “I didn’t sense it was as obvious as this to us. There was a general, gathering feeling that the implementation of the GET Grade 9 was now ‘for real’ and that we’d better get on with implementing it.”

[29] Issues and problems associated with the workshop have been documented elsewhere [CR 6, 7]

It was fortuitous that on the day I obtained the principals' permission to start the collaborative project, the head of History approached me for help (until then my connection had been with the geographers). This initiative enabled a linking and brokering to take place. I attended a History and Geography Departmental meeting at which I outlined the proposed project. At the first combined Human and Social Sciences meeting attended by all the history and geography teachers, one of whom was a principal, the teachers agreed to set aside a lunch hour for a weekly meeting. Support from the top, evident at the start of the project, continued throughout the ensuing two years.

The involvement of senior staff in the collaborative study was significant. A willingness to set aside time, to get involved and sustain that involvement despite their busy schedules, in hands-on curriculum developmental work, meant that they were 'leading from the front'. This had a powerful effect in that it engendered in their colleagues a confidence and willingness to take risks. Recognition and acknowledgement of the HSS team's efforts by the Principals, via newsletters to parents and in their address at the schools' annual prize giving ceremony, made the team feel valued.

A willingness to find time, even if it meant sacrificing personal time, suggested a high level of commitment and professionalism in the group. It was maintained throughout the two-year intervention. The extent to which it was sustained after my withdrawal from the schools is discussed in Chapter 9.

I have explained how I obtained access to the research site. In Chapter 5 (Methodology) the management and leadership of the HSS Team, which consisted of the teachers and me, is discussed as is my role within the team.

4.9 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter, I have profiled the schools and teachers that participated in the case study on outcomes-based policy implementation. I have justified my decision to choose two atypically well-resourced schools, explicated my research agenda and

assumptions, and explained how I gained access to the schools. The next chapter describes and justifies the research orientation and method.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an account of the ontological, epistemological and methodological orientation of the research. It starts with a description of and justification for the case study method adopted for the study. This is followed by a critical overview of the two distinct but interconnected parts of the research design, Phase One and Phase Two. The initial research goals and the shifts that took place are explained. A critical commentary on the research process ensues, focusing on how data were generated, analysed and made sense of during the two phases of the project. The participatory research approach and the action-based cycles associated with this approach are explained. Ethical considerations are woven into the discussion. Issues arising from the qualitative case study research method including, for example, trustworthiness and validity, are also given attention.

5.2 The research orientation

The primary goal of this study was to *understand* history and geography teachers' responses to OBE assessment policy, and to account for how the research intervention assisted in their acquisition of the deep understanding assumed by policy. To accomplish this goal, an interpretive qualitative inquiry approach was chosen.

In the conclusion to a book on qualitative research, Merriam and Associates (2002: 423) summarise the key characteristics of qualitative research as follows:

> The nature of qualitative research is as much a social and psychological process as it is systematic inquiry. Because the process is a journey, if not a struggle, it is crucial to study a phenomenon that you are *really* curious about, and that you care about, that you are passionate about. This interest will motivate and sustain you through the process. Second, the process will affect you;

> we learn a lot about ourselves as we design and carry out the study, write it up, and disseminate the results. Third, it is only in the doing of a qualitative study that we really learn what it means to be the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, how the design is really "emergent" and not pre-determined, how questions of authenticity, validity, and reliability become dealt with, and how ethics underlie all of these concerns. Finally it helps to have some companions on the journey; other people not only strengthen a study but also provide the support that brings it to completion.

These comments encapsulate the research experience described in this research report. Thus while the purpose of this chapter is to set out and justify the process of "systematic inquiry", I enrich the discussion by including attention to experiential aspects of the research process, both social and psychological.

In this and subsequent chapters, an effort is made to explicate my own leanings, both psychological and intellectual. I am aware that this carries the risk of self-exposure and the danger of being perceived as self-indulgent, but I argue that it is an aspect of reflexivity which, according to Gergen & Gergen (2000:1027), helps researchers to demonstrate "their surprises and 'undoings' in the process of the research…." The messiness of doing qualitative research is thus made visible, as well as the issues and dilemmas that emerged, and the decisions taken to resolve them.

The research approach adopted conforms with the interpretive-naturalistic paradigm (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:49-53; Connole, 1998:13; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999:123; Schwandt, 2000:191; Janse van Rensburg, 2001a:16). It is concerned with understanding the meaning that participants make of a situation or phenomenon (Merriam et al., 2002:6; Alvesson & Skölberg, 2000:52; Schwandt, 2000:201; Ezzy, 2002:3).

This paradigm assumes a relativist ontology. It acknowledges that the reality to be studied consists of people's subjective experiences of the external world. In seeking to understand the subjective world of human experience, the interpretive researcher adopts an interactional or inter-subjective epistemological stance towards that reality (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999:123; Janse van Rensburg, 2001a:16).

The adoption of an interpretive research orientation had methodological implications. Given the interpretive researcher's interest in contextual meaning-making rather than generalised rules, a case study method was chosen because it is well suited to rich interpretation and thorough understanding (Bassey, 1999:58; Stake,1995:16; 2000a:439; Flyvbjerg, 2001:78; Merriam, 2001:19). The method is explored in more detail in the next section.

5.3 Case study method

When the research was conceptualised in 2002, the primary purpose was to understand how history and geography teachers responded to outcomes-based assessment policy at one level of the South African education system (Grade 9) in a specific context (two independent schools). A case study method was chosen because it allows depth of investigation into a phenomenon and is thus suited to rich interpretation and thorough understanding (Bassey, 1999:58; Stake, 1995:16; 2000:439; Flyvbjerg, 2001:78; Merriam, 2001:19).

Certain dimensions of the case study methodology adopted in this study are dealt with elsewhere in the research report. More specifically, Chapter 4 (The Research Site and Participants) contains the following:

- a description of the case
- the rationale for choosing an atypical case
- my reasons for initiating the study
- my relationship to the schools and teachers
- how I obtained access
- my beliefs, assumptions and agenda.

In this chapter, I provide an overview of the research design, beginning with a description of the factors that led to the case study and that influenced its two-part structure. Flowing out of this, and linked to it, is a discussion of the research goals. This is followed by a critical commentary on the research process that includes an account of the various ways in which data were generated and analysed. The collaborative and participatory research approach adopted for the school-based

intervention (Phase One of case study) is described and justified. Lastly, issues associated with the case study method are examined. These include the purpose and intention of the study and the tension between particularity and generalisability; trustworthiness and validity; research ethics, and the role of the researcher in the case.

5.3.1 Case Archive and Case Record

Following Huberman & Miles' (1994:430) recommendation that a "good storage and retrieval system is critical for keeping track of the data available", and guided by the system developed by Lotz (1996:103), I gave special attention to the establishment of a case archive. This consisted of a comprehensive and systematic set of the documents used and generated during the case study. The documents were organised and managed through the creation of data files [coded DF] consisting of A4 envelopes. These 'files' were catalogued, indexed chronologically as the research process unfolded, and filed upright in boxes for easy access and retrieval (Bassey, 1999:79). Appendix A contains an inventory of the data files and a catalogue of the audio- and videotape recordings made during the school-based intervention (Phase One of the study). The data files provide a "trail of evidence" that enhances the trustworthiness of the study (Bassey, 1999:79-80).

Throughout the thesis, where appropriate, reference is made to the data files for evidence in support of claims, descriptions and statements. Because of the quantity of material gathered, it was not possible to include all of it in the research report (nor was it appropriate, given that much was in a raw form). Instead, a selection of the data files, as samples of evidence, is included in the Case Record [coded CR] that accompanies this thesis. An inventory of documents included in the Case Record is included as Appendix B. The case archive, containing all the documents and raw data, is available for inspection.

5.4 The research design

The study consisted of two parts or phases which unfolded chronologically over a four-year period (2002-2005). Key features of each phase are summarised in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Summary of the research design

PHASE ONE 2002 – 2003	PHASE TWO 2004 - 2005
A case study of outcomes-based assessment policy implementation in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2003 in two schools	A critical analysis of the case
A school-based intervention to support and guide teachers	My withdrawal from the schools
A participatory process of co-engagement around a shared concern	A solitary process focused on analysing and interpreting the case
Focus on describing and analysing from a position within the research process (internal perspective)	Take up a vantage point of hindsight to interpret what had emerged in the case (external perspective) Take up an external vantage point to gain deeper analytical insights

Table 5.1 shows that the two phases were distinct in terms of:

- chronology
- research approach and process (participatory co-engagement in Phase One and detachment and non-participation in Phase Two)
- focus, with Phase One being concerned primarily with description and Phase Two with analysis and interpretation
- my position and role (immersed and co-participant; detached and non-participant) in relation to the case.

Although distinctive in the ways listed above, the two phases were interconnected and interdependent in terms of data generation and data analysis. The relationship between the two elements of the research is not clearly discernible in Table 5.1. Qualitative research has been characterised as "integrated research", which Ezzy (2002:62)

describes as research in which data collection and data analysis take place simultaneously, albeit in different proportions, throughout the research process. Figure 5.1 illustrates the relationship between data collection and analysis in a way that suggests the dynamic interplay between the two. This is discussed in greater depth in Sections 5.7 and 5.8.

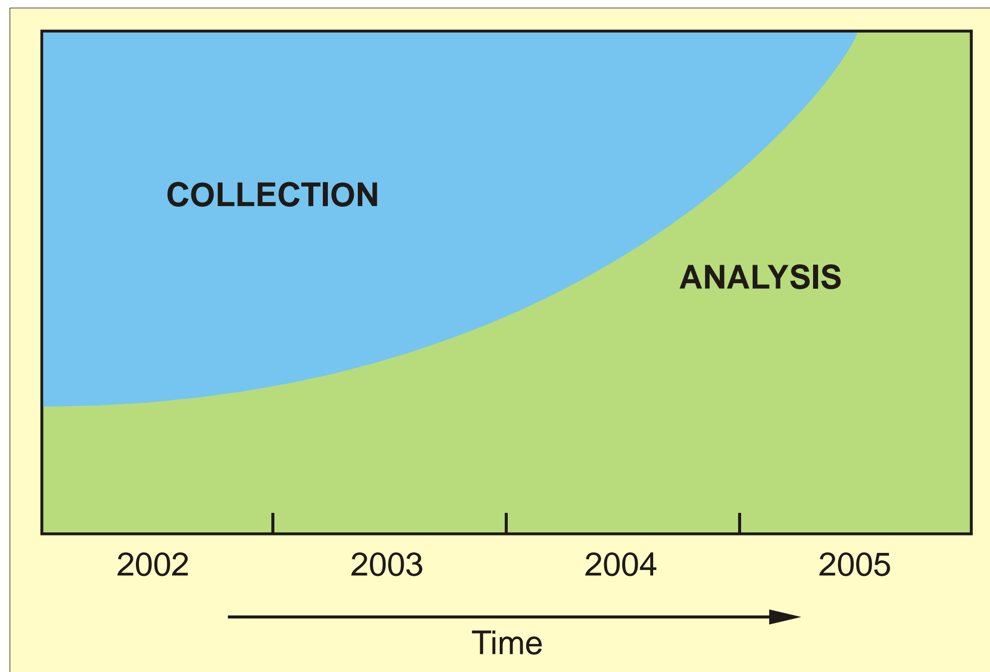

Figure 5.1: The relationship between data generation and analysis
(Adapted from Ezzy, 2002:62)

The first phase of the research involved setting up a partnership between myself, a lecturer in an education department at a university, and history and geography teachers in two independent schools. In Chapter 4 (Section 4.2), I explained how and why I became directly involved in a national policy implementation process as a participant in a school-based intervention.

The research process consisted of participatory co-engagement around a shared concern, namely the implementation of outcomes-based assessment policy at one level of the national system. This was congruent with a key principle of PAR described by McTaggart (1997:31), namely that PAR is about changing individuals and the culture of the group or institution to which they belong in such a way that the change is not imposed. He explains: "Individuals and groups agree to work together to change themselves individually and collectively. Their interests are joined by an

agreed 'thematic concern'" (ibid.). The participatory research approach is examined in Section 5.9, below.

Using the methods of ethnography, in particular participant observation, I spent two years (2002 and 2003) working alongside teachers, supporting and guiding them, as they made sense of and implemented assessment policy in Grade 9. Data were generated through document analysis, participant observation, field notes and the keeping of a research journal, focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews. As co-researchers, the teachers generated data on their own and in collaboration with me. The various ways in which data were generated are discussed in Section 5.7.

Phase One ended when I withdrew from the schools at the end of 2003. The reasons for this were as follows:

- At the start of our collaboration, we understood that the Grade 9 assessment certification process would start at the end of 2003. The teachers had agreed to work with me during the window period before the full execution of policy together with its certification process began. Although the latter was postponed, thus creating an extended window period for the national system to gear itself for the imminent certification process, I felt it important to honour our original agreement of working together for a two-year period.

- There was rich evidence that suggested that by the end of our two years of co-engagement and collaboration, the teachers had moved from a position of low knowledge and dependence on an outside facilitator, to a position of critical understanding and independence which did not require further support or guidance from me.

- Two years had been sufficient time to achieve the research goals, in particular those linked to describing and documenting an unfolding process of policy implementation, illuminating and providing feedback to curriculum and assessment developers on issues associated with policy and possible strategies for solving problems.

- I felt that extending my work with the teachers would not appreciably enhance what had been achieved during the previous two years. There was a potential danger of data reaching saturation point (Yin, 2004:251) and becoming repetitive as opposed to illuminating. I had enough data: it was time to start interpreting and understanding what had happened in Phase One.

Phase One of the study is best described as the descriptive period, the focus of which was generating and working with thick description. In Phase Two, the focus shifted to analysis and interpretation. Drawing on Ricoeur's (1979, as cited by Kelly,1999c:399) idea of "distanciation", that is, understanding a context from outside that context, I withdrew from the schools in order to interpret and make sense of what had happened during the two years of co-engagement. It meant taking up the role of 'researcher' and relinquishing that of co-participant.

My position as the researcher making sense of the case in which I had been a co-participant, and the vantage point I assumed for analysing and interpreting the case, are illustrated in Figure 5.2 in Section 5.8. Importantly, the figure illustrates how I took a "perspectival approach" as described by Maykut & Morehouse (1994:124). I was able to analyse the case from different vantage points, and shift from the role of co-participant and co-researcher to non-participant and solitary researcher concerned with revisiting and making sense of what had happened in the intervention.

Strategies used to navigate a way methodologically through the tension associated with my duality of roles and membership affiliation included distanciating myself and then taking up a vantage point from which to make sense of the case. Figure 5.2 in Section 5.6 shows how distanciation was achieved in two ways. First, I detached myself physically and temporally, and took up a vantage point of hindsight that enabled me to review the intervention as described in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 describes the difficulties I experienced when detaching myself from the intense process in which I had been immersed, and the frustration of not being able to get to where I wanted to in terms of gaining deep insights into what had emerged in the review. It also describes how further detachment was achieved by externalising the vantage point.

The issue of my positionality in relation to the various cycles of analytical activity and layers of interpretation that resulted, is explored in more detail in Section 5.6. This is followed by an in-depth discussion of the methodological processes that ensued as I analysed and made sense of the data (Section 5.8). Before offering a critical commentary on the research process, including data generation and data analysis, I discuss the research goals.

5.5 Research goals

When the research was conceptualised in 2002, as is evident in the case record [for example, CR 6], the research question was: How do teachers in a given context respond to outcomes-based national assessment policy, and how do they acquire the deep understanding required to implement change in a meaningful way? The purpose of the research was thus to investigate history and geography teachers' responses to assessment policy in two schools and to analyse how the research intervention informed their acquisition of deep understanding. The goals of the study were broad:

- to describe, analyse and document how teachers in a given context respond to the imposition of a new national assessment policy;
- to identify the extent to which teachers are able to develop an understanding of the possibilities and opportunities offered by policy through developing the deep understanding required;
- to describe and analyse the role of a school-based intervention in facilitating and supporting change located within a critically reflexive practice; and
- to analyse the findings and set them in the wider context of educational change.

These goals guided the research process during Phase One of the research, that is, the school-based intervention (as described in Section 5.4). It was only when I withdrew from the schools (the second phase of the research, 2004-2005) and started trying to

make sense of the many unexpected and unanticipated things that had happened during the two-year intervention (see Chapters 6 and 7 of this thesis) that I realised that the study had moved beyond its initial goals. The goals of the research had shifted and evolved to the following: to develop a conceptual and methodological framework that would enable the acquisition of a deep understanding of the dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that had taken place in the intervention. More specifically the research goals were as follows:

- to develop a heuristic for describing and making sense of ‘what’ had happened in the intervention in terms of knowledge recontextualisation;
- to probe ‘how’ and ‘why’ knowledge recontextualisation took place as it did in the intervention;
- to describe and analyse the meaning-making process which enabled the teachers’ epistemological empowerment and their acquisition of the rules for recontextualising knowledge;
- to describe the teacher professional development model which facilitated the recontextualising of knowledge that took place in the intervention; and
- to describe the political implications of knowledge recontextualisation as it had occurred in the intervention.

Although I was aware that in terms of the naturalistic-inquiry approach I had adopted, the design would “emerge, develop, unfold” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:223), I underestimated the difficulties I would experience. Chapter 7 describes the perturbation and frustration that were experienced when I realised that the goals had shifted. I took heart from the assertion made by Merriam (2002:422) that qualitative research is learned through experience rather than from procedural guidelines, and that things will happen that we simply cannot anticipate. Merriam points out that research of this kind inevitably involves ambiguity and will often involve long periods of uncertainty. Ezzy (2002:77) also points out that “most qualitative researchers do

not presume to know all their research questions before starting the data collection. Additional questions often emerge as the analysis takes place."

5.6 The research process: An overview

Standard or basic qualitative research methods were used to generate and work with data in this study (Punch, 1998; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998; Kelly, 1999a; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999; Janesick, 2000; Merriam, 2001; Ezzy, 2002). Drawing on Wolcott (1994) to support his argument, Freeman (1998:160) contends that qualitative research should "lay out" the processes employed in dealing with the data. Likewise Alvesson & Skolberg (2000:241) argue for an awareness of the analytical and interpretive "act", and Crang (2003:127) advocates the need to make visible the activities involved in analysis and interpretation. In this section and the three that follow, I explicate and make visible the various methodological processes and activities that took place in the study.

This section sketches the 'big picture' of the study's methodological processes as an introduction to the more in-depth review of the various techniques used to collect and generate data (Section 5.7), and the ways in which the data were worked with both analytically and interpretively (Section 5.8).

Figure 5.2 is a simplified picture of the various methodological processes that were involved in the case study. Communicating as it does the 'big picture', the diagram provides a holistic, albeit simplified, view of the various elements and activities constituting the research process, and the spatial and temporal relationships between and within them. It shows the research process to be multi-dimensional and multi-layered.

The diagram illustrates the following key characteristics of the research process:

- my position during the two phases of the study, firstly as an insider, immersed and co-engaged in Phase One (2002 and 2003), and secondly as an outsider, detached from the teachers in Phase Two (2004 and 2005)

- the different vantage points from which I viewed, analysed and made sense of the intervention: first, from an internal perspective within the case study, secondly, from a position of spatial and temporal detachment from the intervention, and thirdly, from a position conceptually distanciated from the intervention

- a research design that consisted of two distinct but interconnected phases with the actions, both generative and interpretive, of Phase Two linked to and evolving out of the actions of Phase One

- a continuous spiral of phase-related analytical cycles which were interlinked and each of which was informed and shaped by what had emerged in the previous analytical cycle

- analytical and interpretive activities as sequential and integrated, that is, both taking place simultaneously continuing throughout the two phases of the study

- an analytical spiral consisting of three cycles of analysis – the preliminary, interpretive and 'deep' analysis – which involved working with the data at increasing levels of abstraction, namely thick description, thematic and conceptual

- a multi-layered sense-making or interpretive process which consisted of preliminary interpretation, interpretation and further interpretation, each done from a different vantage point and using a distinct interpretive grid through which to view the case

- an evolving process of meaning-making facilitated by the distanciating process and development and utilization of interpretive grids through which to view the case, and

- the source of substantive written evidence for the various methodological activities illustrated in the diagrammatic summary.

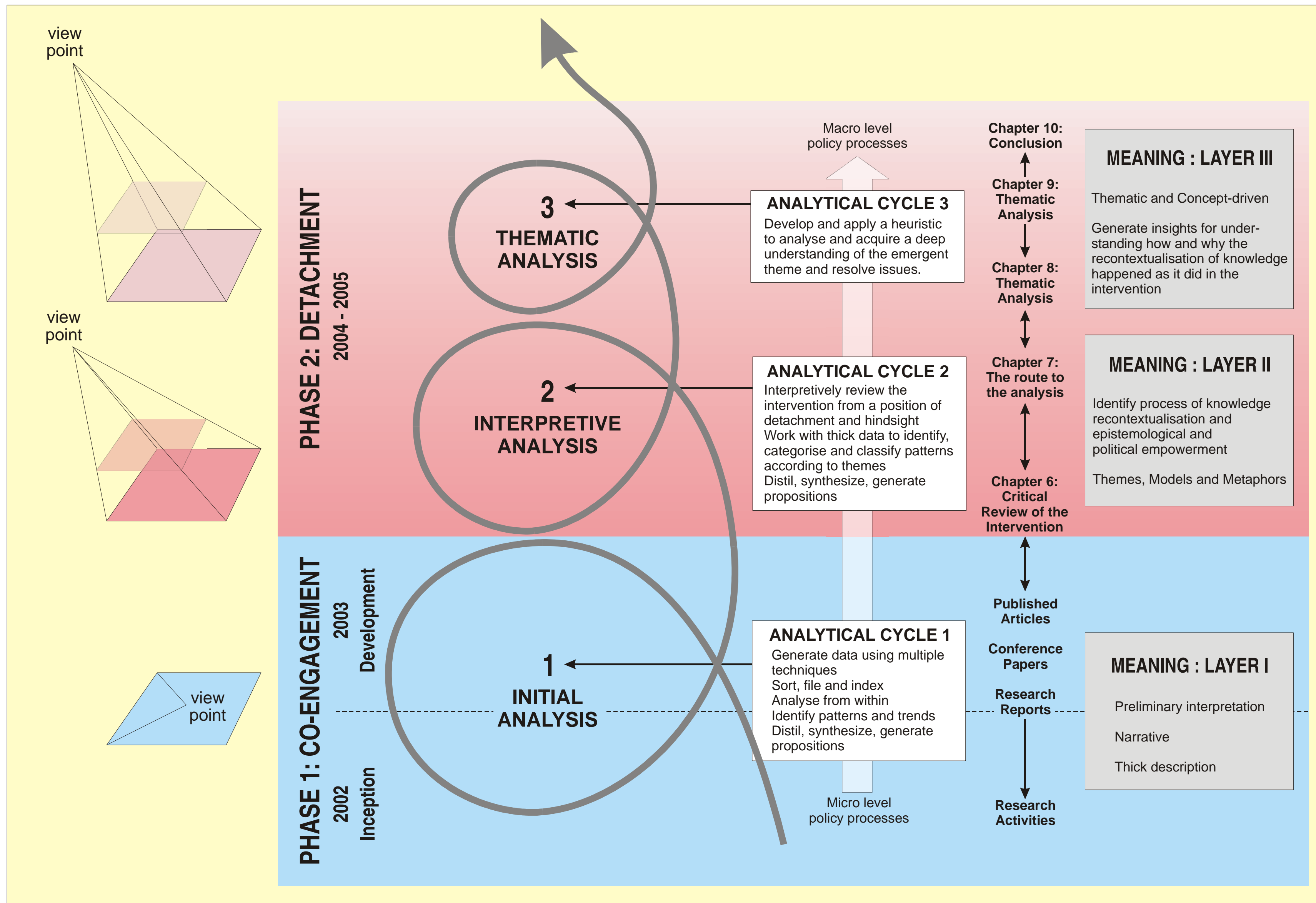

Figure 5.2: The research design and processes

These elements are explained in more detail in the sections that follow. Evidence is provided which suggests that the methodological processes in this study mirror the trend towards data collection, analysis and interpretation being distinct but interrelated and ongoing processes (Makyut & Morehouse, 1994:123; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:141; Terre Blanche & Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999:139; Merriam et al., 2002:14). Figure 5.1 (see Section 5.5) illustrates the shift in emphasis that took place from data collection, description, and preliminary interpretation (Phase One) to less description, more analysis and more sophisticated interpretation (Phase Two).

5.7 Data generation

This section explains the methods used to generate data, the type of data generated, who used the data, how it was used and for what purposes. Given the participatory and collaborative nature of the research intervention, and the fact that the project's inception was spontaneous and sudden, I entered the schools with a flexible and open-ended research design. My decision to use the data collecting techniques that I did, although shaped by my initial research interest in gaining an understanding of the teachers' subjectively meaningful experiences, was reinforced by the precipitous way in which the fieldwork commenced.

A range of techniques was used: participant observation, document analysis, interviews and focus group discussions. These enabled me to watch and listen, to ask and examine what was going on within the case over an extended period of time (Miles & Huberman, 1994:430; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:65; Bassey, 1999:81). Further, the use of multiple techniques was important for triangulation purposes, particularly in this study, where the researcher was a co-participant in the case. The notion of "membership role" (Adler & Adler, 1987) was thus an important issue, particularly in terms of the role conflict associated with my being both the researcher and a co-participant in the case. Difficulties and dilemmas associated with the duality of my role as the 'researcher' are discussed in Sections 5.9.2 and 5.10.2.

The teachers, as co-researchers doing action-type research in their own classrooms, also generated data, working on their own and jointly, both within and between

departments. Data generated included various curriculum and assessment documents. Finally, data were generated through the collaborative efforts of the teachers and the researcher, as a co-participant in Phase One of the study. This included two research reports, a conference paper and a publication (see Chapter 6, Section 6.7).

5.7.1 Participant Observation

Given the goals of the research and the participatory approach adopted – my affiliation as an "insider" taking up an "active membership role" (Adler & Adler, 1987:67) – participant observation was selected as a primary data collecting technique.

The use of participant observation involved my watching, noting and reflecting on happenings and interactions during the two-year intervention. The observations were unstructured and were made in a natural, open-ended way (Punch, 1998:186). This meant observing and recording events as they unfolded, rather than filtering them via pre-determined categories or classifications (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999:141). My intention was to try not to impose any concepts or theory on the raw observational data. I worked with the observational data in an inductive way, allowing patterns and trends to emerge as the analysis started, and used it to triangulate data generated through interviews and focus group discussions. Observations were recorded as field notes made on site and/or written up as part of my research journal. These acted as an aide-memoir to record and reflect on my perceptions of events and change processes as they occurred in the intervention. Given that the research was located within reflexive practice, the keeping of a "reflexive journal" (Kelly, 1999a:427) was seen as appropriate.

5.7.2 Research Journal

An electronic research journal was kept throughout the period of co-engagement, that is, Phase One of the study. Following Taylor & Bogdan's advice (1998:69), I made entries as soon as possible after my weekly meeting with the teachers. I used my research journal to record and reflect on hunches and oddities that cropped up in the course of my weekly interactions with the teachers, theoretical concerns and

frustrations, changing perceptions, and potential dangers and risks. I used observations, field notes, notes made by teachers or non-participant observers (such as a PGCE student teacher doing teaching practice at the school) as bases for journal entries. The research journal was useful for recording and reflecting on the research process as it unfolded, and it provided me with a route map to navigate my way through the data files when engaged in analytical activity.

The page set-up in the journal provided a wide right-hand margin in which comments were scribbled and in which cross-references were made to the data file/s linked to the journal discussion. This strategy enabled me to track and compare evidence from several sources, which was useful for triangulation purposes.

I concur with Taylor & Bogdan (1998:90) that "no other method can provide the depth of understanding that comes from directly observing and listening to what [people] have to say at the scene", and that this technique requires time and effort. Although observation provided me with deep insights into the teachers' world and *modus operandi,* more so because of the "active membership" role I took up (Adler & Adler, 1987:69), I was conscious of the dangers and limitations of this technique. Journal entries, based on my personal perceptions, were not only subjective and potentially biased, but because of my membership status in the group, carried the additional risk of being uncritical. For this reason, wherever possible, they were used to complement and deepen insight gained from individual and group interviews and document analysis. Multiple sources enabled triangulation and helped to counteract the potential danger of only my voice and interpretation of a situation or event being heard. In order for other participants' voices to emerge, it was necessary to use interviews and focus group discussions as well.

Extracts taken from my research journal have been included for the purpose of illustration in Section 5.9.2.

5.7.3 Interviews

In this study both individual and group face-to-face interviews were used at different times and for different purposes (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:79-110; Fontana & Frey, 2000:646; Ezzy, 2002:44).

- **One-to-One Interviews**

My choice of semi-structured, one-to-one interviews was influenced by Ezzy's (2002:45) contention that they enable one to "gain access to people's ideas and thoughts, their perceptions of change and their fears and concerns in their own words rather than in the words of the researcher." Given my involvement in the study and the intense use made of participant observation for gathering data, interviews played an important role. They helped me track the changes in the teachers' perceptions that took place over time, and monitor the extent to which what they were saying was aligned with what they were doing. The interviews, when viewed in relation to the various documents, both curriculum and assessment, generated by the teachers during the two year intervention, were important for triangulation purposes.

Three rounds of semi-structured individual interviews were conducted:

- at the start of the intervention, in February 2002 [DF 17],
- midway, in February 2003 [DF 58], and
- at the end of the intervention in January 2004 [DF 92].

The teachers were informed beforehand of the purpose of the interview and given a copy of the open-ended questions that constituted the beginning of the interview. The format of the interviews was a traditional question and answer-type structure based on a set of open-ended questions. Each interview, lasting approximately 30 minutes, was audio-taped, transcribed either by myself or a research assistant, and handed back to the teachers for member checking (Bassey, 1999:77). The use of an assistant, although not ideal, was necessary because of time constraints. I remained "intimately familiar" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:162) with the data, but was relieved of the arduous technical task of transcription while benefitting from the accelerated process of having the data

transformed into a workable format for identifying emerging trends. Written permission was obtained from the teachers to quote from interviews [CR 18].

- **Group Interviews**

Whereas the one-to-one interviews enabled me to gain insights into the perceptions of individual teachers, group interviews enabled me to gather information on the group's thinking. I was attracted by Maykut & Morehouse's (1994:104) notion of a group interview as "a group conversation with a purpose" and saw it as providing an opportunity for the teachers "to listen to each other's contributions, which may spark new insights or help them to develop their ideas more clearly". Although the intention was to promote opportunities for sharing ideas, different forms of group interview were used at different times and for different purposes. Guided by Frey and Fontana's (1991 in Fontana & Frey, 2000:653) typology of group interviews, I conducted both formal and informal group interviews. Table 5.2 , below, summarises the 'formal' focus group discussions, that is, the ones that were planned and scheduled in advance and which were video- and/or audio-recorded and transcribed.

The first focus group discussion was chaired by a colleague from the university where I work. Given that the group interview took place at the start of the intervention, I wanted to listen and observe the teachers rather than chair the proceedings. With the exception of this, and an interview conducted by an outside evaluator at the end of the intervention, the remainder of the group interviews were chaired by myself or (twice) by a teacher. At the end of 2003, I asked a colleague in the Academic Development Centre at the university where I work to conduct a group interview, the purpose of which was to evaluate the two-year intervention [CR 12]. The use of an outside evaluator helped to counteract the potential danger of researcher bias and thus enhanced the trustworthiness of the study (Bassey, 1999:74).

Although my intention had been to video-record all the focus group discussions, the logistics of arranging a camera and then transcribing the videotape were such that an audiotape-recorder was used. All tapes, both video- and audio-, were catalogued and indexed and included as substantive evidence in the case record (see Appendix A: Inventory of Data Files).

Table 5.2: Summary of the focus group interviews

Date	Evidence	Chaired by	Participants	Purpose
27/02/02	DF 22	Colleague in the Education Department, Rhodes	History and Geography teachers	To elicit teachers' understanding of their discipline
12/07/02	DF 39	Researcher	History and Geography teachers	To record conversations about an integrated thematic curriculum approach
30/10/02	DF 53	Teacher	History and Geography teachers	Analysis of interviews and focus group discussions
13/11/02	DF 54	Researcher	HSS team	CTA analysis
9/04/03	DF 63	Researcher	History and Geography teachers	Review of the research process
24/06/03	DF 68	Researcher	History and Geography teachers	Review of the research process
23/07/03	DF 72	Researcher	HSS team	Review of Learning Process Map
10/09/03	DF 76	Researcher	HSS team	Analysis of DoE Assessment Guidelines
17/09/03	DF 77	Researcher	HSS team	CTA analysis
12/11/03	DF 84	Researcher	HSS team	CTA analysis
19/11/03	DF 85	Teacher	History and Geography teachers	Review of research process and way forward
28/11/03	DF 90 CR 12	Outside Evaluator	History and Geography teachers	Evaluation of two-year intervention
June 2005	DF 100	Researcher	History and Geography teachers	To find out what happened subsequent to my withdrawal from the research project

These were the ‘formal’ focus group discussions. In addition, informal discussions or conversations took place at the weekly meetings. These were recorded as field notes and formed the basis of journal entries.

Further, presentations by the HSS team or members of the team on their collaborative work were made to different audiences at various stages of the research process. Table 5.3 summarises these. With the exception of the two presentations made to members of the Geographical Association who visited the schools in July 2003, and the presentation of a paper at the Geographical Association Annual Conference in Canterbury in April 2004, the presentations were video- and/or audio-recorded and transcribed.

Table 5.3: Summary of the group presentations

Date	Evidence	Presented by	Audience	Purpose
8/03/02	DF 23	HSS Team	Teachers at the two schools	Presentation on the collaborative research project
3/10/02	DF 50	Geography teachers	HSS team	To report on the presentation they made to other IEB users
30/07/03	DF 73	HSS team	Members of the Geographical Association	Presentation on enquiry development
19/09/03	DF 78	HSS team	IEB users and teachers from state schools	Presentation on curriculum and assessment innovation
April 2004	DF 95	Geography teacher and lecturer	Geographical Association	Enquiry development work
May 2004	DF97	History and Geography teachers	Teachers at the two schools	Concept-mapping

Although the one-to-one interviews were semi-structured, they were informal and often assumed a conversational character. They were, however, based on the traditional question and answer format. This was not the case with the group

interviews. Instead, my role was that of a "moderator or facilitator" (Punch, 1998:177) or non-participant observer. Importantly, the group interviews and presentations illuminate how I played the dual role of researcher and co-participant in the study. There is evidence of my attempting in some instances to distance myself and take up the position of non-participant, in an effort to elicit the ideas of the others. This was important, for example, when they negotiated the topic of an integrated thematic approach, and when they evaluated the two-year process and took decisions about what ought to be done once I withdrew from the schools.

Focus group discussions were enormously useful for recording significant developmental moments in the case. Although the one-to-one interviews were useful in gaining insights into individual teacher's minds, a greater richness of ideas lay in the focus group discussions, where a comment made by one teacher often triggered creative and innovative ideas in others. I concur with Punch (1998:177) that group interactions can assist "in bringing to the surface aspects of a situation which might not otherwise have been exposed." Evidence of what this looked like in practice within the context of the study is provided in Chapter 8.

5.7.4 Document Analysis

An analysis of the data files (Appendix A) reveals the range of documents used as data sources in this study. These include:

- transcripts generated through interviews and focus group discussions, and the reflexive research journal as described above
- letters written by me to the teachers, principals and curriculum developers etc.
- field notes
- diagrams and summaries drawn by the teachers and me
- various documents (assessment tasks, units of work, rubrics etc.) developed by the teachers
- conference papers, research reports and published articles, and
- documents generated by official and non-official organisations and institutions outside the case.

Drawing on the ideas of Scott (1990) as cited by Punch (1998:191), the documents used in this study were categorised according to authorship. Table 5.4 summarises the typology of documents used in this study.

Documents generated in the first two categories of Table 5.4, that is, by the ministry and DoE, the provincial departments of education and by the IEB, guided and shaped the documents generated by the teachers and myself. Importantly, the documents generated by the teachers provide substantive evidence of their response to outcomes-based policy. They illustrate the high level of activity that ensued and the productive and constructive actions that resulted.

Table 5.4: Summary of documents used in and generated through the intervention

Generated by	Name and/or Description of document	Data source	Used by and for what purpose in context of the case study
The Ministry (DoE)	Policy documents Department of Education (DoE) (1996). *Curriculum Framework for General and Further Education and Training*. Draft, Pretoria: Government Printer. Department of Education (DoE) (1997). *Curriculum 2002: Lifelong learning for the 21st century*. Pretoria: Government Printer. Department of Education (DoE) (1998). *Assessment policy in the General Education and Training Band, Grades R to 9 and ABET. Government Gazette No. 19640, 402*. Pretoria: Government Printer. Department of Education (DoE) (2000). *Norms and Standards for Educators*. National Education Policy Act, 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer. Department of Education (2001). *Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement for Schools (Grades R-9): Social Sciences.* Pretoria: Government Printer.	DF 7, 8	The university lecturer: to mediate and guide curriculum and assessment developmental processes The teachers: to guide the development of the learner profile document to guide the development of an outcomes-based curriculum and units of work
The national or provincial Department of Education or IEB	Guideline documents Department of Education (DoE) (2002a). Guidelines for the assessment of learners in Grade 9 in 2002. Http://education.pwv.gov.za/DoE_Sites/Curriculum Department of Education (DoE) (undated) circa May 2002. *Curriculum 2005 Assessment Guidelines. Human and Social Sciences Senior Phase.* Pretoria:	DF 7,8	The university lecturer to guide the assessment developmental work in particular CASS to design an assessment audit sheet The teachers to develop CASS to audit CASS

Generated by	Name and/or Description of document	Data source	Used by and for what purpose in context of the case study
	Government Printer. Department of Education (DoE) (2002c). *A draft framework for the development of the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA).* Pretoria: Government Printer. Independent Examinations Board (IEB) 2002 *Circular to Principals No 65/2001*, 15 November. Independent Examinations Board (IEB) 2002 *Circular to Principals No 41/2002*, 18 July. Independent Examinations Board (IEB) Circular to Principals No 38/2003, 12 June 2003. Independent Examinations Board (IEB) 2003*Circular to Principals No 56/2003*, 17 September. Western Cape Education Department (2000). *Doing OBE: Part 1*. Educator's Manual Intermediate/Senior Phase. Cape Town: Western Cape Education Department.	DF 6 DF 25	The university lecturer as background information for the unfolding research process The university lecturer as a learning resource for the teachers
University lecturer	Diagrams, summaries and concept-maps Letters to teachers Criterion-referenced assessment sheets Assessment audit sheet Curriculum planning document Enquiry briefing sheet Co-operative learning workshop	DF 4, CR 3 DF 3, 20, 22, 25, 35, 38, 39, 47, 52, 5761, 63, 67, 68, 84 DF 18, CR 6, 7 DF 49 DF 14, 15, 31, 39, 42, 53, 56 DF 42, 61, 62, 80 DF 30, CR 11	Conceptual learning tool to mediate policy To inform the teachers of plans and intentions and to clarify the unfolding research process To model and scaffold the teachers' learning To support and guide assessment evaluation To guide and support curriculum development To guide and support the development of an enquiry To guide, support and model outcomes-based curriculum design and co-operative groupwork

Generated by	Name and/or Description of document	Data source	Used by and for what purpose in context of the case study
History and Geography teachers	Criterion-referenced continuous assessment tasks and rubrics Outcomes-based units of work Outcomes-based Grade 9 curriculum Assessment audit Master portfolio of assessment and curriculum work in Grade 9	DF 18, 19, 30, 32, 33, 46, 65. CR 6, 7 DF 15, 19, 32, 33, 45, 46 , 53, 56, 94, 71, 73 CR 7, DF 42, 59, 70 CR 7 Portfolios	As substantive evidence of meaningful assessment policy implementation Evidence of OBE curriculum policy implementation As evidence of change and OBE curriculum policy implementation As evidence of reflective practice Teachers as substantive evidence for the cluster group moderation of CASS
The HSS team	Research Report 1 and 2 Conference paper and article for publication	CR 6, 7 CR 9	University lecturer to document the unfolding research process Teachers as a mirror to hold up to themselves to document their curriculum and assessment work with substantive evidence Schools - for quality assurance purpose with uMalusi Geography teachers and university lecturer
The Grade 9 learners	Completed Assessment tasks Portfolios of work	Portfolios	Teachers - to analyse and evaluate the tasks
‘Others’	Principal’s letters Outside evaluator’s report	DF 2, 55 DF 90, CR 12	To acknowledge the HSS team efforts to parents University lecturer to triangulate data and to strengthen the trustworthiness of the data

This section has provided an overview of the various techniques used to gather and generate data from multiple sources. These enabled me to amass details of *what* was happening in the intervention. The focus was thus on abstracting out of reality a record of the case in the form of thick description, which was member checked. The next section reviews the approach I took and the various processes involved in working with the descriptive data as it was being generated. I explain how I developed my own approach which, although distinct and individual, was nevertheless similar to the standard approach described in the literature (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999; Janesick, 2000). In particular, I explain how data analysis, as a process of making sense of the data, involved working at different levels of analysis (Merriam, 2001:178).

5.8 Data analysis and interpretation

Figure 5.2 illustrates how the study consisted of three broad cycles of analytical activity. In this section, I explain how each cycle had a distinct focus and way of working with the data. More specifically, I describe and explain the distinct activities that took place within each cycle, how these evolved and were linked to the different interpretive acts that took place simultaneously, and how together these shaped subsequent analytical cycles. Following Terre Blanche & Kelly (1999:140), and Crang (2003:127) who unpacks the "actual activity of analysis" and makes visible the messiness of it and the "tangible processes of interpretation", this section follows a chronological route and provides an overview of what took place during the three cycles of analytical activity illustrated in Figure 4.2. In particular, I focus on:

- the various analytical processes and strategies that were used to organize and manage the data generated in the case (the two-year school based intervention), and

- the generative processes, both analytical and interpretive, that ensued in Phase Two, when having withdrawn and distanced myself from the case, I took up a vantage point to interpret the patterns and trends that had emerged.

5.8.1 Analysis: Cycle one

The first analytical cycle took place during Phase One of the research. It involved a number of activities. First, data generated through the use of multiple techniques at each of the weekly HSS meetings that took place during 2002 and 2003 were analysed for formative purposes, to guide the unfolding research and curriculum and assessment developmental activities. This involved listening to and watching audio- and video-recordings of interviews and focus group discussions, reading and re-reading documents generated during the weekly HSS meetings, writing reflections in my research journal, and recording 'things that stood out' for me – hunches and ideas that were beginning to crystallise. These provided points of reference for the more in-depth analysis that followed at a later stage.

Other analytical activities included cross-referencing to different data sources, member checking to strengthen validity, categorising, coding, indexing and filing. It was both "a mechanical or technical process" involving physical activities, for example, filing and storing; and a mental process of "inductive reasoning, thinking and theorising" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:140). Importantly, this regular and ongoing process provided an intense immersion in the data, which, although time-consuming, was hugely advantageous. It ensured that I stayed close to the data and developed the "intimate familiarity" seen as necessary for good qualitative research (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:162).

Concurrent with the preliminary analytical activity described above, another, less frequent activity took place. It involved abstracting out of reality, as thick description, a record of what happened in the intervention. It represented the first layer of analysis and involved documenting a validated account of what the teachers and I (the 'HSS team') did and achieved during each year of the intervention. It was necessary to analyse, distil and synthesise the information contained in the case's data files in order to document in narrative form the unfolding research process. This resulted in two research reports which, written in a structured reporting style (Bassey, 1999:84), constituted the first descriptive account of the intervention.

The research reports, the tangible outcome of the first of three cycles of analysis in the study, were significant. By distilling and synthesising the vast quantity of data generated during each year of the intervention, they played an important role in enabling the "progressive focusing" which is described as follows:

> Obviously, the three stages [that is, observation, renewed inquiry and explanation] overlap and functionally interrelate. The transition from stage to stage, as the investigation unfolds, occurs as the problem areas become progressively clarified and re-defined. The course of the study cannot be charted in advance. Beginning with an extensive data base, the researchers systematically reduce the breadth of their enquiry to give more concentrated attention to emerging issues.
>
> (Parlett & Hamilton, 1976:148 in Stake, 1995:22)

'Progessive focusing', as it occurred in this study, is illustrated by the diminishing size of the analytical cycles, and the boxes summarising the 'Meaning-making Layer' on the right hand side of Figure 5.2. These are discussed in the following section. I was attracted to this approach because it enables the researcher systematically to reduce the extensive database and the breadth of the inquiry to give more concentrated attention to the emerging issues.

In summary, the first cycle of analysis, which took place during the school-based intervention, involved working with "lived experience" to generate thick description (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999:141). The focus was on documenting in rich detail the dynamic and social process of policy implementation taking place in the two schools, providing feedback to policy makers, and identifying and describing the problems and issues associated with the new policy as they arose and were addressed in the schools. The two research reports and various published articles refined and synthesised the data generated through interviews, focus group discussions, document analysis, observations and field notes during the two years of co-engagement.

5.8.2 Analysis: Cycle two

The second cycle of analytical activity took place once I had withdrawn from the case, distanced myself spatially and temporally, and taken up a vantage point of hindsight.

This enabled me, now as a researcher external to the case, to work with the thick description generated during the first cycle of analysis.

The various descriptive accounts of the research written during Phase One of the case study provided the data for the analysis that took place in the second analytical cycle of the study, as illustrated in Figure 5.2. The accounts were analysed and synthesized for the interpretive analysis contained in the critical review of the case (Chapter 6). Figure 5.2 shows how this involved identifying emerging patterns and trends in the case and classifying them according to the distinct activities they involved (Merriam, 2001:179; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998:141). This was similar to “open-coding” as described by Ezzy (2002:88).

The following categories emerged at this, the second level of analysis: assessment, pedagogy, curriculum and structures in the education system. Broadly speaking, the last-mentioned is seen as including the organizational and management structures and functioning of the school and national system, and teacher professional development. A key theme which emerged at this level of interpretation was change and continuity in terms of the categories of activity identified above. The analytical activity at this point of the study shifted from working with the data chronologically and sequentially to working in a thematic way.

Despite warnings given me that analysis is a difficult process (Taylor & Bodgan, 1998:140), the full implications of what this meant in reality – in particular, the difficulty of “transforming” or interpreting the data (Wolcott, 1994 in Freeman, 1998:160-64; Punch, 1998:200) – only became apparent when I began working with the data during the first phase of withdrawal from the case in 2004. I tried to manipulate the data in a way that would enable me to generate theoretical propositions capable of shedding light on what had happened in the case study. My interpretation of the data was shaped first by my pre-existing ideas or schemata, and secondly by Bernstein’s (1990, 1996) model of the pedagogic field.

By drawing on prior knowledge and symbolic capital, I used metaphor in the Deleuzian[30] sense to generate propositions. Through a creative process of "detaching play" (Clark, 2003:29) with words, I was able to generate ideas and language that were useful but limited. In Chapter 7, I explain how the use of the metaphor of the geographer took me into a space where I could start to make sense of what had happened in the intervention. It did not, however, enable me to get to a vantage point from which I could generate the insights I needed for a deep understanding of the emergent theme. I explain how, trapped, as it were, in my own experience and realising that my interpretation was self-referential, I was immobilised by frustration. I describe how, supported by critical friends, I turned to the work of Basil Bernstein and was enabled thereby to evolve a vantage point for understanding the emergent theme of teachers as recontextualisers of knowledge.

Further, the second analytical cycle, which involved an interpretive review of the case from a position of hindsight, provided a rich but sterile interpretation of what had been a dynamic and human process of policy recontextualisation in a specific context. The analysis, in foregrounding the 'doing', that is, the action within the case, had dimmed the circumambient social dimension to virtual invisibility. Although this cycle of analysis added a thematic layer of interpretation to the descriptive layer of the first level of analysis, it was still not able to provide a deep understanding of the case. Further, conceptual distanciation was achieved through externalising the vantage point, as shown in Figure 5.2.

5.8.3 Analysis: Cycle three

The third cycle of analytical activity took place in 2005. The support it required is described in Chapter 7. Unlike the previous two cycles of analytical activity, the analysis in this cycle was concept-driven. To this end, I used Bernstein's (1990, 1996) ideas and concepts to create a heuristic grid that was applied to the case and used to

[30] Clark (2003: 29) explains Deleuze's view of 'language as having the capacity to be creative and inventive rather than merely descriptive because it is open to a wider world which is equally generative and experimental'. For Deleuze the subject of thought or action is seen as 'in the world'. He explains it as 'something in the world forces us to think… This something is an object not of recognition but of a fundamental encounter…' (p.33). It is an event in which something outside of ourselves takes hold of us, triggers and bring new ideas into existence.

gain deeper insights into the process of knowledge recontextualisation which had taken place.

By working with Bernstein's ideas and model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996), I developed a heuristic which enabled me to look back into the raw data in the data files with a new set of analytical lenses. This was achieved by identifying and analysing "vignettes" (Stake, 1995:128) of critical events in the process of knowledge recontextualisation. Following Wolcott (1994 as cited in Freeman, 1998:163), I was able to link what emerged in the case study to an external authority and contextualise the findings in a broader analytical framework. I thus worked with certain of Bernstein's ideas[31] and concepts to conduct a concept-driven analysis, the intention being to understand the specific in a more generalised and abstract way. This would enable me to offer a more sophisticated interpretation and understanding of the process of knowledge recontextualisation.

The key processes and activities associated with the knowledge recontextualisation that took place in the intervention, and which were illuminated through the analytical activities described above, constituted the third and final cycle of analysis in this study (see Chapters 8 and 9). The insights and understanding gained through this level of analysis enabled the study to perform the "enlightenment function" that "enables a better understanding of policy processes for policy makers", which Ezzy (2002:36) contends rigorous qualitative research should do.

This section has reviewed the analytical activity cycles that occurred in the study. It has revealed how analysis and interpretation were integrated and ongoing, and involved a dynamic interplay between the descriptive and the conceptual or theoretical, with the former being discarded as the latter was picked up. In making visible the processes involved in generating and working with data, I have provided evidence of a systematic and thorough approach which although flexible was carefully thought out. The case record contains substantive evidence in the form of various analytical memos developed and used for the analysis and interpretation of the case

[31] The particular way in which I work with Bernstein's ideas, model and concepts is described and justified in Chapter 7.

study. As part of the audit trail, these were available for auditing by the external auditor. Further, I provide evidence suggesting that the integrated, recursive approach taken to data collection, analysis and interpretation facilitated the more sophisticated and deep understanding that resulted (Ezzy, 2002:60).

The participatory approach adopted for the school-based intervention (Phase One of the case study) is critically analysed in the next section.

5.9 The participatory research approach

This section describes and justifies the participatory research approach used in Phase One of the case study, the school-based intervention. It explains how the particular participatory approach used in this study, while using action research cycles, had interpretive assumptions and intentions. The discussion that follows explains how a significant disjuncture emerged between what was intended and what happened as a result of the particular way in which the participatory research process unfolded.

5.9.1 Description and justification of the participatory approach used

When the research was conceptualized in 2002, as is evident in the initial research questions, my intention was to do research *with* teachers rather than *on* teachers. There are three reasons why a collaborative and participatory research approach was adopted for the school-based intervention.

- Philosophical – based on my beliefs and theories about teacher education and professionalism, and linked to a recognition that professional relationships are important, as is the need to treat people with respect (Ezzy, 2002:75).

- Pedagogical – based on the belief that the research and professional development process should model the participatory, and, by implication, democratic process necessary for transformation to and the sustainability of a vibrant and dynamic democracy.

- Pragmatic – linked to the sudden and spontaneous way in which the research began and facilitated by the flexible and open-ended research design that I took into the field.

I adopted a collaborative and participatory research approach conducive to the fostering of democratic research relationships (Narayan, 1996; McTaggart, 1997; Grundy, 1998; Bhana, 1999; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000). This was seen as congruent with interpretive research's emphasis on intersubjective engagement (Bhana, 1999:229). The participatory strategy I selected was aligned to 'classroom-based' action research, the intention of which is to understand action from the inside (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000:576), as opposed to 'critical' participatory action research (PAR) described by Henry & McTaggart (1996:6) and Kemmis & McTaggart (2000:569). The primary goal of the latter is the development of change agency, that is, empowerment, in particular, political empowerment.

Although empowerment, or the development of change agency, was a key research interest, I anticipated that the nature of the empowerment would be epistemological and professional rather than political. It lay in the facilitatory nature of the outside intervention in equipping the teachers to engage in a process of professional development. This was seen as congruent with the interpretive paradigm which assumes that the more people understand their own situation, the more they will be able to take practical steps to improve it (Janse van Rensburg, 2001a:17; Henry & McTaggart, 1996:6). To this end, the teachers, supported by the outside facilitator, engaged in spirals of self-reflective activity that consisted of: eliciting and building on or challenging teachers' prior knowledge; planning and developing; implementing and trialling; analysing and evaluating; refining, and planning future action (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000: 595; Lotz Sisitka & Raven, 2001:52).

During the intervention, two distinct kinds of research took place simultaneously, both of them consisting of cycles of activity. First, the teachers and I, working as an HSS team, were engaged in a process of analysing and making meaning of the new outcomes-based assessment and curriculum framework in terms of its design, language, epistemology and pedagogy. This involved meeting during the lunch hour (the time set aside for the HSS meetings) on a weekly basis for two years. As

described in Chapter 4, my roles included those of participant observer, professional mediator, guide and facilitator. I provided points of reference to national policy and to the literature and practices of constructivist knowledge and outcomes-based education; I modelled and scaffolded application of the new theories, and encouraged and supported a process of critical reflection and review (see Section 5.7.4). Rich evidence of what these roles amounted to in practice during the two years of co-engagement with the teachers is provided in Chapter 6.

The second phase of activity, flowing out of and taking place parallel to the first, involved the teachers doing practical classroom-based action research (Henry & McTaggart, 1996:6). Knowledge and skills acquired during the HSS meetings were applied to the design of new curriculum units, criterion-referenced assessment activities and rubrics. These were developed at the weekly HSS meetings, during departmental meetings at which I was not present, and in the teachers' leisure time (including school holidays). Ideas for teaching and learning were implemented and tested by the teachers in their Grade 9 classes, then analysed, evaluated, and refined or changed. The events and processes associated both with my engagement with the teachers and the teachers' classroom-based action research , are described in detail in Chapter 6.

Because of what emerged from the intervention (Chapter 6), and with insight sharpened by hindsight, I came to realise more fully the implications of the participatory approached used in the study (Chapter 7). By framing the case study as an interpretive inquiry, I had overlooked or neglected the political dimension of the research, and down-played the moral imperative that actually drove the research agenda as it evolved during the two years. There is evidence to suggest that the participatory and collaborative approach achieved its intended goal of epistemological empowerment, and that this became the catalyst for political empowerment that had not been anticipated or intended when the study began. With hindsight, I realise that although this study began with interpretive assumptions and intentions, it shifted and became critical in its assumptions and intentions (Janse van Rensburg, 2001a:24).

According to Ezzy (2002:77), the political orientation of the researcher and the political objectives of the research serve to determine the degree of involvement of the

participants. There is evidence (in Chapter 4) indicating that my view of teacher education is aligned to the broader socio-political goals of transformation in South Africa. I recognise the importance of a strong civil society in ensuring a vibrant and dynamic democracy, the right of people to participate in democratic processes, and the responsibility that people must assume in exercising that right. This was the moral imperative that, although latent and subconscious when the research started, had intuitively guided my choice of a participatory approach modelled on the political ideal of transformation.

5.9.2 The nature of participation in the study

The idea of teachers and researchers collaborating in action research is not new (Burns, 1995:5). As a research strategy it allows teachers to "simultaneously draw on and distance themselves from their established approaches to classroom action which may be undertaken implicitly or intuitively" (Burns, 1995:5), and it has been used successfully in large-scale projects in Australia (Burns & Hood 1995). It has also been used, with limited success, in a South African context (see, for example, Lotz Sisitka & Raven, 2001:99).

The difficulties and problems associated with collaborative research relationships are well documented in the literature. For example, Goldstein (2002:157-159) points, first, to interpersonal issues, stemming from the fact that collaborative research efforts are rife with the potential for misunderstandings, arising not least from the ongoing difficulty of establishing and maintaining negotiated roles and responsibilities. Secondly, there is the perception of teaching as an individual and isolated activity in terms of which teachers are perceived as "soloists". This creates "natural roadblocks to successful collaboration" (ibid.:157). Because they are used to working alone, teachers are uneasy about being observed by collaborators – for fear of being judged (ibid.). Similarly, Clandinin & Connelly (1995:13) assert that classrooms, as private places, should be safe places in which teachers have autonomy and are free from scrutiny, and where teachers' rights to privacy should be respected. In Chapter 6, I justify my decision not to enter the teachers' classrooms, and explain how it helped to create a non-threatening atmosphere based on trust and respect.

"Authentic" participation as opposed to "involvement" is seen as requiring real ownership of the research theory and practice (McTaggart, 1997:28). Associated issues described in the literature (for example, Narayan, 1996:30; Ezzy, 2002:78) which were pertinent to this study included the following: the research interest, agenda and problem; commitment to the process; the generation and analysis of data; power and control over the research outcomes and products; voice, authorship and ownership; a process-orientated problem-solving approach; emancipationist political goals; the role of the researcher, and ethical responsibility and accountability. These issues, and the strategies used to address them, are discussed below.

- **The research problem, interest and agenda**

This study focused on a concern shared by the researcher and the teachers. For the teachers, the problem was primarily practical and procedural, linked to the issue of how to make sense of and implement outcomes-based assessment policy in Grade 9. For me, the problem was more theoretical, namely understanding how teachers made sense of the policy, the actions they took, and the type of support they needed for the acquisition of the deep understanding seen as pre-requisite for meaningful change. Underlying both concerns was the problem of the disjuncture between theory and practice in South African education in this period of transformation.

A shared concern or "mutuality of interest" (Hart, 2002:155) helped to ensure that the participants were all equally committed to the research process, as was evident in the time and effort they invested in the process during the two years of co-engagement. Importantly, this facilitated "authentic participation" (McTaggart, 1997:28) and helped to create a sense of co-ownership of the research process. This was evident in the way in which knowledge was generated and used in the study (as described in Chapter 6).

When the study began in 2002, I communicated the research interest and goals to the principals and teachers [CR 1 and 2], and I repeated them in the various documents that were written during the intervention [CR 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8]. Likewise, I explained my role and responsibility as a facilitator of change, my beliefs about teacher education and professional development and educational transformation. Throughout

the research, I was transparent and honest about my intentions and actions, and these were communicated to the teachers informally through conversations at the weekly meetings, and formally through the writing of letters [CR 2 and 10].

Less visible, more dangerous and quite commonly disguised by seeming egalitarian relationships based on mutual trust and respect, is the problem of exploitation (Goldstein, 2002:158). My efforts to avoid being exploitative included being explicit about my research agenda, and having ongoing conversations about what we were doing, why we were doing it, and who was likely to benefit or be put at risk through our collaborative actions.

The following extract from my research journal provides two examples of how egalitarian power relationships were created through a process of negotiation and shared decision-making between the teachers and myself. There is evidence which suggests that a balance of power was achieved through the sharing of responsibilities and decision-making processes. A democratic participatory process based on negotiation and power sharing was evident from the start of the study. This is illustrated in the following extract from my research journal, which describes how Sandy, the teacher chosen by the teachers to be the HSS 'team manager', used her initiative and made decisions. The entry was made soon after a focus group discussion on: 'What is history? What is geography?' chaired by one of my colleagues. The purpose of the discussion was to find out what the teachers thought they were teaching and why [DF 22]. Prior to the discussion, I had explained the reasons for it and obtained the teachers' permission to video-record it.

> 28 February 2002
> At Sandy's request we met today. She alerted me to the danger of "overdoing a session like yesterday. Time is precious and teachers need to feel that they have come away from a meeting with something tangible and useful for their practice. Some staff felt that while yesterday's meeting was interesting, it was repetitive." I suggested, and she agreed, that I should type up a memo summarising our discussion today which she would distribute to the team (refer to letter dated 1 March). The letter communicated my ideas about the way forward, and it explained and justified why we were doing what we were. I also expressed my frustration at the inadequate length of our weekly meeting and how this necessitated my communicating via a letter.

Thursday 7 March 2002
I missed yesterday's meeting. I met with Sandy today. She reported that the meeting had gone according to plan. Further, the suggestion made in my letter of 1 March, that we obtain permission from the principals to have a day off school next term to plan a thematic approach, had been accepted. Permission from the principals had been obtained…

Sandy thought my letter of 1 March useful [DF 22]. In fact, she had used it with the Principal to motivate for a day off school.

The following journal entry was written in September 2002, after the CTA document was received from the IEB. A meeting to discuss the logistics of the CTA implementation had been held for Heads of Departments at the two schools on the Friday morning. Although not HoDs, the history and geography teachers obtained permission to attend the meeting, the consequence of which was that the geography teachers, and three history teachers, met for further discussion on the Sunday morning.

23 September 2002
From all accounts, the meeting on Sunday was a success. The geography teachers continued working on their planning of an integrated theme (Soweto), and how it could be linked to the CTA, until 14h30. Sandy made a pertinent comment: "Who would have thought at the beginning of the year that the geography teachers would be willing to set aside a SUNDAY for a meeting!"…

I have synthesised the DoE and IEB guidelines together with Circular 41/2002, and drawn a table showing the requirements both in terms of different assessment types and how many pieces of work should have been done and marked for the CASS component in Grade 9. The table [CR 7, p. 43] provides the teachers with a tool to audit and evaluate what they have done this year and it will enable them to plan more systematically for 2003. I hope that each Grade 9 teacher will use it and that a summary will be made for each subject.

Cathy phoned to tell me the arrangements for tomorrow's meeting. They want to use the time to explain the CTA arrangements made (during the meeting some of them held on Sunday morning) to the rest of the team. We agreed that I would distribute the table I had developed for the assessment audit, and if there was time, we would work on the units of work developed for the integrated 'Soweto' theme.

23 September 2002 (continued)
Cathy told me what they had planned for their presentation at the geography conference they are attending later this week. She will start by talking about the research process and will use my 2002 IGU –Durban conference paper [CR 5] to guide her. Ann will talk about how the process has not been such a challenge for her and Cathy because they are new and thus not used to traditional approaches to the extent that their older colleagues are. Richard will talk about how he has been the one who has had to change and what this has meant to him.

The above extract also illustrates how the teachers drew on the data generated in the research that I had written up and presented at an international conference. In the following section I discuss the use made of the products of the two-year collaboration, noting decisions taken about what should be used and how.

- **Data generation and the utilization of the research**

As a result of the two action research cycles that took place during the period of co-operation around the shared concern of assessment policy implementation (as described in Section 5.6.1), data were generated as follows:

- collaboratively with the teachers, for example through document analysis (the CTA, assessment and curriculum guidelines, research reports etc.);
- independently by the researcher (interviews, observations, documents generated for workshops, policy document analysis etc.), and
- independently by the teachers working as individuals, intra-departmentally and inter-departmentally (criterion-referenced assessment activities and rubrics, outcomes-based units of work and curricula).

Narayan's claim that "participatory research is a process of collaborative problem-solving through the generation and use of knowledge" (1996:20) is supported by the evidence gathered in Chapter 6, in particular Section 6.7. This shows how the products and outcomes of the research intervention were used to mutual benefit by both the researcher and the teachers. This was carried out within an ethic of respect for persons, respect for knowledge and respect for democratic values (Bassey, 1999:77). Strategies used included:

- member checking, for example, the transcripts of focus group discussions and interviews

- negotiation and shared decision-making, and

- taking an open and honest approach that included being 'upfront' with the teachers about the use of data, observing common courtesies such as obtaining the teachers' permission to use in my university teaching (and with acknowledgement) the assessment and curriculum documents they had generated, and involving the teachers in the interpretation and analysis of data.

There were risks attaching to the use of the data. A significant ethical dilemma that I faced as both researcher and co-participant in a collaborative research project emerged at a GET assessment workshop organized by the National Department of Education in November 2002 [DF 55]. The purpose of the five-day workshop was to design the 2003 Common Tasks for Assessment (CTAs). I was invited under the auspices of the Environmental Education Unit in the Education Department at the university where I work to give feedback on our, that is, the HSS team's, experience of the 2002 CTA implementation process.

In my naivety and enthusiasm, I did not realize how the event marked the point at which I, and by implication the teachers as members of the HSS team, crossed a boundary and stepped into the political arena of educational transformation. Although I did not disclose the schools or teachers in the feedback I gave, I nevertheless put their anonymity at risk. This was exacerbated by the fact that I had given critical feedback to the assessment developers from the national and provincial Departments of Education which, judging from the response, was neither anticipated nor appreciated. It challenged the softer approach taken by the spokesperson for the newly established national quality assurance body (uMalusi), which had monitored the spasmodic and uneven GETC implementation process that had taken place in the public school sector.

The inclusion of the following – somewhat lengthy although edited – extract from my research journal is necessary in order to provide a rich and authentic description, as

opposed to a paraphrased and potentially diluted version, of what happened at the workshop. The journal entries reveal the following:

- the initiative to write a report giving feedback to the IEB on the HSS Team's experience of the 2002 CTA came from a teacher

- the subsequent process of writing the report was a collaborative process with the teachers and myself working together often in different but complementary ways

- member checking took place at the penultimate stage of the report writing process. The approach of the researcher was at all times honest and open and based on democratic principles of negotiation, and

- the approach to decision-making was a shared one, although the final decision about the writing of the report, made after the DoE workshop, was taken by the teachers.

Most notable are the shifts that took place in the HSS working group's attitude and response to me, and the teachers' response to the dilemma. There is evidence to suggest that tolerance, honesty and transparency, together with negotiation and a willingness on the part of the 'other' to listen, were powerful enabling mechanisms for diffusing a hostile and confrontational situation and facilitating the resolution, acceptance and increased participation that resulted.

16 October 2002
Cathy initiated a discussion on the CTA…
Sandy stated that the team needed to write a report on the CTA for the IEB…
I supported Sandy's suggestion that the teachers keep a record of their comments as they work through the CTA…
Sandy tells me that giving feedback to the IEB is not something that is usually done, however Cathy's comment, based on her experience at the Geography Conference, that the IEB want feedback, prompted Sandy's suggestion.

13 November 2002
We spent today discussing the CTA. I taped the discussion and transcribed it this evening. It will form the foundation for our report on the CTA for the IEB.

15 November 2002
I have been invited via the National Environmental Education Project (NEEP) to the DoE's Assessment workshop in Pretoria next week. The purpose of which is to set the 2003 CTAs. The National Environmental Education Project (NEEP) has been asked to provide support because the theme selected of the 2003 CTAs is 'environment'. I have been asked to give feedback on our CTA experiences this year.

18 November 2002
The participants – roughly 110 in total – consist of the Working Group of each of the learning areas of C2005. They are made up of curriculum and assessment specialists from the national and provincial departments of education, teacher union representatives seconded to the DoE for 2 years, a representative from uMalusi, the quality assurance body that is tasked with moderating and certificating the GETC, SAQA folk and representatives from the IEB.

I reported on our experiences and made critical comments on the CTA in terms of the type of questions that were asked and the extent to which they were valid, and the use of rubrics (see field notes in DF 56). I also explained the difference between 'rich' and 'thin' knowledge…

The feedback from uMalusi who were responsible for overseeing the implementation process was less critical. It focused on the logistical problems encountered, acknowledged that there were language errors, and commended the HSS Working Group for their well developed rubrics. She commented on the standard and complexity of the tasks being too high for Grade 9 learners.

One of my university colleagues present at my session pointed out that I 'put a cat amongst the pigeons', and how I need to be careful of being a player in the field having an impact on what's happening, and a researcher trying to understand what's happening. I need to play the tension carefully…

I was nailed by an emotional outpouring after my presentation. I opened a window on cognitive knowledge and the CTA developers reacted by a 'sticking together against her' mentality – throwing up and throwing out as a process of disassociating from that which was being perceived as a threat. When I joined the HSS working group for the break away session the next morning, the session was hostile with much anger being vented at me. They felt that what I had said at the plenary was inappropriate and that it should have been kept for the HSS group alone. They were seen as the model group hence the request by the Head of the GET for all working groups to use the layout and structure of the HSS CTA as a model. My feedback had 'ridiculed' and broken them down', and the tone of my voice was offensive. I explained that it was not my intention to be negative. However, the issues I had raised about knowledge, the disjuncture between policy and the CTA were important ones and generic to all learning areas. I responded by engaging and clarifying rather than apologizing or retracting.

18 November 2002 (continued)
Without realizing it at the time, I stirred the pot yesterday. It resulted in an emotional outburst which brought the scum to the top. Today we spent time skimming the scum from the pot. It resulted in a very productive session in which their hostility lessened as I talked my way through the dilemma. They gave me the opportunity to explain our CASS developmental work, and when asked, they agreed to give me an hour to talk them through the shift from traditional to criterion-referenced assessment. We made photocopies of the 'Tsar Nicholas' exemplar that I had with me. We identified the concepts and skills and had a fruitful discussion on the development of the descriptive rubric that I had designed for the activity. I also gave them a copy of our Learner Profile document. By this stage the atmosphere had changed radically.

They stopped seeing me as a threat and shared their plans for the 2003 CTA with me. They asked for suggestions on how the CTA could be improved, and said that if we did not like the rubrics then we need to develop new ones and pass them on to the HSS working group… I undertook to include as many criterion-referenced assessment tasks in my report on the teachers at the two schools and my curriculum and assessment developmental work in 2002. I undertook to ensure that each member received a copy of the report. The session ended with one of the members of the HSS working group enquiring about the possibility of registering for a PhD at Rhodes. I was asked to comment on the draft FET curriculum document. Two members of the group expressed an interest in collaborating with me in the future, and one asked if I would be interested in training the trainers in his area.

When I shared the happenings with another colleague, she commented on the difference and tension between the politics of curriculum and the pedagogy of curriculum, and the politics of symbolic artifacts. The fact that the CTA is in the schools is a sign of transformation – whether or not it works is not the concern [DF 56].

20 November 2002
The HSS team met early today because exams had started. I started by giving feedback on my presentation at the DoE workshop and mapped out the structures and hierarchy on the board [DF 55]. I suggested that I write the report and that the schools not identify themselves. Dale disagreed. He argued that the schools should identify themselves as they would come from a position of strength rather than weakness. It would help to dispel the myth that ex-model C and independent schools were resisting change. The teachers formed a sub-group of volunteers to get started on the CTA evaluation. Interestingly, not a single man volunteered (extra time a problem?).

22 November 2002
The subgroup had already met once before today's meeting at Sandy's home. We worked through the CTA with Tracy (one of my PGCE student teachers) typing up notes as we went. I was struck by the teachers' low level of analysis. They focused on surface features without going deeper… I told them I needed to work with their comments – weaving them into a coherent whole. They were happy. I took the rough notes and agreed to circulate my draft as soon as it was ready. I spent the weekend synthesizing and weaving the various comments and e-mailed the draft to them. Cathy was the only one who offered critical comments. The teachers met again – I was unable to attend the meeting.

I spent the rest of the week writing the report, finally completing it on 2 December. I dropped it off with Dale whom I had asked to edit.

Monday 9 December 2002
I collected the draft from Dale. He spent an hour explaining the changes he had made. Wow, he has done some editing!

13 December 2002
The report is back from the printers, bound and ready for posting.

The extract illustrates how, despite my advice to the contrary, the decision to get involved and to disclose the identity of the two schools in the official education arena was taken by the teachers.

The report was prepared by a smaller group of volunteers who worked on their own and in collaboration with me, while the actual writing of the report was done by myself. The dynamic interplay that took place among us in the conceptualising and writing of the report provides evidence of authentic participation and equal power sharing in the study – to the extent that a teacher did the final editing and checking before the report was printed.

Importantly, the report incident illustrates the "classic distinction between personal troubles and public issues" associated with participatory action research (Ezzy, 2002:48), and marks the point at which the study outgrew its original focus on solving a personal and practical problem of policy implementation, and became a voice making itself heard within the wider educational arena. Ezzy (2002:48) explains that it is "commitment to educating participants, particularly in the sociopolitical analysis of problems being studied, that involves shifting the interpretation of problems from an individual to a societal context and an ecological relationship." The research interest and goals at the inception of the collaborative study indicate that it was not my intention to seek out or become involved in the politics of curriculum.

This section has discussed how issues associated with participatory research described in the literature played out in this study. Examples have been given to illustrate what this looked like in practice, and to illuminate the process of negotiation and shared

decision-making and the high level of interaction among the research participants. Evidence has been provided to support Ezzy's (2002:48) assertion that research relationships involve "power differentials." The strategies used to counteract the danger of corrupting authentic participatory research have been made visible.

Following Ezzy (2002:48), I have shown how in this study the teachers were not "acted on" but were treated as "genuine subjects", with their own thoughts and ideas. They participated fully in the research process, often with a considerable degree of control over the goal and method of the research. I have explained how the research was carried out within an ethic of respect for persons, respect for knowledge, respect for democratic values and respect for the quality of educational research (Bassey, 1999:74). I have shown how, through a process of negotiation and shared decision making, I managed to deal with an ethical dilemma that emerged, relating to informed consent and the right to self-determination, and the issues of disclosure, privacy and confidentiality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000: Chapter 2).

The issue described above illustrates Christians' (2000:145) argument that – in research that is meant to be collaborative in its design and participatory in its execution – rather than having ethics codes in files in academic offices, the research participants themselves should be given the scope to activate the ethics of the polis by mutual accommodation. I have shown how authentic participation enabled the relevant research ethics to be infused into the study and become part of the lived experience of the participants. In the next section, which focuses on issues associated with case study method, research ethics are given more attention.

5.10 Issues associated with case study method

This section pulls together many of the strands in this chapter in an effort to synthesise the study's methodological elements and processes.

5.10.1 Quality and rigour

In this chapter and throughout the research report, there is evidence that the study was conducted in a rigorous, systematic and ethical manner, and that the results can be trusted (Merriam et al*.,* 2002: 31). Drawing on an amalgam of ideas in the literature (Lincoln & Guba 1985 (Chapter 11); Maxwell,1992; Christians, 2000:138-145; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:68; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2002:13-17), the following strategies were used to enhance trustworthiness:

- **Triangulation**

This was done in two ways: first – as explained in Section 5.7 – by using multiple sources of data, namely interviews and focus group discussions, a research journal, observations and document analysis. This enabled me to compare what teachers said with what they did. Secondly, the participatory approach meant that there were multiple researchers, all of whom generated and utilised the data.

- **Member checking**

In this chapter, I have explained how this was done both informally through conversation and formally throughout the research process. It involved providing the teachers with copies of interview and focus group transcripts, asking them to read draft chapters, for example Chapter 4, and to comment on whether my description of them and their schools rang true. Their suggestions [DF 101] were incorporated into the final draft. The research reports written by me in collaboration with the teachers were edited by one of the teachers [DF 57, 96]. I also invited them to review the draft thesis before submission [DF 101].

There is evidence in Chapter 4 suggesting that I shared the same culture as the teachers participating in this study. This carries the risk of the teachers, as like-minded co-participants, being favourably biased towards my interpretation of the case (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:315). In order to counteract this potential danger, I used additional strategies to enhance the trustworthiness of the study, namely peer review, peer examination, and a case audit.

- **Peer review**

The role played by critical friends in both phases of the study has already been mentioned in this chapter. This included review by professionals both local and international and familiar and unfamiliar with the case, including:

- members of the Geographical Association (teachers, university lecturers and teacher educators and a publisher) who visited the schools in July 2002 and gave feedback on the HSS team's enquiry developmental work [DF 73]
- colleagues in other IEB schools who attended the teachers' presentations of their curriculum and assessment work at IEB user Group Regional meetings [DF 78]
- teachers at the two schools [DF 23]
- an outside evaluator [DF 90; CR 12]
- the IEB [DF 66], and national and provincial education departments [CF 6 and 7]
- colleagues in the international education community [CR 4 and 9]
- the wider national education community [CR 5 and 8]
- colleagues familiar with the research, at the university where I work (see Chapter 7).

The above examples illustrate the efforts I made to ensure "peer de-briefing" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 247) to enhance the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the study. It shows how a range of peers representing a variety of educational communities was used. In sharing the unfolding research process with a wider audience, my intention was to create opportunities for critical feedback with a view to establishing whether the research processes and emergent findings were plausible.

Although disappointed by the lack of feedback received from the national and provincial Departments of Education [CF 6:iv; CR 13], with hindsight I realise that this may have been due to the length and density of the reports that were written. Although the reports were distilled and published in the *South African Journal of*

Education [CR 5 and 8], to date I have not received a response. In Chapter 9, I describe the IEB's response to the second research report.

In addition to the peer review technique, I used peer examination for "shoring up credibility, providing methodological guidance and serving as a cathartic outlet" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:243). Peer examination, in this case by my supervisors and by colleagues who were familiar with my research, is a "mechanism of critique" intended to "keep the inquirer honest" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:243). As experienced protagonists, they played the role of devil's advocate – probing my biases and meanings and asking questions of clarification about my interpretations (ibid.:308). I was obliged to re-articulate and defend my ideas and emerging propositions. In Chapter 7, I explain how this feedback strengthened and enriched the research methodologically and theoretically.

Given the difficulties I experienced when trying to distance myself from a case in which I had been totally immersed (as described in Section 5.4 and 5.6), the role of critical friends played by colleagues and supervisors was invaluable. They helped me navigate my way through the long periods of uncertainty and ambiguity that I experienced when I took up my position as the 'lone' researcher in Phase Two of this study. Interactions, both formal and informal, with colleagues (as described in Chapter 7) were enormously useful for technical and personal support. As 'examiners', they assessed the propositions I generated through the various cycles of analytical activity and checked the plausibility of my interpretation. As mentors and advisors, they guided and supported me in my attempt to see my research with new eyes. This helped me to escape the trap of self-referentiality in which I found myself. Most importantly, they helped me to understand what it means to approach processes of analysis and interpretation with a sense of humility (Merriam et al., 2002:26).

- **Researcher's position**

Evidence has been provided to show that my assumptions, experiences, relationship to the participants and theoretical orientation were explicated and made visible. Similarly, there is evidence of researcher reflexivity, in both the research journal and

this research report, and of the honesty and humility seen as integral to qualitative research (Merriam et al., 2002:422).

- **Prolonged and varied field experience**

The two years spent in the schools enabled me to repeat data collection over time. Although the teachers had agreed to working alongside me for two years, because of the strong relationships that were established, this could easily have been extended. When, and how, to bring a case to closure is an issue that qualitative researchers need to resolve (Merriam, 2001). In terms of what we did and achieved in the two years of co-engagement, as documented in the two research reports, I was satisfied that the data was saturated and that extending my time in the schools was unnecessary for my purposes. Any temptation to prolong the case would have been attributable to the intensely positive "role status" I had achieved in the group through the participatory process of co-engagement (Adler & Adler, 1987:81).

- **Audit trail**

The question of whether or not the findings of the study are dependable and consistent is linked to the notion of triangulation, member checking and peer review (Merriam, 2002:30).

In addition to these strategies, an effort has been made to 'lay out' and make visible the technical and cognitive processes involved in data generation, analysis and interpretation (Section 5.8). An "audit trail" (Bassey, 1999:77; Merriam et al., 2002:31), which includes cross-referencing to the source where substantive evidence can be found in the data files and case record, is intended as a mechanism for authenticating the findings of a study.

Wherever appropriate in this thesis, I have cross-referenced to the source of the raw data stored in the data files that I created for the study. My research journal played a pivotal role in helping me to manage the 100-plus data files generated through the two-year intervention. I believe my approach has been systematic and meticulously

thorough. For this reason, I decided to go a step further and test my assumptions by having the case audited (Lincoln & Guba,1985:379; Bassey,1999:90).

- **Case audit**

Guided by Lincoln & Guba's (1985:379) recommendations, I selected an auditor who possessed the following characteristics:

- a high level of methodological sophistication (as suggested by the person's track record of research supervision and examining)
- personal disinterest (the person had no prior connection to or involvement in this study)
- recognised integrity (a respected member of senior management in the university), and
- minimal substantive knowledge about the subject matter of the study.

The auditor was selected in August 2005 when the writing up of the thesis was nearing completion. It meant that I did not receive formative assistance from the auditor and reduced the potential danger of cooptation. The auditing process involved reading the case report and sampling part of the case record and data files, the purpose of which was to confirm:

1. the existence of all research documents referred to in the thesis;
2. the accuracy of all such references;
3. the ethical appropriateness of the way in which these references have been used by the researcher.

A signed audit certificate is included in the front of this thesis.

5.10.2 My role in the case

A significant methodological challenge that I faced in this study was being the researcher of a process in which I had been a co-participant. Elias's idea of involvement and detachment (1987:xxx-xxxii) and Adler & Adler's notion of membership affiliation (1987:50-67) helped me to understand why I found it so

difficult to shift from interpreting the case from a position within the case to interpreting it from a position outside it.

Involvement-detachment is premised on the notion of a dynamic interplay between the two concepts, and is linked to forms of knowledge or action (Elias, 1987:lii). It espouses a relational stance rather than the dualistic or binary "insider-outsider" stance which is associated with traditional subject-object distinctions (Kelly, 1999c:403). In this chapter (Section 5.4 and 5.8) and in Chapter 7, I discuss the dynamic interplay between being intimately involved in and then detached from the case.

According to Adler & Adler's typology (1987:50), my role may be categorised as one of "active membership". They describe this as one in which the researcher, involved in the core activities of the group, takes a functional role and central position. I believe it was because I played this role that the shift I needed to make in order to understand the case from a position outside the case, was more difficult than I anticipated. While detaching myself physically and spatially was easily accomplished, distanciating myself emotionally and conceptually did not happen spontaneously or easily. In Chapter 7, I describe the frustrations, both psychological and theoretical, that I experienced, and the action I took to deal with these.

5.10.3 Particularity and generalisability

Epistemologically, the emphasis in case study research is on what can be learned from a single case for its own sake (Stake, 1995:1, 2000:435; Flyvbjerg, 2001:73). A review of the literature, as outlined below, suggests some contention on the extent to which the findings of a case study can be generalised to other contexts (Stake, 1995, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 2000b; Donmoyer, 2000; Schofield, 2000; Gomm, Hammersley & Foster, 2000).

The notion of generalisability is examined in relation to the typology of cases described in the literature, namely "intrinsic", "instrumental" (Stake, 2000a:437), the atypical case of "what may be" (Schofield, 2000:84-86) and the "critical" case (Flyvbjerg, 2001:78). In Chapter 4, the case is described and justified both in its own

right and within the broader national educational context. The assumptions I made, and my relationship to the case, are also discussed, as are my motives for undertaking the case study. The latter, expressed as personal and professional interests and curiosity, provides evidence which suggests that this case fell within two categories, namely “intrinsic” and “instrumental” (Stake, 2000a:437).

As an “intrinsic” case, the focus was on understanding how a particular group of teachers responded to policy. The intention was to describe and interpret the happenings of the case within its own world by providing a “thick description” of it (Geertz, 1973:3). Following Bassey (1999:5), it is acknowledged that as a study of a singularity, this study did not seek to establish generalisations about the wider population to which the case belonged. However, in this study some claims are made on behalf of “fuzzy propositions”, that is, “a kind of statement which makes no absolute claims to knowledge but hedges its claims with uncertainties” (ibid.:12), as a possible way forward.

Claims are also made on behalf of “naturalistic generalisations” (Stake, 2000a:449) beyond the immediate study, on the basis that any school or educational organisation would be able to identify with the research story. Such research is strengthened by “vicarious experiences” so well constructed through “thick description” that a person feels a sense of being there, as if it happened to themselves (ibid.:439). A similar viewpoint is held by Merriam et al. (2002:28), who argue for rich or thick description as a major strategy to ensure external validity.

As a participant in an “instrumental” case, I was interested in gaining insights into an educational issue, in this instance, assessment policy implementation at one level of the South African school system. The case study focused on a topical, important and frustrating issue in South African education. Developing an understanding of how teachers respond to the imposition of OBE assessment policy, of the difficulties they encounter and of how policy impacts on practice, are seen to be highly important. Although international research has provided valuable information in this regard, there is little empirical evidence specific to the South African context of educational transformation. Without this, policy makers have no way of gauging the impact of policy on practice. Although a case study located within a specific context, the study

addressed issues (associated with the shift to classroom-based teacher assessment advocated by OBE assessment policy) that are facing teachers nationally. Furthermore, it places firmly in a South African context some of the issues identified in the international literature on assessment. In this respect the case will inform policy development in South Africa.

Flyvbjerg (2001:78) defines a "critical case" as one that has strategic importance in relation to some general problem. According to the emergent research findings on policy implementation described in Chapters 2 and 3, there is a notable dearth of success stories. In Chapter 4, I argued that this case study, located in two resource-rich, efficient and high-functioning schools, had an environment conducive to assessment policy implementation in the form and spirit intended by the policy. My decision to conduct a single case study in atypical South African schools was influenced by Smith (1995:48), who justifies his single case study research by drawing on Runkel's (1990:175) method of possibilities, namely that "a single case can be a trial, a demonstration that a thing thought to be unlikely can indeed be brought about". Following Smith (1995), this study on policy implementation is an example of what is possible or, in the words of Runkel (1990:178), of "what persons, groups or organisations can do." Smith (1995:49) uses the economist Kenneth Boulding's law – "that which exists, is possible" (in Crain, Mahard & Narot, 1982:245) – to substantiate his choice of a single case study method.

A similar position is taken by Schofield (2000:84-86), who argues for research not only on "what is" and "what may be" but also on visions of "what could be". According to Schofield, "By studying what could be, I mean locating situations that we know or expect to be ideal or exceptional on some *a priori* basis and then studying them to see what is actually going on there" (ibid.:84). This necessitates case selection that is not based on the criterion of the typical, because studies of the typical may be rich sources of insight into problems, but poor illuminators of what *can* be accomplished (ibid.:85). I believe this is significant given the difficulties currently being experienced in implementing new policies in South African schools. In the light of the above discussion, I contend that this study may be viewed as a "critical" case which, according to Flyvbjerg (2001:78), increases its generalisability.

That this is both an intrinsic and an instrumental case study had implications for the research design and influenced decisions taken with regard to how the data were to be analysed and interpreted. Importantly, when I was making methodological decisions, the guiding question in my mind was not: To what the extent can the findings be generalised?, but: What can be learned from this case? And to what extent can these insights deepen and enrich our understanding of the complex and ongoing processes of educational transformation in South Africa?

5.11 Synthesis and conclusion

This chapter has described in detail the methodology selected for this research. It has explained and justified the case study method, the various ways in which data were generated, how the teachers and I, as co-researchers, worked with the data in Phase One of the study, and how, as the solitary researcher in Phase Two, I dealt with the analysis and interpretation of the data. The participatory research approach adopted for this study was described, as were its unexpected consequences.

I concur with Merriam et al. (2002:423) that qualitative research is "as much a social and psychological process as it is systematic inquiry". I have been honest and sincere about the struggles and difficulties I experienced and about the messiness of the research process. Passion, a genuine interest in the case, a relationship based on trust and respect between the teachers and myself, and ongoing support and encouragement from critical friends, provided the synergy that motivated and carried me through the uncertainties of the research process, and enabled me to resolve the methodological issues that arose.

In the next chapter[32], I provide an interpretive review of the two-year school-based intervention.

[32] Before reading Chapter 6: The Interpretive Review of the School-Based Intervention, I recommend that the two research reports contained in the Case Record [CR 6 & CR 7] which accompanies this thesis, be read. These represent the first layer of analysis in which I worked with thick description.

CHAPTER 6

CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE SCHOOL-BASED RESEARCH INTERVENTION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter offers a critical review of the school-based research intervention that took place from January 2002 to December 2003. The story of the intervention, a case study on policy implementation, has been told at different times, for different purposes and audiences.[33] These accounts contain evidence which shows how ten, and later nine, Geography and History teachers and I, a university lecturer and teacher educator, working in a collaborative partnership, responded to policy in ways that were pro-active and productive. This chapter does not repeat the story as it has already been told. Instead, it distils and synthesizes the various narratives to provide a critical review of the intervention as a means to illuminate:

- the nature and role of the intervention in introducing and implementing policy in the context of South African educational transformation;
- the results, developments and impact of the intervention;
- the epistemological and pedagogical dimensions of policy implementation, and
- the nature of professional development needed for meaningful policy implementation.

[33] The first, a paper for an international conference in August 2002, was written as the Inception phase unfolded [CR 4]. It was followed by a report [CR 6] compiled at the end of 2002 which documented the Inception phase for the team. It was submitted to curriculum specialists at the national and provincial Departments of Education and the IEB. A report on the Development phase was compiled and submitted to the DoE in 2004 [CR7 & 8]. A descriptive account of the Inception and Development phases was published in the South African Journal of Education (SAJE) in 2003 and 2005 respectively [CR 5 & 8]. An article on curriculum innovation, based on a paper given at an international conference in England was published in 2004 [CR 9].

The chapter begins with my reiterating the research goals and approach as a backdrop to a chronological and sequential review of the various processes that unfolded and events that took place during the two-year intervention. Interwoven with the narrative is commentary on emerging trends and patterns. These are categorised and classified as emergent themes. In compiling the review from a position of hindsight, I realized that while many of the findings are self-explanatory and made perfect sense given the intervention and its process, others made me curious and dissatisfied, even frustrated, because I was unable fully to make sense of them. I felt that I needed to know more about certain aspects that had been touched upon. The problem, as will be seen later in this chapter, and in Chapter 7 which follows, was that initially I had no way of finding the answers that I needed. I found myself in an impasse, both methodologically and theoretically.

6.2 The goals of the intervention and research approach

When the research was conceptualised in 2002, as is evident in the research proposal and in research reports and articles [CR 5, 6, 7, 8, 9] published during and immediately after the intervention, the primary purpose was to understand History and Geography teachers' responses to OBE assessment policy at one level of the South African education system. The overall goals of the study were broad:

- to describe, analyse and document the process of change, that is, how teachers in a given context respond to the imposition of a new national assessment policy;

- to identify the extent to which teachers are able to develop an understanding of the possibilities and opportunities offered by policy through developing the deep understanding required;

- to describe and analyse the role of a school-based intervention in facilitating and supporting change located within a critically reflexive practice; and

- to analyse the findings and set them in the wider context of educational transformation.

In Chapter 5, I described how these goals were communicated to the headmasters and teachers [CR 1 & 2] and I discussed the role I played as a university-based outsider and facilitator of change.

6.2.1 My roles and responsibilities

Drawing on the ideas of Carr (1995), Fullan (1993, 1999, 2002), Hargreaves (1994, 2002), Prawat (1991, 1992), and Van Harmelen (2001), I saw my responsibility as one of:

- creating a supportive and non-threatening environment in which the teachers could examine their educational beliefs and practices;

- supporting teachers in their acquisition of theoretical understanding, capacities and confidence to deal with change in ways that were proactive and productive;[34]

- providing points of reference to national policy and constructivist pedagogy and assessment, and outcomes-based education, and

- developing and structuring a programme that supported the professional development of teachers as critically reflective and reflexive practitioners.

Given that my intention was to do research *with* teachers rather than *on* teachers, I chose a collaborative and participatory research approach in which democratic relationships were fostered. This approach was analysed and justified in Chapter 5.

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[34] According to Fullan (1993:5) productive educational change is being "… not the capacity to implement latest policy, but rather an ability to survive the vicissitudes of planned and unplanned change while growing and developing."

In this chapter, I show what the various dimensions listed above looked like in practice, and how, at all stages of the intervention, through a process of negotiation based on critical reflection and review, an egalitarian research relationship was fostered between the teachers and myself. There is evidence, below, of an ongoing dialogue between us on our roles and responsibilities.

In the review of the intervention in the next section, I describe how I designed learning opportunities that worked at the theory/practice interface. Through conversations, discussions, spider diagrams, diagrammatic summaries and letters, workshops and reference to appropriate literature, I drew the teachers' attention to contemporary trends and shifts in assessment and curriculum literature, the ensuing debates on OBE and constructivist knowledge in South Africa, learner-centred pedagogy and strategies including co-operative learning and enquiry-based learning, and constructivist learning theories. This is evident in my research journal and in the list of readings used with the teachers that is included in the case record [CR 20].

Where appropriate in the review, I refer to the theoretical perspectives that I shared with the teachers. This has been done with the intention of helping the reader to understand how the theoretical explorations in which I was engaged, albeit at a superficial level of understanding, nevertheless stimulated my thinking and helped steer me in the direction that culminated in the theoretical and methodological impasse mentioned above. In Chapter 7 I explain how I was helped to grasp the significance of the reading I had done in relation to the unresolved issues identified in this chapter.

6.2.2 Communicating with the teachers: the role of letters and diagrams

At the start of the intervention, and at various stages when I felt it was necessary or appropriate during the two years, I communicated with the teachers through the writing of letters. These were an invaluable means of communication which enabled me to stay in touch with the teachers in between our weekly meetings; share my emerging and crystallising research ideas, address issues and clarify confusions which arose from time to time in a non-threatening, non-personal manner; create a space in which I could introduce new – sometimes radical – ideas that I thought might provoke

and challenge the teachers to critically analyse their own ideas and practices, and make suggestions and recommendations for action. The letters were mostly informal, light and conversational in tone, but nevertheless provocative and challenging.

Two examples of the letters I wrote to the teachers have been included in the Case Record [CR 2, 10] to illustrate the discussion in this and other chapters. The letters provide evidence that my approach was direct and forthright, my style of leadership instructional, provoking and facilitatory, and my intentions transparent, sincere and inviting critical response and debate.

In addition to letters, I used graphic representations to communicate my ideas to the teachers. Diagrammatic summaries and spider diagrams were employed most frequently. They proved a useful conceptual learning tool that enabled me to illustrate relationships between the various elements of curriculum and assessment policy, and to contextualise policy within the ‘bigger picture’ of global and national educational change. They were invaluable for developing the teachers’ understanding of links and relationships between, for example, the various design features of C2005, and the GET assessment model [CR 3].

In the next section, I review the workshop which triggered the school-based intervention before interpretively analysing the cycles of activity that unfolded during the two years that I worked alongside the teachers in the two schools. In discussing features of the intervention, I showcase my role as participant observer, professional mediator, guide and facilitator. I show how I provided points of reference to national policy, to the literature and practices of constructivist epistemology and pedagogy, and to outcomes-based education. I also show how I modelled and scaffolded practical applications of the new theories, and encouraged and supported a process of critical reflection and review.

6.3 Critical Review of the Intervention

In distilling what happened during the two years that I worked alongside the teachers on a weekly basis, I faced the difficulty of providing a succinct yet comprehensible account of a complex and intense experience. To assist in this, I constructed a model in the form of a flowchart. The flowchart (Figure 6.1) provides a bird's eye view of the key events and processes of the intervention within a time-space framework. Although it shows a simplified picture of a complex reality, I believe it is a useful tool for communicating the unfolding of the intervention in terms of what, when, who, how and why. The diagram was created by distilling information from a number of data sources, including my research journal [RJ], the interviews and focus group discussions, and documents contained in the data files [DF] and case record [CR]. Throughout this chapter, I cross-reference to the data sources in order to show where substantive evidence can be found.

Figure 6.1 illustrates how the intervention consisted of two phases, an Inception phase and a Development phase, which spanned 2002 and 2003 respectively. Each phase consisted of three stages or broad cycles of activity, each corresponding roughly to a term in the school's three-term calendar. In each stage, developmental processes unfolded which involved the teachers in an action research-type cycle (plan, develop, implement and evaluate).

Figure 6.1 signposts events at which encounters with 'significant others'[35] in the education system took place. These included the IEB, the DoE, colleagues in Eastern Cape state and independent schools, 'critical friends'[36] from the wider international education community, and an outside evaluator. The first event shown on the left hand side of Figure 6.1 is an IEB workshop. The significance of this workshop is discussed in the next section.

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[35] I use the term 'significant others' to refers to individuals and organisations that influenced and impacted, both positively (by affirming) or negatively (by undermining), on the collaborative research process.

[36] I draw on Schmuck's (1997:101) notion of "critical friends" as a strategy for providing social support and constructive criticism that enhances collaborative action research.

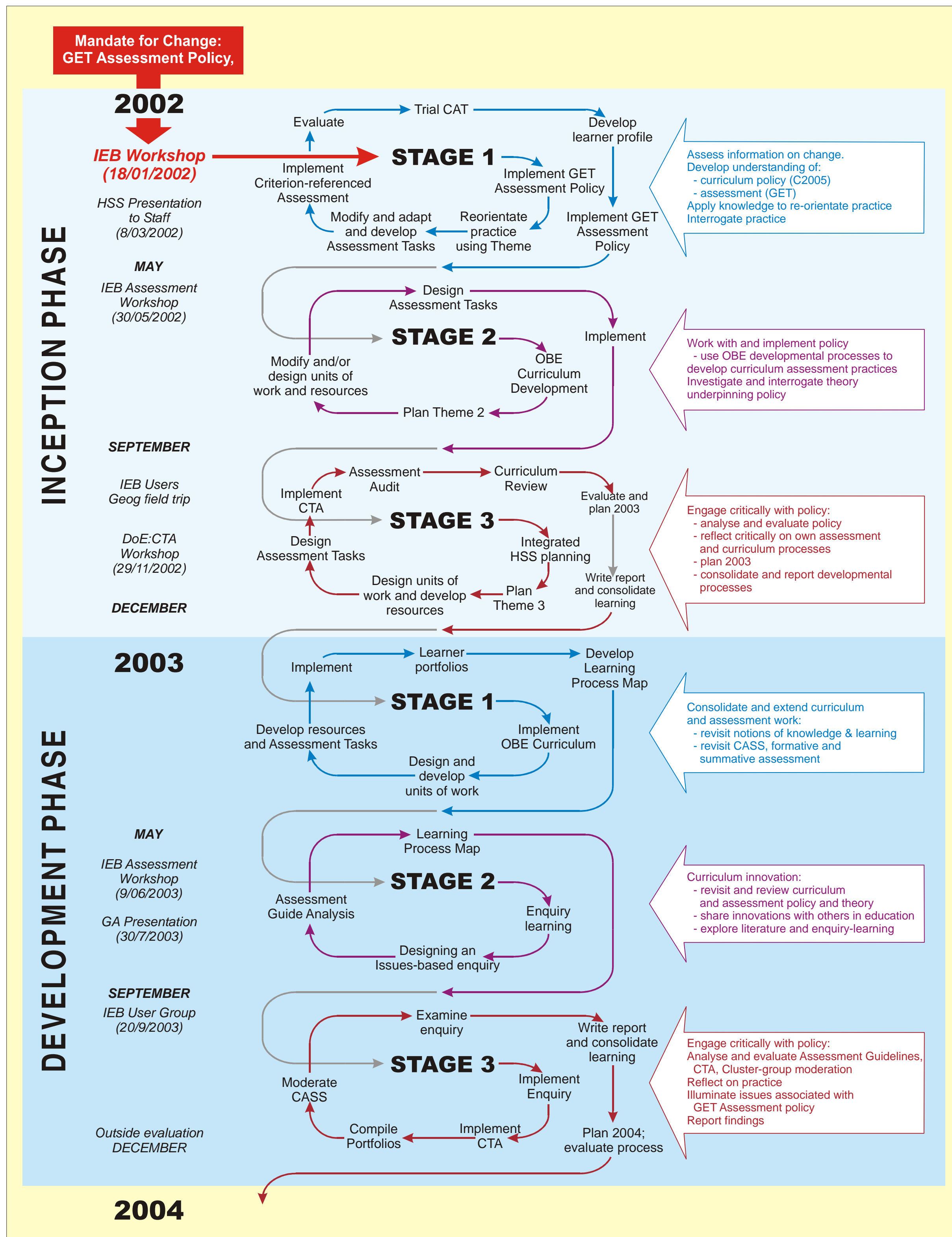

Figure 6.1: Overview of the school-based intervention

6.3.1 The impetus and trigger for the school-based intervention

In Chapter 4, I explained how a state mandate which carried the threat of sanction provided the impetus for the two schools participating in this study to countenance change. The trigger for my becoming involved as a co-participant in a collaborative research and curriculum project was, however (as shown in Figure 6.1), the IEB workshop.

Faced with the need to implement the General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) from 2002, the two schools invited an IEB official to run a workshop for their teachers in January 2002 [RJ02, p.1; DF 5; CR 6, p.4]. At the workshop, the GET assessment model was explained to the teachers. They were grouped in Learning Areas and tasked with the development of a Common Assessment Task (CTA) using the language and design features of C2005. The OBE curriculum orientation of C2005, its design features (integrated learning areas rather than a subject-based curriculum), and language (critical and specific outcomes) were unfamiliar and inaccessible to the teachers. The history and geography teachers did not manage the task, and because time ran out, no plenary session was held to pull the threads of the workshop together and identify areas for further development.

Subsequent to the workshop, the Head of History asked me for copies of relevant curriculum documents. It was coincidental that, on the day I obtained the headmasters' permission to initiate a research project, she approached me for help.

The following trends and patterns emerged from the workshop:

- The schools and teachers were receptive to change. They, as opposed to the IEB, had taken the initiative to organize the workshop, and were willing to attend and participate in the activity. The principals of both schools attended the workshop. From this one may infer a high level of support for teachers.

- The trigger for change was on the one hand external, mandatory and top-down, and on the other internal, voluntary and bottom-up.

- The design of the assessment task required the utilisation of curriculum knowledge. The teachers were unable to access the information contained in the support materials provided by the IEB because they could not make sense of the language or work with the design features. One may infer on their part a low level of OBE curriculum knowledge.

- A request for information on C2005, in particular on the HSS Learning Area, from the Head of History subsequent to the workshop, raises questions about the efficiency of communication about curriculum change to teachers working at the site where change is intended.

- The IEB official made assumptions about the teachers' level of prior knowledge of C2005.

- Although interactive, and attempting to model activity-based participatory learning, the workshop 'wasted' collegiality (Hargreaves, 1994 as cited by Southwood, 2000:30) because of the teachers' low knowledge base regarding outcomes-based policy processes.

- Teachers were 'told' about assessment changes, and then tasked to perform an activity with little support and no mediation. The approach, while activity-based and involving the teachers in 'doing', was narrowly focused on technical dimensions of change. Procedural knowledge was privileged at the expense of declarative.

- A decontextualised approach to learning was taken at the workshop. No effort was made to find out or build on the teachers' prior knowledge or practices. They were treated as though they were empty vessels waiting to be filled with knowledge. Knowledge and skills acquisition were not facilitated by the learner-centred pedagogy used at the workshop. The teachers did not complete the task. From this one may infer that the intended learning did not take place.

- The teachers had no experience of working in an integrated learning area way. Discussions at the HSS table revealed that this was the first time the History and Geography teachers had collaborated formally.

- The workshop revealed a significant disjuncture between national curriculum policy and practice at the two schools. The latter followed a discipline-based curriculum with history and geography being taught and learned as discrete and autonomous subjects.

- The workshop, in disturbing the teachers' *modus operandi*, rendered them vulnerable and this made them more receptive than what they might otherwise have been to the idea of a partnership with myself, a university education lecturer with more experience and knowledge of the new OBE framework.

My frustration and dissatisfaction with the workshop were communicated to the IEB via the research report written at the end of 2002 [CR 6, pp.3-4]. My perception that the workshop left the well-qualified teachers ill equipped to move ahead with implementation of the GET assessment policy, together with the fact that the Head of History had asked me for information on the new OBE curriculum, prompted me to become directly involved in a collaborative research intervention. Thus the failure of the workshop in a sense provided the *raison d´être* for the participatory process of co-engagement which took place between myself and the History and Geography teachers at the two schools.

Figure 6.1 illustrates the broad cycles of activity that took place during the two years in which I supported and worked alongside the teachers. It shows a complex and multi-layered process of change involving interconnected and interdependent curriculum and assessment developmental processes that took place in Grade 9 History and Geography. Figure 6.1 sketches the recursive routes these processes took as they unfolded simultaneously. It shows how the curriculum and assessment developmental processes consisted of practical cycles of activity and theoretical activities (shown in the text boxes on the right hand side of the diagram), and how

these were interconnected and interdependent, and located within a framework of critically reflexive practice.

6.4 The Inception phase of the school-based intervention

The Inception phase, January 2002 to December 2002, consisted of three stages focusing on assessment policy implementation, discipline-based curriculum developmental work, and curriculum innovation.

6.4.1 The Inception phase: Stage 1

During Stage 1, January to May 2002, the implementation of the GET assessment policy (DoE, 1998) began with the teachers continuing to work within their schools' content-driven Geography and History curricula. I assisted the teachers in accessing the new framework by providing pointers to national curriculum and assessment policy. I used diagrammatic summaries [CR 3] as tools to illustrate the 'bigger picture' of educational transformation and to assist in the teachers' orienting and 'tuning in' to the new OBE framework. These tools served as conceptual props for developing the teachers' understanding of:

- the structure and design features, discourses, theoretical underpinnings of the new framework;
- the rationale for curriculum change, and
- the fluid, complex and unstable national curriculum policy landscape resulting from the first revision of C2005 taking place simultaneously with implementation.

Figure 6.1 shows how, at the same time as we explored the theoretical and policy landscape, the teachers engaged in practical activities aimed at achieving a greater alignment of their assessment tasks to policy. First, they drew concept maps showing what, how and why they were teaching in Theme 1 [CR 6, p.12]. The concept maps were useful tools for describing and explaining practice in the light of policy. They provided pathways to the teachers' tacit or implicit knowledge and marked the start of a shift to an explicit pedagogy, as is advocated by OBE. The concept maps also

enabled the teachers to develop a shared understanding of what was happening in Grade 9 History and Geography. This was important because the two subject departments had not collaborated previously.

The concept maps provided us with concrete material for further debate about knowledge at a subsequent focus group discussion [DF 22]. At this forum, the teachers discussed the notion of a discipline versus integrated HSS knowledge structure, an issue raised by certain of the teachers during the first round of interviews in February 2002 [DF 17]. Arising out of the discussions on knowledge, and guided by an exemplar I had helped develop, a Learner Profile document emerged [CR 6, pp.22-24]. In describing learning in history and geography, it encapsulated the teachers' beliefs about knowledge in history and geography in relation to the learning outcomes of C2005 and the RNCS. Importantly, the document provided evidence of how the teachers managed to navigate a way through a fluid policy landscape by working with an amalgam of C2005, the current policy, and the draft RNCS, the imminent policy.

The second activity involved my using an assessment task developed by a teacher to model a shift to criterion-referenced assessment. I also developed a descriptive rubric to illustrate policy requirements [CR 6, pp.13-17]. The teachers then set about modifying and adapting this and/or developing new criterion-referenced assessment tasks for the theme/topic they were currently teaching. In this way, they started to align their tasks with the GET Assessment policy [DF 18, 19]. The tasks were implemented, evaluated and refined for further use. The questions of whether outcomes-based assessment was reductive, and whether there was a risk of atomising learning, were raised and discussed at our weekly meetings.

Thirdly, at my suggestion, we implemented the 2001 Common Assessment Task (CAT),[37] a new instrument developed by the DoE for standardising assessment. This was done for diagnostic purposes in order to give the teachers some indication of where their Grade 9 learners stood in relation to the standard required for exiting the

[37] The Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA) is the new nomenclature for the Common Assessment Tasks (CAT).

GET band [DF 19], and to help dispel any fears that they may have had of the new instrument for assessment. The question of increased state control in education at a lower level than had previously been the case, and the concomitant reduction in teacher autonomy, consequently came up for discussion.

In March 2002, at the end of the first school term and Stage 1 of the intervention, I wrote to the teachers [CR 10]. I used the letter to respond to the issue of time being used for theoretical exploration of the disciplines rather than the practical activities that they had brought to my attention. The list of readings [CR 20] shows how I provided points of reference to the literature on constructivist epistemology, pedagogy and assessment, and the literature on national curriculum transformation. In my letter [CR 10], I drew on Fullan's (1993) ideas to contextualise our developmental work and motivate the teachers.

During the first stage of the intervention, the following emerged:

- The approach taken by the HSS team to the implementation of the GET Assessment policy was incremental. It did not involve a rupture or clean break with the teachers' current practices. The teachers did not throw out their practices and/or beliefs about education. Instead, they used existing practice, both curriculum and assessment, as the point of departure for assessment and curriculum developmental work.

- The implementation of the GET Assessment policy resulted in both continuity and change. Although assessment practices in Grade 9 history and geography changed, the structure and organisation of knowledge, and by inference the teachers' beliefs about knowledge, did not. They retained their 'traditional' concept-driven, discipline approach with history and geography following separate but parallel routes.

- The teachers worked inter-departmentally as an HSS team to plan, analyse and evaluate the work done intra-departmentally.

- The point of reference for our developmental work was national assessment and curriculum policy (DoE, 1997, 1998, 2001), as opposed to any guideline document.

- Starting with existing practice encouraged the teachers to engage in critical analysis and review. It also enabled them to tap into their tacit knowledge and beliefs, and opened up paths along which subsequent developmental processes could proceed.

- Implementing the GET Assessment policy did not take place in a vacuum or in isolation from the larger curriculum framework of which it was part. In order to make sense of the new assessment framework and implement new strategies, and to understand why knowledge was organised and structured as an integrated HSS learning area, we had to acquire an understanding of the epistemology and pedagogy in which the new outcomes-based education framework was located. This necessitated an exploration of constructivist epistemology and learning theories [DF 40].

- I used a participatory, collaborative and enabling, as opposed to prescriptive, approach to professional development. I respected the teachers' beliefs and decisions, for example, to maintain a discipline-based approach as opposed to adopting the integrated learning area approach advocated by C2005. I encouraged and guided the integration of practice and policy. Further, I did not insist that history and geography conform or follow the same developmental paths.

- The teachers and I engaged in different activities. I led the way, structured learning opportunities, mediated change by providing pointers to the various policy documents, developed and used tools and exemplars to model and scaffold change, and initiated and supported a process of critical reflection and review. The teachers engaged in an action-research type of cycle which involved planning, developing and implementing, analysing and evaluating and taking appropriate action, if and when necessary, to improve on what had been done.

- We worked at the policy/practice interface to develop and implement assessment strategies (procedural knowledge) while simultaneously developing an understanding of why change was necessary (declarative knowledge) (Davis, 1998), and of the theories informing the new framework, in particular the epistemology and pedagogy. In this way the teachers acquired curriculum and policy knowledge.

- Developmental and change processes that were ongoing and continuous throughout the Inception phase started in this, the first stage of the intervention. They took recursive, as opposed to linear, paths. This is evident, for example, in the development of the Learner Profile document which evolved into a Learning Process Map during the two years, and the development of a new outcomes-based geography curriculum in Grades 8 and 9.

- There was a balance between group and individual activities, and the teachers were willing to participate in both. They were willing to share their ideas and practices with colleagues and myself. From this one may infer on their part a high level of confidence about their teaching, and a willingness to expose and put themselves at risk. Nevertheless, the intervention was conducted in a way that respected their right to privacy, and without invading the private space of their classrooms (as explained in Chapter 5, Section 5.9.1).

- Innovation took place in both assessment (the development and use of criterion-referenced tasks and descriptive rubrics, and the democratisation of assessment through self-, peer- and teacher-assessment strategies), and curriculum (the Learner Profile document).

6.4.2 The Inception phase: Stage 2

From May to August 2002, the second stage of the Inception phase, assessment development work continued but curriculum development was foregrounded. The

teachers started to make inroads into the OBE curriculum policy landscape encountered during their assessment development work in Stage 1.

I designed a curriculum workshop in which co-operative learning, a strategy advocated by the new framework, was modelled [CR 11]. The workshop engaged the teachers in outcomes-based curriculum design processes as advocated by policy (RNCS, 2001). Once again, the departure point was the teachers' existing practice. The teachers worked intra-departmentally and developed a scheme of work for the topic or theme traditionally taught during the second term of the school year. They were guided by their Learner Profile document, and used the RNCS as a point of reference for ideas on content. Although activity-based, learner-centred and requiring a high level of participation, the workshop was structured and teacher-directed. The workshop materials provided the teachers with a model for co-operative learning.

In History, the theme normally taught was tweaked, and units of work were modified and adapted; in Geography, the theme was re-conceptualised and new units were developed and introduced [DF 32, 33]. The latter required the development of learning support materials. For both subjects, assessment tasks were developed and implemented, including, for example, a book review, film review, fieldwork activities, poster-making etc., together with explicit task briefing sheets, criterion-referenced assessment pro-forma and descriptive rubrics [CR 6, pp.25-41]. Theoretically, we continued with our explorations of the new assessment paradigm [DF 25, 28], of how to promote critical thinking in the classroom [DF 34, 35], and of constructivism [DF 39, 40, 41].

An analysis of the list of reading used during this stage of the intervention [CR 20] reveals that, in addition to the ongoing curriculum and assessment work, I directed the teachers to literature on thinking, critical thinking, and the use of questions and concept maps for stimulating thinking, all of which I used to stimulate debate about learning and assessing a range of cognitive skills [DF 34, 35]. I communicated my intentions to the teachers [DF 35], and explained why I was challenging their thinking and pushing them to dig deeper in order to enrich their understanding of their own practice, in the light of what new theories were postulating. This helped to provide a basis for critically analysing practice – in this case the questions asked by the teachers

in their assessment activities and the IEB in the Grade 12 examination. To assist the teachers, I provided an evaluation sheet I had developed and used with my students at the university [DF 34]. The exercise was illuminating. It provided evidence to counter the teachers' claims to assess (as opposed to teach) a wide range of cognitive skills.

We also explored the literature of constructivist epistemology and learning theories at two specialist workshops run by a colleague of mine [DF 40, 41]. As was the case with the earlier focus group discussion on 'What is Geography? What is History?', there was passive resistance to the exploration of theories [RJ02, p.19; RJ02, p.34]. For some teachers, time was precious and better spent on activities that were directly related to practice.

In July 2002, I challenged the teachers to justify the extent to which they could claim to be on the cutting edge educationally. I shared my preliminary reading of Bernstein's Sociology of Pedagogy with them [DF 38; RJ02, p.38], in particular his idea of knowledge recontextualisation. I explained that although my reading was still only superficial, it had helped me to see why and how there was yet scope for improvement in their teaching practice. I introduced them to Carr's (1995:34-35] argument for critical inquiry and the development of critical reflexivity, which I saw as necessary if the teachers were to shift from being reproducers to recontextualisers of knowledge.

During this stage of the intervention, the following emerged:

- Outcomes-based assessment policy enactment prompted a shift to an outcomes-based orientation in curriculum planning and design, in which explicit learning outcomes were the starting point.

- Curriculum work took place intra-departmentally with the two departments working separately but in parallel, coming together to present the units of work and assessment tasks they had developed.

- Outcomes-based curriculum development was done by modifying and adapting existing units of work and/or developing new ones.

- History followed an incremental approach to outcomes-based curriculum development. It re-oriented the theme traditionally taught in Grade 9 in the second school term and aligned it to the principles of OBE curriculum policy. In the case of Geography, the approach to curriculum development was more radical, with the theme normally taught being re-conceptualised.

- More curriculum innovation took place in geography than history, with new units of work and resources for learning being created in addition to assessment tasks. The geography teachers developed capacities as learning support materials developers, and the history teachers strengthened their learning support materials development.

- The professional development process modelled learner-centred approaches (co-operative learning), and provided the teachers with experiential learning to develop a critical understanding of group- and peer-teaching strategies, and constructivist learning theories.

- I initiated, structured, directed, mediated and modelled change for the teachers, without insisting that they accept or follow my ideas and suggestions. I respected the decisions they took, for example, not to proceed with a follow-up workshop on constructivism.

- Despite some teachers not enjoying the theoretical explorations that ensued, I continued to work at the theory/practice interface and kept the teachers informed, both in writing [CR 10] and verbally, of my intentions and the reasons for my actions. My approach was seen as ‘forceful’ by one teacher and ‘enabling’ by another [RJ02, p.36]. Importantly, I did not lose any teachers because of it, and despite different levels among them of enthusiasm and interaction with theory, they all continued to attend and participate in the weekly workshops.

6.4.2 The Inception phase: Stage 3

During the third stage of the Inception phase, that is, September to December 2002, curriculum development work was foregrounded. The teachers designed and developed an integrated HSS theme. This, our first attempt at cross-curricular work, did not happen spontaneously but took encouragement and explicit modelling from me [DF 42]. After a heated discussion on knowledge [DF 44] the teachers took the decision to develop a scheme of work for a common HSS theme *Soweto 1976* [DF 45, 46, 47].

The approach to the design and development of the integrated theme was more systematic and rigorous than the approach taken for the previous, subject-specific themes. It involved inter-departmental collaboration with the teachers writing a rationale justifying the choice of theme, describing the learning outcomes, developing units of work and assessment tasks. Unfortunately, due to the arrival of the Common Tasks for Assessment (CTA), the theme was not implemented. The administration and implementation of the CTA impinged on teaching time. Despite a foundation having thus been laid for further collaborative curriculum planning processes in 2003, this did not in fact materialise during the Development phase of the intervention. Instead, history and geography followed separate routes when doing further innovative enquiry development work [CR 7, pp.23-25].

With the arrival of the CTA, the focus shifted to assessment work. I synthesized national policy and the DoE and IEB's assessment guideline documents and designed an Assessment Audit sheet [CR 7, p.43] that the teachers used as a tool to analyse and evaluate their continuous assessment (CASS) practices. Learner portfolios were compiled according to the policy guidelines. The CTA, both Sections A and B, was implemented and trialed, but only Section B was assessed.

At my suggestion the teachers agreed to analyse and evaluate their CASS and CTA experience [DF 52, 54, 56]. I generated criteria for the evaluation of the CTA. As a result of my having attended the CTA development workshop organised by the national Department of Education in November 2002 and given critical feedback on our GET assessment experience (as explained in Chapter 5 Section 5.9.2), I advised

the teachers not to involve themselves in the writing of a report. I was overruled and we collaborated in the writing of a report giving feedback on our experience of assessment policy implementation in Grade 9 at the two schools. The report was sent to the DoE and IEB [DF 57; CR 7].

The teachers consolidated their learning by auditing their curriculum using a Curriculum Planning sheet [CR 7, p.44] that I had designed. They also planned a new history and geography curriculum based on an amalgam of C2005 and the RNCS, for implementation in 2003 [CR 7, pp.15-19]. At this stage of the intervention, our work was both backward- and forward-looking, and focused on analysing and reflecting on what had taken place and been achieved, and on identifying plans for the following year.

The following patterns and trends emerged:

- Cross-curricular work requires a high level of inter-departmental collaboration. It was not attempted until the teachers had become comfortable working intra-departmentally as opposed to individually.

- Given the teachers' strong beliefs about discipline knowledge, the shift to cross-curricular work was not spontaneous or straightforward.

- The earlier debate on knowledge, in particular the issue of 'What is History?' and 'What is Geography?' continued.

- Despite their beliefs about knowledge expressed at the focus group discussion [DF 22] and formalised in the Learner Profile document, the teachers were prepared to venture into cross-curricular HSS work. From this one may infer on their part an openness to transformation. Whereas at the start of the intervention, they were not prepared to follow an integrated HSS approach, this changed with time. However, the sustainability of change for which there is little, if any, 'buy in', is questionable. The integrated HSS approach was not pursued during the Development phase of the intervention.

- Cross-curricular innovation did not happen spontaneously. It required motivation, justification and persuasion, as well as explicit modelling and structuring by me, the outsider. Although the teachers did not adopt or use the outline I developed, it stimulated and provoked them to think about the curriculum in ways that they had not done before, and provided a springboard for the their subsequent curriculum development work.

- The development of a shared vision was a prerequisite for cross-curricular development work. This was achieved through a process of negotiation and consensus. Learning outcomes were useful for describing the learning associated with the integrated theme.

- Cross-curricular work involved discussion and was characterised by both agreement and disagreement. It took more time and effort than intra-departmental discipline-based curriculum work.

- The time required for the administration and implementation of the CTA impinged on teaching time. This impacted negatively on curriculum innovation, with the cross-curricular theme not being implemented.

- The assessment and curriculum audit facilitated the teachers' critical reflection on and evaluation of what had been achieved. It helped them to make informed decisions for 2003. Reflexive competence encouraged throughout the year came to the fore at the end of the year.

- Throughout the year, the teachers and I worked alongside one another. I planned, organised and structured opportunities for learning including, for example, workshops and focus group discussions in which the teachers could investigate and experiment with the new framework, both theoretically and practically. I developed and used tools including, for example, diagrams and audit sheets to mediate, model and support change processes.

- Change, as typified by the assessment and curriculum developmental work described here, took time and effort. It involved finding out, planning,

> designing and developing, implementing, reflecting, consolidating and refining or changing. It was an active process in which the teachers, supported and guided by myself, engaged actively and creatively with policy. They were not passive recipients and implementers of policy. Instead, they mediated and re-contextualised policy for enactment in their specific educational context. As a result, a hybridised rather than 'pure' form of policy was evident in the two schools. It was as closely aligned with and reflective of the teachers' beliefs as was possible.

I have provided an overview of the first phase of the school-based intervention. The evidence shows that it was a busy and productive year in which there was a balance between curriculum change and continuity, and a radical shift towards criterion-referenced assessment procedures that gave rise to innovative assessment work. The next section focuses on the second phase of the intervention, which took place in 2003.

6.5 The development phase of the school-based intervention

During the second phase of the intervention, the development phase (January to December 2003), the curriculum and assessment work of 2002 was consolidated and extended. It began with the HSS group re-convening in January to reflect on what had been done and achieved during the previous year, and to identify goals and negotiate a plan of action. As a result of our deliberations, I devised a programme which the teachers accepted [DF 57, 59].

6.5.1 The Development phase: Stage 1

From January to April, the focus was on implementing the new OBE curricula that the teachers developed intra-departmentally at the end of 2002 and refined during the Christmas holidays [CR 7, pp.15-19]. The enactment of OBE in Grade 9 at the schools took place through hybridised curricula – an amalgam of current (C2005) and imminent (the RNCS) policy – developed by the teachers. While aligned to the principles of the new curriculum framework, the curricula were discipline-based and

congruent with the teachers' beliefs about knowledge. They had evolved from a year-long process of active and critical engagement with, and trialling of, national curriculum policy.

The Geography curriculum was completely overhauled to fit with the new framework. An issues-based enquiry framework was adopted and Physical Geography jettisoned. New units of work and assessment activities were developed and implemented. This was not the case in history. Instead, an incremental approach to curriculum development was taken because much of the content of the new curriculum (DoE, 2002b) had been taught previously in Grades 8 and 9 at the two schools. This said, some tweaking of the Grade 9 History curriculum was necessary for a better fit with policy. This had a knock-on effect, both up and down, with two themes normally taught in Grade 9 going to Grade 8, and another to Grade 10. One of the challenges identified by the History teachers was finding creative ways to deal with the content so that unnecessary repetition was avoided in the senior grades. Because the History teachers were working with topics that they had previously taught, their focus was primarily, although not exclusively, on adapting and using 'old' units of work differently, and developing a wider range of assessment activities and criterion-referenced assessment pro forma. The implementation of the curriculum continued throughout the year, as did CASS assessment development.

What emerged was as follows:

- The weekly meetings did not suffice for the volume of development work undertaken. Teachers gave up leisure time – school holidays, weekends and evenings. Routine subject meeting slots were also used.

- The professional development approach continued to be collaborative, based on a shared vision and understanding of what was being done, and of why and how. A high level of negotiation was evident.

- The teachers were not passive recipients and implementers of someone else's curriculum. Instead, they interpreted policy and found a way of recontextualising the change it advocated without necessarily compromising

their beliefs about knowledge or changing their entire practice. As a result a hybrid OBE curriculum was introduced at the two schools.

6.5.2 The Development phase: Stage 2

During the second stage of the Development phase (March to July 2003), the teachers continued with the implementation of their new curricula, and the adaptation and development of units of work and criterion-referenced assessment tasks. At the same time, the focus of the weekly meetings shifted to curriculum innovation in the form of enquiry-based learning. I ran two workshops on this topic [DF 61, 62]. The teachers' overall understanding of enquiry, and of skills and conceptual progression, was developed through an exploration of enquiry models described in the literature [DF 61]. The teachers worked intra-departmentally and developed History and Geography enquiries [CR 7, pp.20-28; DF 71].

The enquiry development work continued, mostly outside of the weekly meetings, until the end of July 2003. The teachers presented the enquiries and received positive feedback from 'significant others', namely a group of Geographical Association (UK) members touring South Africa [DF 73]. The Geography enquiry was presented at the annual Geographical Association (GA) conference at the University of Sussex, Canterbury in April 2004, and published in the British journal *Teaching Geography* [CR 9, DF 95]. The teachers also shared their enquiry development with colleagues from Eastern Cape schools, both independent and state, at an IEB User Group meeting in September 2003 [CR 7, pp.26-7; DF 78]. Positive peer response at the conference affirmed the work the teachers were doing.

The enquiry development work was interrupted by an IEB Assessment workshop in June 2003 [DF 66]. The six and a half hour workshop focused on how to set outcomes-based assessment (OBA) activities. Having spent 18 months on curriculum and assessment developmental work, the teachers found the workshop frustrating and confusing, and the approach rigid and prescriptive [CR 7, pp.21-22]. It resulted in their re-examining curriculum policy, in particular the Review Committee on C2005's Report and assessment policy, to gain clarity and confirm that they were on the right track [DF 67].

Throughout the Development phase of the intervention, work on the Learner Profile document continued. During 2003, one teacher offered to refine the document. He took ownership of the developmental process and was responsible for transforming it into a more sophisticated Learning Process map. He explained the process of development to colleagues at an IEB User Group meeting in September 2003 [CR 7, pp.27-45; DF 78].

Emerging patterns and trends were as follows:

- The teachers were willing to develop and trial enquiry-based learning, a new approach. They chose to do this by working intra-departmentally within a discipline-based curriculum approach. Their innovations were shared inter-departmentally, with colleagues in other schools, and with a wider education community.

- My roles varied. They included facilitating and mediating, structuring and instructing (the workshop), supporting (with frameworks) the developmental process, and providing points of reference to policy and the literature on enquiry learning.

- Developmental processes were interrupted by events at which the teachers encountered and interacted with 'significant others' including colleagues from other schools, the IEB and critical friends from the GA. The teachers' experiences in these encounters were both positive and negative. The events affirmed, confused and even seemed at times to undermine their efforts.

- When they were confused or in doubt, I referred the teachers back to primary sources of information, namely policy and official review documents, as opposed to the IEB or DoE's interpretations in guideline documents or workshops. This helped the teachers to reflect critically on their efforts, and helped build their confidence and trust in the developmental processes.

- Throughout 2003, the teachers continued to extend their repertoire of assessment tasks for CASS purposes. In Grade 9 history a combination of ‘old’, that is tasks developed in 2002, and new assessment tasks was used. A range of new assessment tasks was developed for Grade 9 Geography [CR 7, p.67].

6.5.3 The Development phase: Stage 3

During the third stage of the Development phase (September to December 2003) the focus shifted to assessment. In the first instance, this involved engaging critically with policy in the light of practice, recording our experiences and providing feedback to curriculum developers. The DoE’s Continuous Assessment Guideline document was analysed, a report written and submitted to the DoE [DF 76; CR 7, pp.68-74]. The findings were also presented at the IEB Regional User Group Meeting [DF 78]. Likewise, the 2003 Human and Social Sciences’ CTA was analysed and a report written [DF 77; CR 7, pp.75-85], and the cluster group model for CASS moderation purposes was analysed and evaluated [DF 91; CR 7, pp.72-75].

Secondly, the portfolio compilation process that started at the beginning of 2002 continued throughout 2003. From October, administrative matters came to the fore, with time and effort being spent on Learner and Teacher Portfolio organisation for CASS purposes [DF 79, 81, 82]. The teachers took control of the process, designing portfolio cover sheets and checklists.

Much discussion took place on whether the portfolio ought to be process-orientated, that is, showing development and growth in competency over time, or product-orientated, that is, showing only best performance or highest level of attainment. The issue of standardised assessment tasks was a subject of intense debate, with some teachers arguing for standardised portfolio tasks on the ground that it would make the management of the portfolios more efficient, and would be fairer and more reliable because the same tasks would be given to all the Grade 9s. Others argued that it would be too rigid, potentially contrived, and intruding on an individual teacher’s professionalism. The issue was not resolved [DF 81]. Instead, it was flagged as one that needed further exploration in 2004.

In spite of the time and the administrative effort spent on the learner portfolios, the teachers were generally satisfied that the process had run smoothly. This was not the case with the teacher portfolios [DF 82]. By April, only four of the nine teachers had started compiling a portfolio of evidence of their Grade 9 curriculum and assessment development work and innovation. Those who had not managed to do so identified time as a major constraint. And although they did not have a portfolio *per se*, they were recording their progress in some form – whether in a logbook, diary or folder of documents. 'Master' teacher portfolios were compiled for history and geography. These were taken to the cluster group moderation meeting. It was agreed that a more systematic approach to portfolio building would be planned for 2004 [DF 83].

Thirdly, the CTA was implemented, analysed and a report written [CR 7]. The intervention concluded with activities that were both backward and forward looking. The teachers reflected critically on what had been done and achieved during the year, and they discussed plans for 2004 [DF 85, 90]. An evaluation of the intervention was conducted by an outside evaluator [CR 12].

Emerging patterns and trends were as follows:

- There was a shift from making sense of and implementing policy to engaging critically with it, and providing feedback to policy makers on policy in practice. This followed an active learning cycle of finding out, planning and developing, implementing, reflecting critically and taking action with a view to further implementation. In doing this, the teachers demonstrated practical, foundational and reflexive competences as described in the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000).

- With time and experience, the teachers' confidence and understanding of transformation increased. They took ownership of the process and started to lead and manage processes that I had initiated.

- By writing up the research narrative with substantive evidence of their interpretation and implementation of policy, the teachers were able to share

their story with the wider community [CF 6, 7, 9]. They developed a voice which enabled them to join in the educational conversation at local, regional, national and international levels. From this one may infer epistemological empowerment.

- The teachers' narrative and the substantive evidence of their efforts were used by me to shed light on the GET assessment policy in practice and provide feedback to curriculum developers. My critical commentary on the policy included analysis of the policy guideline documents, the CTA and the CASS cluster group moderation process [CR 7, pp. 72-73].

The following section extrapolates and synthesises what emerged through the intervention in terms of patterns and trends linked to change processes, before moving on to a discussion of the consequences or outcomes/products of the intervention and who benefited from these.

6.6 The findings of the review: Processes

I have described how the school-based intervention started, what its goals were and who participated in it, and I have interpretively analysed the processes and events that took place and the consequences of these during the two phases – the Inception phase and the Developmental phase – in 2002 and 2003 respectively.

Tables 6.1 to 6.3 synthesize the patterns and trends illuminated by the review, and classify them in terms of three broad themes or categories. These are as follows:

- change processes, which includes the notion of the trigger for change, receptiveness to change and teacher 'buy in', as well as the characteristics of the change process that took place through the intervention;

- policy consequences, which include the effect and impact of assessment policy implementation, both intended and unintended, in a general sense and more

specifically in terms of curriculum, assessment, pedagogy and teacher professionalism, and the issues and problems and difficulties that arose; and

- professional development processes, which includes the nature and role of the professional development model used, the nature of the learning that took place through the intervention, and the model and environment that were conducive to change.

As I explained at the beginning of this chapter, when compiling the review I became aware that while some of the findings were self-explanatory and made perfect sense given the intervention and its process, others left me puzzled and curious to find out more. These were highlighted in the preceding discussion. Tables 6.1 to 6.3 identify the unresolved issues (shown in Comic Sans font) that emerged in the findings of the review and raised questions that I was unable to answer. While I was intrigued by what had emerged and curious to find out more, I was uncertain of how to do so.

Table 6.1: Change processes

Finding	Evidence
The **impetus for change** came from external and internal forces. Change was both top-down and bottom-up.	Change was imposed on the schools. It was only with a state mandate for change that carried the threat of sanction that the two schools, in particular the teachers in this study, started to engage in educational transformational processes which, until then, had been ignored. Prior to the mandate, the new OBE and the schools' framework had co-existed side-by-side. The state mandate was the force which broke down the insulation, and provided the pressure for the teachers to change. At the same time, the Head of History's request for assistance may be viewed as evidence of change being driven from the bottom-up. There is evidence which supports Fullan's contention that an external stimulus forces teachers to think about curriculum in ways that they would not have done without the stimulus, and of teachers needing pressure to change (1993:91; 2002:204).
The schools and teachers in this study were **receptive** to change	The schools took the initiative to organize the IEB workshop on the GET assessment model in January 2002. The teachers were receptive to the idea of a partnership with an outsider. The teachers were willing to collaborate and work as members of a HSS team which was different to their normal discipline-based organizational structures. They were willing to take risks and try different things. There is evidence which supports Fullan's claim that effective change needs internal development and external involvement, and seeking help from an outsider is seen as a sign of vitality rather than weakness (1993:86).
Policy was implemented meaningfully because there was teacher **'buy in'**.	While the state mandate may have imposed assessment change on the teachers, the successful implementation of assessment policy that was achieved through the intervention was because the teachers recognised the moral purpose of change. This did not happen spontaneously or evenly within the group, and it required my advocacy of change. How, and why, was this finding significant in terms of what happened in the intervention? [See Chapters 8 and 9] The size of the group (nine teachers) was sufficient for the critical mass seen as necessary for effective change (Fullan, 1993:40). It meant that when teachers were passively resistant or simply too busy to keep up with our developmental work,

Finding	Evidence
	others could carry them. This helped to sustain the process and it provided the less confident and more reluctant teachers with the space they needed to get their heads around the various ideas of change. The mix of senior and junior, experienced and inexperienced teachers added richness to the group. It meant that beginner teachers became leader curriculum developers and assessors. It was only when I had clarified and justified the rationale for introducing assessment and curriculum change that the teachers began to recognise policy's potential for enhancing teaching and learning. The advocacy and mediating role I played at the start of the intervention was crucial for developing the teachers' understanding of the moral imperative for change and buy in. Because the teachers believed that policy offered possibilities for enhancing their practice, and despite the many design features of OBE which they did not buy into, the most important of which was its integrated knowledge structures, they were prepared to implement and trial policy. They were willing to participate in change processes. The moral imperative for change was maintained and sustained by further insights generated during policy implementation, for example, the shift towards more interactive pedagogy and greater learner participation. The belief that change was worthwhile, despite the problems and tensions it brought, provided the energy and dynamism that sustained the intervention. The intervention illuminated how meaningful policy implementation required a stick (the state mandate) and a carrot (the belief that change was worthwhile).
Change was both **evolutionary** and incremental, and **radical**	The teachers managed to work creatively within the tension of change, that is, discontinuity and continuity associated with transformation and the implementation of OBE policy. They were able to hold the old and new in productive tension. How? What was the significance of this in terms of what happened in the intervention? [see Chapter 8] There is evidence which suggests that transformation processes are complex and relational with opposed forces often co-existing in productive tension. This was evident in the teachers' curriculum development work, in particular the struggles that ensued to maintain strong discipline boundaries, and at the same time engage in interdisciplinary thematic curriculum work (the planning of the integrated HSS theme). The intervention provides counter-evidence to the binary or oppositional view of transformation, that is, the either/or, 'out

Finding	Evidence
	with the old in with the new' position taken at the IEB assessment workshops. There is evidence in the intervention which suggests that taking a fundamentally opposed view creates division which in many instances is artificial and rhetorical. There is evidence which suggests that transformation or change is not necessarily marked by an abrupt discontinuity: instead, it may be characterised by changes through a continuous gradient. It involves both incremental and evolutionary processes which included tweaking, modifying and adapting 'old' practices, and at times radical and innovative practices. The Geography curriculum was completely overhauled and changed radically to fit with the new framework. An issues-based enquiry framework was adopted and Physical Geography jettisoned. New units of work and assessment activities were developed and implemented. This was not the case in History. Instead, an incremental approach to curriculum development was taken because much of the content of the new curriculum (DoE, 2002b) had been taught previously in Grades 8 and 9 at the two schools. Some tweaking of the Grade 9 History curriculum was necessary for a better fit with policy. This had a knock-on effect, both up and down, with two themes normally taught in Grade 9 going to Grade 8, and another to Grade 10.
Change processes are **recursive**, as opposed to linear, **continuous** and **ongoing.**	The developmental processes started in 2002 continued throughout the two-year intervention, and are still continuing in 2005 [DF 100]. The development of the Learner Profile document, for example, which evolved to a Learning Process map was an ongoing process that continued throughout the two-year intervention. Similarly, the development of a new OBE Grade 9 Geography curriculum at the two schools, for example, which started in 2002 and was implemented in 2003, is still ongoing. [DF 100]
Policy implementation involved curriculum and assessment change processes that were both **destructive** and **re-constructive**.	The GET assessment and curriculum policy framework destroyed some of the teachers' practices, metamorphosed others and enabled the creation of new practices. How, and why, did this happen? And what was the significance of this in terms of what happened in the intervention? [see Chapter 7 and 8]
Although a state initiative for effecting change, assessment	As a result of a social process of meaning-making mediated and supported by me, the teachers interpreted policy within their own frame of reference and in ways that were compatible with their beliefs. As a result what they implemented was

Finding	Evidence
policy and its associated curriculum framework was flexible, with opportunities for teacher **self-determination.**	not necessarily the same as what was intended. Instead, the curriculum that was achieved was a hybridized one. How? Why? [see Chapter 7] There is evidence in the intervention which suggests that just as the teachers were "being re-shaped by external forces, considerable scope for strategic action by teachers… remains…" (Pollard 1992:104). Although less obvious, the teachers were also interpreting and re-shaping policy, as was evident for example, in the type of curriculum that emerged. This re-shaping of and being re-shaped by policy helps us to understand why there was a disjuncture between the "intended curriculum" and the "implemented" and "attained curriculum"(Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold 2003:6). How, and why, was this significant in terms of what happened in the intervention? [See Chapter 9]

Table 6.2: Consequences of assessment policy implementation

Finding	Evidence
Assessment was a powerful **lever of change**.	The intervention provided evidence which supports the assertion that assessment is the tail that wags the education dog, particularly in outcomes-based education where the product or outcome of learning is both the starting and ending point of teaching and learning. The intervention highlighted the power of assessment as a control and regulatory mechanism in outcomes-based education. How, and why, was this significant in terms of what happened in the intervention? [See Chapter 8 and 9]
The implementation of a national policy, in this case	OBE assessment policy disrupted and brought changes in Grade 9 History and Geography assessment, curriculum and pedagogy.

Finding	Evidence
the GET assessment policy, **disturbed the stable educational framework** at the schools.	The GET assessment policy changed the teachers' culture[38], that is, the language they used (they adopted an outcomes-based educational discourse) and the way they spoke about their practice (more critically analytical and reflexive), and the nature of their work (increased administration and bureaucracy on the one hand and increased developmental work and innovation on the other). How did this happen? And what were the implications? [Chapters 8 and 9] It also changed the institutional culture and social relationships with a shift towards greater collaboration between the teachers intra- and inter-departmentally.
The intervention illuminated the **interrelated nature of change.** Changes in one element of the system gave rise to changes in other elements.	The GET assessment policy enactment did not take place in isolation. The implementation of the GET Assessment policy gave rise to multi-layered, interconnected and interdependent curriculum and assessment developmental processes which occurred simultaneously, and which involved both change and continuity. In order to make sense of the new assessment framework and implement new assessment strategies, the teachers had to acquire curriculum knowledge, in particular how knowledge is organised and structured as an integrated HSS learning area. The implementation of the GET assessment policy had a knock on effect, both up and down, with changes taking place in Grades 8 and 10. Changes in assessment led to changes in what was taught and how it was taught. It also led to changes in curriculum design processes and the ways in which teachers' worked (shift towards increased collaboration).

[38] I draw on Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988 as cited in McTaggart 1997:31) definition of culture as "the characteristic substance of the language and discourses, activities and practices, and social relationships and organisation that constitute the interactions of the group."

Finding	Evidence
The GET assessment policy was a **catalyst for assessment** change and innovation.	There was a shift to explicit criterion-referenced assessment practices (change). The development and use of criterion-referenced assessment procedures and descriptive rubrics took place (innovation). Existing assessment tasks were adapted and modified and new ones were designed and developed (continuity and innovation). A wider repertoire of assessment tasks was developed (innovation). Assessment was democratised through greater pupil involvement in assessment, and the use of self-, peer-, and teacher-assessment (innovation). The focus of assessment shifted from product to process with more attention being given to formative assessment and social processes, for example, group work (innovation). An assessment audit was conducted (innovation). The GET assessment policy was implemented in full. The teacher's documented their CASS practices, analysed and evaluated the CTA, and reported their experiences and findings to national, provincial and IEB curriculum developers (innovation) Learner portfolios were compiled (innovation). How, and why, was this significant in terms of what happened in the intervention? [See Chapters 8 and 9]
The GET assessment policy was a **catalyst for curriculum** discontinuity and innovation on the one hand and continuity on the other.	History and Geography continued within a discipline-based framework (continuity). Curriculum design and developmental processes became outcomes-based (innovation). Units of work were adapted and developed as outcomes-based units (innovation). An integrated HSS theme was designed and developed (innovation). The curriculum was audited (innovation).

Finding	Evidence
	A new OBE curriculum was developed (innovation). A Learner Profile which became a Learning Process map was developed (innovation).
The full implementation of the GET assessment policy gave rise to a number of **problems, difficulties and issues**.	In terms of assessment these were as follows: The issue of whether CASS was intended to serve formative and/or summative purposes The problem of over-assessing. The danger of group-think versus individual think. The issue of whether the learners' portfolios were product or process portfolios Standardization of assessment tasks was an issue. The difficulty of coping with the increased paperwork and bureaucracy associated with the GET assessment policy, and the problem of it eroding teaching and learning time and opportunities for innovation The issue of the GET assessment policy encouraging reductionism and the atomisation of learning The issue of increased state interference and regulation evident in the introduction of the GET assessment policy and a national assessment at Grade 9 level that would erode teacher autonomy and self-determination The issue of guideline documents being prescriptive as opposed to guiding The issue of the legitimacy and status of official documents The problem of validity and reliability of CASS and teacher assessment The problem of reliability of the GET Cluster Group moderation model The issue of validity with respect to the CTA and the curriculum goals

Finding	Evidence
	How, and why, were these issues and problems significant? How did the teachers manage to navigate their way through the problems and tensions? [See Chapters 7 and 8]
The introduction of the GET assessment policy by the IEB, and my subsequent support for its implementation had consequences, both intended and unintended**, for the teachers.**	It destabilized the teachers' educational framework (intended outcome). OBE assessment and curriculum policy were enabling mechanisms for teacher professional growth and development. Policy facilitated the development of the teachers as curriculum designers, resource developers and assessors. It enhanced their skills as mediators of enquiry-based participatory learning in Grade 9 history and geography. The shift to, and strengthening of roles played by teachers was aligned to the intentions of the *Norms and Standards for Educators'* policy (DoE, 2000) (intended outcome). How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapter 8] The teachers' encounters with the IEB were a source of ongoing frustration (unintended). It prompted the teachers to take various collaborative actions, including the writing of two research reports, presenting their curriculum and assessment developmental work at local and international conferences and publishing the geography enquiry work. As a result, the teachers developed a voice that critiqued assessment policy from within and which offered suggestions for policy development (unintended outcome). How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7 and 9] The teachers' social relationships changed with colleagues both intra- and inter-departmentally, and with colleagues in other schools and beyond. In the case of the geography teachers, the intervention enabled a shift from teaching as an insulated and individual activity to one that was collaborative and team-orientated. In the case of history, there was a strengthening and formalizing of collaborative relations that had existed prior to the intervention, and the creation of stronger team commitment. History and Geography, while retaining their discipline boundaries, became more interactive with ongoing collaboration and conversations taking place about curriculum planning and assessment. The teachers' participation at regional IEB User Group meetings was enhanced through their presentations of their

Finding	Evidence
	curriculum developmental work (unintended outcome). The teachers became conversant with the theories and pedagogy underpinning the C2005 and the GET assessment policy. They documented their curriculum development work through the writing of the reports, and by placing these in the public forum and became active participants in national conversations about assessment and curriculum transformation. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7 and 9] The implementation of assessment policy in Grade 9, supported by a model of professional development located in critically reflexive practice and based on democratic principles engendered confidence and developed teachers' knowledge and capacities for self-determination (intended). How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7 and 8] Policy implementation enabled the teachers to develop their skills as curriculum designers and learning support materials developers. The teachers became more resourceful (unintended). How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapter 8]

Table 6.3: Professional development processes

Finding	Evidence
The professional development model was underpinned by **constructivist learning theory**.	Learning was contextualized. The professional development process of the intervention began by tapping into and eliciting the teachers' prior knowledge and building on their existing practices and accessing, orienting and clarifying ambiguities and ambivalences in policy. Learning was an active and interactive process of knowledge construction and meaning-making. Following Guskey (2992:384), the model was predicated on teachers' experiential learning and learning through practice. It involved the teachers in planning, implementing and trialing, analyzing and evaluation, making recommendations for

	improvement and taking action. Learning was enhanced through instruction, mediation and scaffolding by me within a framework of critical and reflexive practice. The learning process involved working with both the 'big' picture of change and the various constituent parts at both a practical and theoretical level. I was aware of the potential danger of social constructivism's over-emphasising and privileging of group work, taking collaboration to the extreme. Following Fullan (1993:35) who argues that the capacity to think and work independently is crucial to change, and "…the freshest ideas often come from diversity and those marginal to the group", I structured the learning activities in ways that ensured a balance between group and individual work. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7 and 8]
Meaningful implementation of assessment policy took **time, effort and commitment**	It took two years of collaboration with a more experienced outsider, and involved working on a regular weekly basis to accomplish what happened in the intervention. It followed a process of "development in use" which Fullan (2002:204) claims requires a minimum of 2 to 3 years for effective change. The teachers struggled to create time and space for the developmental work that took place during the two years. The regular weekly meetings did not suffice but because they believed that what they were engaged in was worthwhile in that it had the potential to enhance and strengthen their practice, the were prepared to work intra-departmentally and individually outside of the meetings, and in their leisure time.
The teachers' learning was supported and enhanced by a more **experienced outsider.**	I provided points of reference to national policy, mediated, scaffolded and modeled the epistemological and pedagogical theories underpinning the new framework. I designed purposive activities that provided experiential learning opportunities for the teachers, made them work at the interface of theory and practice, and encouraged ongoing critical inquiry. I modeled the use of a language of critique and possibility. It helped the teachers to be skeptical of the changes intended by policy, mindful of the need to identify and analyse the potential dangers associated with OBE policy, and at the same time engendering hope and an openness to policies possibilities and opportunities for renewal and growth. This approach is evident in the two research reports, where policy critique is balanced by policy innovation. I used policy as my primary point of reference for curriculum and assessment change rather than the DoE or others'

	interpretations of policy. When appropriate or necessary, I mediated the DoE and IEB's interpretation of policy (as guidelines) for the teachers again using policy as my point of reference. It provided greater flexibility and opportunities for self-determination. It enabled the teachers to interpret policy in ways that were compatible with their values and beliefs, and it meant that we were able to circumvent certain of the problems associated with the way in which the DoE and other 'trainers' had interpreted policy at workshops and in guideline documents. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7,8 and 9]. There was strong instructional leadership evident in the intervention. I 'walked the talk', leading by example as was evident in the structuring and purposive design of various learning activities I designed. I was a role model of the type of teacher envisaged by curriculum and assessment policy. How, and why, was this significant in terms of what happened in the intervention? [See Chapter 8]
Meaningful implementation of policy took place because the teachers acquired a **deep understanding** of the new framework, in particular the epistemology and pedagogy underpinning it.	The teachers acquired both procedural and declarative knowledge, that is, practical, foundational and reflexive competences, and this enabled them to work creatively and meaningfully with assessment and curriculum policy. This is evident in the numerous documents they generated during the two years. From being dependent on an outside facilitator to chart a course through OBE curriculum territory, the teachers became less dependent on me as their experience increased over time and their confidence grew. By the end of the two years of collaboration, they had acquired an understanding of the new framework and skills and capacities for applying their knowledge for example, for curriculum design and development, assessment and learning support material design. They did not need my guidance or support. There is evidence which suggests that as the teachers' knowledge of OBE developed, they internalized the discourse of policy which had initially been inaccessible became part of their way of thinking and conversing about teaching and learning. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7, 8 and 9]
The environment **was conducive to change**	The learning environment within the HSS group was safe being both non-threatening and non-judgmental. It was based on respect for persons. It was characterized by both consensus and dissent with the latter often sparking ideas that may otherwise not have emerged.

	The environment within the schools as a whole was conducive to learning. There was ongoing support and recognition of change from senior management in the two schools. Vertical and horizontal trust was evident between the teachers and between the teachers and management. According to Hargreaves (2002: 396) both forms of trust are necessary for school improvement and effectiveness. The Headmasters of the two schools attended the IEB workshops during the two-year intervention; and presentations made by the History and Geography teachers to the rest of the teachers at the two schools. They supported, both psychologically and financially, the teachers decisions to participate in national and international conversations about their subjects They recognized and valued the teachers' developmental work and acknowledged their efforts at the annual school prize-giving, and in school newsletters to parents.
The professional model modeled a **participatory and collaborative approach based** on negotiation and respect for persons.	Power relations were made explicit and efforts were made to create egalitarian power relations through delegating roles and responsibilities to different members of the group, and shared decision-making. Whereas initially, as the group leader, I determined the structure and content of our weekly workshops, with time and increased experience, the teachers took ownership of the process and became self-determining. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapter 8] Relationships between the teachers and between the teachers and I were built on trust, respect and integrity. I led by example, by taking risks and putting myself on the line and through explicit modeling of the new theoretical perspectives. This, together with my forthright, transparent and honest approach enabled me to build trust, establish my credibility and earn the respect of the teachers. It engendered confidence in the teachers. Hargreaves (2002:294 and 404) cites trust as an essential ingredient to school, and by inference teacher, improvement. The high level of collaboration and trust in the HSS group enabled a "collaborative learning community" (Prawat, 1996:91) or "professional learning community" (Hargreaves 2002:394) to be built. There is evidence which shows that the collaboration was genuine as opposed to contrived. This is borne out by the fact that the teachers took the decision not to go the integrated HSS route as intended by C2005 choosing to remain true to their beliefs about the value and importance of discipline knowledge. Further, the fact that the HSS group was still vibrant in 2005, some 18 months after I had withdrawn from the schools, is testimony to the power of genuine collegiality.

	How, and why, was this significant in terms of happened in the intervention? [See Chapters 7 and 8] There is evidence which shows that because we trusted each other, we were able to disagree with each other. Conflict in the HSS group was a positive force. It enabled an interchange of different views and triggered creative ideas that not have been triggered without the disagreement. This was evident in the conversations that took place on the design and implementation of an integrated HSS thematic approach; the debates that ensued in the constructivism workshop, and the question of standardized assessment tasks. Conflict within the group was encouraged. It was a mechanism that promoted debate and safeguarded individual creativity and thought from the potential danger of 'groupthink', that is, uncritical conformity to the group, which can emerge when collaboration is pushed to the extreme (Fullan, 1993:34). How, and why, was it significant in terms of happened in the intervention? [See Chapters 7 and 8]
Strong discipline-based knowledge enabled the teachers to work creatively with the new curriculum framework	The teachers were able to work creatively with the new framework because they had a strong discipline knowledge base. The social and educational context in which change took place influenced and shaped how policy was interpreted and transformed by the teachers. There is evidence in the intervention which supports the argument for deep subject knowledge if teachers are to adopt constructivist pedagogy (Richardson, 2004:1759). How, and why, was it significant in terms of happened in the intervention? [See Chapters 7 and 8]
Teachers are **not passive recipients** or simply implementers of someone else's curriculum.	The teachers, supported by me, made sense and interpreted change within their own frame of reference and the contextual realities in which they work. The intervention illuminated a dynamic and human process of meaning-making. It involved accessing information on change, developing a deep understanding of what, how and why change was necessary, and acquiring the skills and capacities for change. It involved interpreting and transforming policy in ways that were congruent with the teachers' beliefs and values. How, and why, was this significant? [See Chapters 7.8 and 9]

The approach taken to policy interpretation at the IEB's 'training' workshops was **narrow** and **prescriptive.**	While policy contained exciting possibilities for self-determination as evident in the teachers' curriculum development work, the approach taken by the IEB officials was narrow and procedural. Although it changed with time, it continued to emphasize procedural or technical knowledge. It militated against teacher agency and self-determination, and was counter to the ideals of democratic participation in education (as advocated by Bernstein, 1996). How, and why, was this significant in terms of what happened in the intervention?[See Chapters 7 and 9]
The professional development model enabled teacher learning that was **reflective and reflexive**.	Different strategies were used to develop the teachers' reflexivity. These included: the writing of reflections and conducting oral and written evaluations, conducting curriculum and assessment audits and reviews, engaging in focus group discussions, presenting seminars to colleagues and others, all of which encouraged ongoing critical inquiry (Carr, 1995:35) and continuous corrective action (Fullan, 1993:5).

An analysis of the trends and patterns summarised in Tables 6.1 to 6.3 reveals the following:

- the complex, recursive and multi-faceted process of change that accompanied assessment policy implementation
- the time and effort required, the type and depth of knowledge and level of skill development that was needed, for the meaningful and creative way in which policy was interpreted and implemented by the teachers
- the type of environment that is conducive to change
- the intended and unintended consequences of policy implementation in terms of what was taught and why it was taught (curriculum); how it was taught and assessed (pedagogy); how the teachers worked (social relationships), and teachers' roles (identity)
- the nature of a school-based intervention with an outside facilitator playing the role of mediator, guide, provoker and supporter of change processes
- a teacher professional development model that enabled and supported the teachers' acquisition of a deep knowledge of change and the skills to enact change meaningfully, and
- a collaborative and participatory approach to teacher professional development which promoted the development of critically reflective and reflexive practitioners who were able to engage pro-actively and productively with policy in a period of national educational transformation.

The findings are primarily process-orientated and point to the successful change process that took place as assessment policy was implemented in full in Grade 9 History and Geography at the two schools. While this was an important dimension of the intervention, equally important were the products of the intervention, which I elaborate on in Section 6.7.

The findings of the review, displayed in Tables 6.1 to 6.3, contain rich evidence that the intervention, when viewed through the conceptual framework of a "learning organisation" as developed by Senge (1990:14) and used by Fullan (1993:42), or a "professional learning community" (Hargreaves, 2002:394), produced an exemplary learning organisation, albeit at the micro-level of a small group rather than a whole school. The intervention contains examples of the lived experiences of effective change as described and advocated by Fullan (1993, 1999, 2002).

Graham-Jolly (2003:17) discusses "the eight lessons of the new paradigm of change" that according to Fullan (1999:18) are necessary for effecting successful change, in relation to the C2005 context. Graham-Jolly explains that his intention is "not to provide a recipe for change but to guide thinking and action", and to "locate [the meaning of the lessons] within the context of curriculum change in South Africa" (2003:107). His discussion, while insightful, is theoretical and lacking in empirical evidence. I believe the findings of this case study, as set out in this chapter, fill this gap by providing empirical evidence of what is possible in a South African context. Furthermore, there is evidence in the intervention to suggest that the appropriate assumptions for achieving meaningful change (Fullan, 2002:204) were made and that this contributed to the success of the intervention in terms of policy implementation. As a consequence, this intervention can lay claim to being a "critical case study" (Flyvbjerg, 2001:78).

Without detracting from the importance of the change process illuminated in this chapter, **because of the puzzling areas of obscurity which became apparent in the analysis of the change process (as identified in Tables 6.1 to 6.3), I decided to steer away from further analysis of the change process *per se.*** Several issues illuminated by the review had made me curious to find out more. I elaborate on this in Section 6.8, once I have reviewed the intervention in terms of its products and outcomes in the next section.

6.7 The findings of the review: Products and outcomes

Table 6.4 summarises the products and outcomes of the intervention. These are grouped in four categories. The table shows that the teachers and I, working collaboratively and independently, became producers of knowledge, both curriculum and pedagogical. This is evident in the curriculum and assessment documents that were generated, the research reports, the conference papers and the publications (see Case Record). Whereas at the IEB workshop at the start of the intervention, the teachers were cast as consumers of OBE curriculum knowledge (and ineffective ones at that), with time and experience they deepened their understanding and honed their skills to become creators and generators of curriculum and pedagogical knowledge.

All these products had an impact on the practice of both the teachers and myself, on our pedagogical relationship with our learners in our respective contexts, and on our relationship with the wider professional communities of which we are part.
Table 6.4 shows how I used the knowledge generated by the teachers to enhance my teaching in both in-service and pre-service teacher education courses at the university where I work. It also shows how the knowledge generated and applied by the teachers enhanced the quality of teaching, learning and assessment in their classrooms. Table 6.4 also shows that the products of the intervention had a positive spin-off for the schools, in that they were able to use the research reports as substantive evidence for quality assurance purposes as required by uMalusi, the quality assurance body overseeing the GET phase of formal schooling.

The products and outcomes of the intervention had positive benefits for the participants within the intervention, for their learners and for colleagues and others working within the official structures of the national system. The research reports and published articles that were linked to the reports provided a window on OBE assessment policy implementation, albeit in a specific context. Importantly, the products of the intervention provide evidence that the initial research goals were achieved. In particular, the GET assessment policy for Grade 9 was critiqued from within. This is significant given the dearth of research on assessment in the senior phase of C2005 (Muller, 2004:Chapter 4).

At the evaluation conducted by an outside evaluator, shortly before I withdrew from the schools in December 2003, the teachers were unanimous that they had benefitted as a result of participating in the intervention [CR 12]. When I interviewed them in June 2005, some 18 months after my withdrawal from the schools, the teachers were still unanimous about the benefits of the intervention [DF 100]. Whereas Table 6.4 lists the tangible products and outcomes, the teachers mentioned a number of less tangible and intangible but positive consequences for themselves, not necessarily at the Grade 9 GET level. These included:

- confidence and a sense of preparedness for the introduction of the new OBE curriculum for the Further Education and Training band of schooling (Grade 10 to 12) in 2006, and the introduction of a new Grade 12 FET assessment in 2008

- an application of the pedagogical principles modelled through the intervention both up and down the school system, that is, in Grade 8 and Grades 10 to 12, having enhanced teaching and learning in their subject areas [DF 94]

- playing a lead role in curriculum development at the two schools [DF 97]

- participating in conversations with the IEB about curriculum at the FET level. This included the writing of a proposal for assessment for the Grade 12 history enquiry [DF 94], and

- participating in national assessment processes through nominating one of the HSS group to be a member of a regional assessment group, and being accepted as examiners for the national Grade 12 examination.

Table 6.4: Products and outcomes of the intervention

	Outcome/product	Generated by	Used by and for what purpose	Who benefits
CURRICULUM	New OBE Geography curriculum	Geography Teachers	Teachers to update and rejuvenate Geography	Teachers and learners
	Modified OBE History curriculum	History Teachers	Teachers to advance curriculum development	Teachers and learners
ASSESSMENT	Improved, new and wider range of assessment tasks	Teachers	Teachers - to guide and support learning Lecturer - for teaching purposes (as exemplars in course materials)	Learners Pre-service and in-service teachers
	Criterion-referenced assessment sheets and rubrics	Teachers	Teachers - to guide and support learning; to initiate conversations about learning with their learners Lecturer - as exemplars in course materials Learners	Learners - explicit guidelines to support their learning Pre-service and in-service teachers
	Peer- and self- assessment sheets	Teachers	Lecturer -as exemplars in course materials	Learners - promotes metacognition and responsibility for learning Pre-service and in-service teachers
PEDAGOGY	Focus on learning and a shift towards learner-centred education, an interactive pedagogy with a wider range of activities than was the case previously	Teachers	Teachers and Learners	Learners more actively involved in the learning processes Teachers – more focus on learning and thinking processes

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURES	New organisational structures New management position	Inter-departmental collaboration created through the HSS group and weekly meetings HSS co-ordinator	History and Geography teachers – practice enriched through collaboration	
RESEARCH AND TEACHING	Conferences/ presentations	Teachers Lecturer and Geography teachers Lecturer	To share their curriculum experiences with colleagues at their and other independent schools To disseminate innovation in school geography To disseminate curriculum innovation	Teachers and schools The Geography Department and schools Lecturer
	Research Reports How and why was this significant? [See Chapters 7 and 9]	Lecturer and teachers	Lecturer – to document research intervention; to illuminate policy in practice Teachers – as a record and mirror to hold up to themselves. Lecturer - to disseminate research Teachers and schools – for quality assurance	Lecturer Teachers – documentary evidence of ‘good practice’ and effective implementation Curriculum and assessment developers at the DoE and IEB - feedback uMalusi (Quality Assurance Body)
	Publications	Lecturer	Lecturer to disseminate curriculum innovation Teachers to disseminate curriculum innovation	Lecturer – to strengthen her track record of publications Geog Dept/School – to raise their profile internationally
	Professional development workshops	Lecturer	Lecturer to enhance her practice	In-service & Pre-service teachers Namibia curriculum developers and examiners

6.8 Insights that emerged through the review

When I revisited the findings of the interpretive analysis of the intervention as displayed in this chapter, I realized that

- underpinning all the unresolved issues that were identified in Tables 6.1 to 6.3 and Table 6.4, was the key issue of the recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place through the intervention.

- The notion of teachers as recontextualisers of knowledge was at the nexus of the issues which had been illuminated by the review.

- Unresolved issues arising from the review, when sorted and categorized, pointed to two dimensions associated with the emergent theme of knowledge recontextualisation: the epistemological and pedagogical dimension and the political dimension.

- I realized that, as enlightening and insightful as the review had been, there remained questions to be answered. To engage with these would enable me to add another layer of meaning to the case study, as well as help me to understand its wider implications within the context of transformation in South African education.

- The richness of the study lay in resolution of the key issue of recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place through the intervention.

- In taking the decision to proceed in this direction, I found myself faced with the dilemma of having neither a conceptual nor a methodological map to follow.

In Chapter 7, I describe my struggle to find direction and identify a theoretical and methodological means to perform the analysis of knowledge recontextualisation that is presented in Chapters 8 and 9.

6.9 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter I have shed light on the complex process of policy interpretation and implementation in a particular school context at one level of the South African school system. More specifically, I have indicated:

- how I worked with the data generated through thick description in the various narrative accounts contained in the Data Files and Case Record to illuminate and interpretively review a school-based intervention which involved myself and a group of nine History and Geography teachers

- the recursive and interrelated change processes that unfolded and the patterns and trends that emerged as the intervention played out during the two years

- the consequences of the intervention in terms of what changed, how it changed and who benefited from the changes

- areas of anomaly and inconsistency that emerged in the findings and about which I was curious to find out more

- the key issue of knowledge recontextualisation as being the lynchpin of the entire analysis of the study. I have also

- indicated my intent to resolve the methodological and theoretical impasse in which I found myself by finding a way to a deep analysis of the emergent theme of knowledge recontextualisation.

Chapter 7 sets out the route that I navigated and the struggles that I encountered in my journey from the interpretive review in this chapter to the deep analysis in Chapters 8 and 9.

CHAPTER 7

THE ROUTE TO THE ANALYSIS OF KNOWLEDGE RECONTEXTUALISATION

> If we need to get somewhere we have never been before, someone who knows the way could take us. We might not, however, learn how to get there on our own. To help us learn to make the journey independently we can be supported by a map. We can learn to use maps independently and eventually the map might become internalized in our own minds; we have a mental map of how to make the journey. If, however, we want to make a new journey we need the support of a new map.
>
> Roberts (2003:33)

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to reveal how I escaped the theoretical and methodological impasse described in Chapter 6 and reached a point of vantage from which to attempt a more thorough understanding of the issue of knowledge recontextualisation in the intervention. In this chapter, I explain how:

- I realized how my interpretation of the intervention was shaped by Bernstein's idea of knowledge recontextualisation and his model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996), and that this was both a strength and weakness.

- Feedback from critical friends sharpened my insight into what had happened in the intervention and helped to confirm my sense of the direction in which I believed the research should move.

- I found a way of adapting Bernstein's theorizing to my situation.

- I worked with Bernstein's theory as both a heuristic and an analytical tool for generating insights into the issue of the knowledge recontextualisation that occurred in the intervention.

In order to do this, I adopt an approach in this chapter that is somewhat unusual but nevertheless appropriate, given the qualitative research design of the study. My approach is to explicate the psychological and intellectual processes involved in my personal journey of meaning-making. As stated in the methodology chapter (Chapter 5, Section 5.2), I am aware of the risk that self-exposure carries (including the danger of being perceived as self-indulgent), but regard it as a facet of the honesty that reflexivity entails. In this chapter, I reveal the messiness of doing qualitative research, the dilemma I faced, the support I received, the tools and strategies I used, and the action I took to resolve the dilemma. I illustrate how in confronting the research, I also confronted myself.

7.2 The dilemma

Looking back at the review of the intervention in Chapter 6, I realised that, in my naivety, I had not anticipated how difficult it would be to create the distance needed for critically analysing and making sense of a research process in which I had been so integrally involved. I allowed myself to be misled by the adage 'time lends perspective', believing that by taking up a vantage point of hindsight I would be able to create the detachment needed for making sense of the case. Chapter 6 bears testimony to the usefulness of this vantage point for synthesizing, and then identifying and interpretively analysing emerging patterns and trends.

However, as explained in Chapter 6, issues emerged in the course of the review that led to puzzlement and the uneasy feeling that there was more to the case than I had been able to identify. Looking back at the review, I realised that my reading of Bernstein (1990), despite being superficial, had nevertheless provided me with a new set of lenses. Although the field they revealed was still out of focus and a source of confusion rather than clarification, these lenses enabled me to catch a glimpse of the recontextualisation of knowledge that took place in the intervention. That is, they

helped me to signpost issues that I believed I needed to address in order to acquire a deep understanding of the case.

Although spatially and temporally removed from the case, I was still too emotionally close to it to appreciate the significance of the problematic areas illuminated in the review. I found myself in a state of stasis, paralysed by self-referentiality and blurred vision, unable to distanciate myself from the experience I was trying to interpret. I must stress that the difficulty I was experiencing was not one of detachment *per se* but rather of perspective and *distanciation*. At this point colleagues played an invaluable role in supporting my sense that pursuing Bernstein's theorisations would enable me to reach a vantage point from which to gain a thorough understanding of the case.

7.3 The "road to Bernstein"

In this section I retrace my journey to Bernstein, and explain how I built the road while simultaneously walking it, the different phases it involved, the encounters that took place with critical friends, and how the journey was enriched through my own conceptual meaning-making tools.

7.3.1 Encountering Bernstein

My reading of Bernstein's sociology of pedagogy (1990), in particular his theory of pedagogic discourse, started in 2002, when the intervention was in its inception phase. My acquaintance with Bernstein was first made serendipitously when I was browsing for literature on policy and assessment on the Sociology of Education shelves in our departmental library. While I had been introduced to his early work on code theory when reading for a bachelor's degree in education in the late 1980s, my work subsequent to this had not required further exploration of his theory.

Skimming as I did through Bernstein (1990) on that day in July 2002, I came across his model of a differential pedagogic field, and the notion of a social division of labour associated with knowledge production, recontextualisation and reproduction. I was fascinated by his ideas and model and, as explained in Chapter 6 (Section 6.4.2),

shared them with the teachers with the intention of clarifying, justifying and advocating the particular approach to professional development that I was using in the intervention [DF 38; RJ02, p.38]. However, because of my involvement in, and the intensity of, the unfolding research intervention, I did not then manage to find the time for an in-depth exploration of Bernstein's theory. It was only when I had withdrawn from the schools that my reading of Bernstein intensified, in 2004[39] and 2005.

There is evidence in my initial research design as described in my research proposal [DF 67], research reports [CR 6 & 7] and subsequent publication [CR 8], all of which were written during the intervention, which suggests that my understanding of Bernstein's model was superficial and naïve. I worked with it at the surface level of description to talk about the teachers' position in relation to the broader structures and functioning of the education system, and to strengthen my argument for teacher epistemological empowerment that was an explicit goal of the research intervention. I used Bernstein to support my argument that the new education framework, in particular C2005 and its associated GET assessment policy, contained opportunities for maximising learning, curriculum renewal, pedagogical enhancement and self-determination. However, for teachers to maximise the opportunities contained in policy, they needed to acquire a deep understanding of the new OBE curriculum framework and the skills necessary for designing and developing a curriculum based on their own, rather than someone else's, interpretation of policy. Recognition of the significance of Bernstein's theory in this was not altogether spontaneous. It required endorsement and reinforcement from critical friends, a subject that I discuss in the next section.

7.3.2 Encounters with critical friends

In March 2004 [DF 93], I gave a seminar to colleagues – all experienced researchers in the department where I work – who acted as "peer reviewers" (Lincoln & Guba

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[39] In July 2004, I was fortunate enough to attend a bi-annual Bernstein Symposium at Clare College, Cambridge University. The symposium is limited to 50 scholars from around the world who are currently working with Bernstein's theory. It was rich learning experience which helped to clarify certain misconceptions that I had, deepen my understanding of the corpus of Bernstein's life-long work, and point me in the direction I needed for further reading.

1985:247). Many had attended the seminar at which I presented my PhD research proposal. Using the two research reports [CF 6 & 7], and my crude ideas of Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field as our point of departure, we discussed what had emerged through the intervention.

At the seminar we discussed how the intervention, in documenting and describing in rich detail the process of policy implementation at one level of the school system, had opened a window on policy in practice. Of particular significance was the fact that the teachers in this study managed to achieve a full execution of assessment policy. As explained in Chapters 2 and 3, many studies on policy implementation have focused on the problems militating against a full execution of policy and the various deformations of policy interpretation that resulted. That the teachers managed to achieve a full implementation of the GET assessment policy in the window period of opportunity *before* the start of the GET certification process, was perceived as an indication of the value of the research intervention.

The research reports, in documenting as they did the full execution of national policy in two schools, served formative evaluation purposes. The reports identified and described the problems the teachers experienced and drew attention to areas of confusion and weakness, for example the GETC cluster group moderation process. The study, in providing feedback to curriculum and assessment developers at the DoE and IEB, can be seen to be critiquing assessment policy from within, as it were.

In spite of what was achieved in the intervention, through the seminar presentation and feedback received from critical friends my understanding of the significance of the study started to crystallize. I realized that the richness and potential of the study to contribute to, and deepen, our understanding of national educational transformation processes did not lie in its illumination of:

- the process of how teachers respond to policy
- the process of full execution of national policy at one level of the national system in two schools
- the nature and role of an intervention in support of the teachers' acquisition of knowledge and skill capacity for meaningful enactment of policy

- the curriculum and assessment innovation that this gave rise to, and
- the issues that emerged.

I realised, rather, that the richness and potential value of the study extended beyond the initial research goals listed above. It in fact lay in enhancing our **understanding of a dynamic and social process of policy recontextualisation,** that is, **'how' and 'why' the changes took place as they did.** More specifically, I realised that what had emerged from the intervention was that, for meaningful change to be achieved, teachers need to become recontextualisers of policy. This required the teachers to push the boundaries of their thinking and practice, reconstruct identities as extended professionals, that is, voiced political agents, and re-position themselves within the structure and functioning of the national education system. In taking the decision to pursue this, as opposed to assessment policy implementation *per se*, I was steering away from the initial course of the research.

The seminar, and the discussion with colleagues that flowed out of it, helped me to gain an 'outside' perspective from which I could 'see' and make sense of what had emerged in the data generated through thick description.

I realised how Bernstein's model (1990:184) had enabled me to understand that if teachers acquired a deep understanding of change, they would be able to re-position themselves as recontextualisers of knowledge in the pedagogic field. This would enable them to implement policy in a way that achieved the political goals of transformation, while avoid the potential dangers of the curriculum framework as identified by the Review Committee of C2005 and other research findings (as described in Chapters 2 and 3).

In spite of my shallow understanding of Bernstein, his model of knowledge recontextualisation helped to shape the way in which I interpreted what emerged in the findings of the review. I realised that it was my reading of Bernstein that had enabled me to recognise the puzzling areas of obscurity signposted in Chapter 6. Importantly, Bernstein's model made me realise that **if the case study was to achieve its potential for enhancing and extending our knowledge of curriculum change processes in South Africa, then I had to address the issues which I had identified**

in the review. It necessitated my generating insights for a thorough understanding of the case, thus adding another layer of analysis and meaning to the case study.

Herein lay a new challenge: how to create a new theoretical framework and a robust methodological structure that would enable me to generate an **understanding the dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that had taken place in the case study**. Linked with this challenge were new research questions, including:

- What was the nature of the meaning-making process that enabled the teachers to acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary for re-positioning themselves as recontextualisers of curriculum policy? What were the significant moments in the meaning-making process in terms of when and how knowledge recontextualisation took place? What was the nature of the model of professional development that enabled and supported recontextualisation? What lessons can be learned from the model of teacher professional development used in the study in relation to the type of model needed for achieving policy ideals in a period of educational transformation in South Africa?

- How did the teachers become recontextualisers of curriculum policy? What were the struggles associated with the re-positioning of the teachers as recontextualisers of policy? What lessons can be learned from the shifts in the teachers' position, authority and status that took place in the study in relation to what is needed for achieving the political ideal of educational transformation in South Africa? What conceptions of teachers are being produced through curriculum policy after apartheid? What can we learn about teacher identify and roles from what emerged in the case study? What can we learn about the relationship between teachers and the structures within which they work from what emerged in the case study?

7.3.3 Further encounters with critical friends

Of significance was further contact with critical friends which, unlike the seminar described above, was not a once-off event. Instead, it consisted of ongoing deliberations with my supervisors, colleagues and peers, the result of which was that I became aware of the catalytic role played by the participatory research approach I had used in the intervention. Many of these encounters took place during and after PhD weeks[40] held in our department in 2004/5. These occasions approximated the process of "peer examination" recommended by Lincoln & Guba (1985:243), and served to sharpen my methodological and theoretical insights. For instance, feedback helped me to grasp the implications of the co-engaged, participatory approach I had used in the research intervention. The process of co-engagement I had chosen had consequences that I had neither foreseen nor anticipated.

I came to realise that in adopting the particular research approach that I did, my understanding of it had been naïve. Although my intention had been to do research *with* the teachers rather than *on* them, in spite of the strategies I used to promote egalitarian power relationships, and my explicitness and honesty about what, how and why we were doing the things we were, the process had been driven by an intuition-sanctioned principle of negotiation and consensus, as opposed to a deep understanding of participatory research.

I had been inspired and guided by McTaggart (1997:31), who argues for PAR's capacity to improve one's practice and understanding, that is, to theorise practice. With hindsight, I realise that I did not take sufficient cognisance of the critical dimension of PAR as advocated by McTaggart (1997:31-34). This may have been due to the interpretive blinkers I was wearing. An explicit goal of the research was to promote change – that is, epistemological empowerment – among the teachers. Although I recognised that this did not exclude political empowerment (Prawat, 1993:757), I gave little thought to the implications of political empowerment,

[40] The PhD forum was a new innovation in the department where I work. Started in May 2004 by Prof Heila Lotz Sisitka and Prof Rob O'Donoghue, it involved a week of deliberations on Social Theory and Advanced Methodology three times a year. It provided a forum for PhD students from different disciplines to deliberate on research issues and share their research dilemmas [DF 93, 94].

particularly in terms of teachers' authority and status within the broader structure and functioning of the education system.

Through my deliberations with critical friends, I became aware that the participatory approach of co-engagement I had adopted and intuitively applied had been the enabling mechanism for the meaningful and creative recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place in the intervention. It had also been the catalyst for the epistemological empowerment that was intended in the initial research goals, and for the unintended political empowerment that had taken place.

At a fundamental level, the participatory research orientation modelled the pedagogical process informing South African educational transformation processes. As such, the intervention, in illuminating what this pedagogy might look like when implemented in the form and spirit intended by policy, provides evidence suggesting that PAR is a powerful mechanism for effecting transformation.

Once again, I realised that the richness of this study lay not in the knowledge generated through the thick description of what policy looked like in practice. Rather, the richness of the study lay in its potential to **deepen and extend our understanding of the social process of knowledge recontextualisation** that took place in the intervention**.**

7.3.4 The use of conceptual meaning-making tools

There is evidence in the review (Chapter 6) that I drew on my cultural capital in using metaphors derived from geography, in particular from plate tectonics[41], to make sense of what happened in the intervention. I justified my use of metaphor as a conceptual meaning-making tool in the methodology chapter (Chapter 5, Section 5.8.2). Metaphor enabled me to visualise and conceptualise the introduction of a new educational framework through national policy implementation, in this case C2005 and the GET assessment, as a complex and evolving process of change. This is

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[41] See, for example, Strahler (1975:Chapter 23); March & Dozier (1981:Chapter 23); Waugh, 1994: Chapter 14).

illustrated in Figure 7.1, a simplified representation of the complex process of curriculum knowledge recontextualisation that took place in the intervention. It shows how metaphor enabled me to generate a descriptive language for talking about, and communicating, my understanding of the recontextualisation process that had taken place in the intervention.

Figure 7.1 shows how, when two distinct plates are forced into collision, one starts to override the other. The movement disturbs the boundaries that demarcate and separate the two plates. The concept boundary as used here refers to a real or imaginary line that distinguishes one plate from another. It marks the point of discontinuity or difference between one plate and another. With the movement of the one plate over the other, the existing boundaries are disturbed and rendered unstable. A zone of instability in the area of overlap arises. The collision of the plates unleashes huge amounts of energy, both negative and positive. It sets in motion dynamic and complex processes the nature of which is both degenerative and generative, destructive and constructive – a breaking down, crumbling and disintegration of attributes distinguishing one plate from the other – a kind of 'melting' along the edges of both plates, and a reconfiguration, metamorphosis or transformation of what was into something new and original.

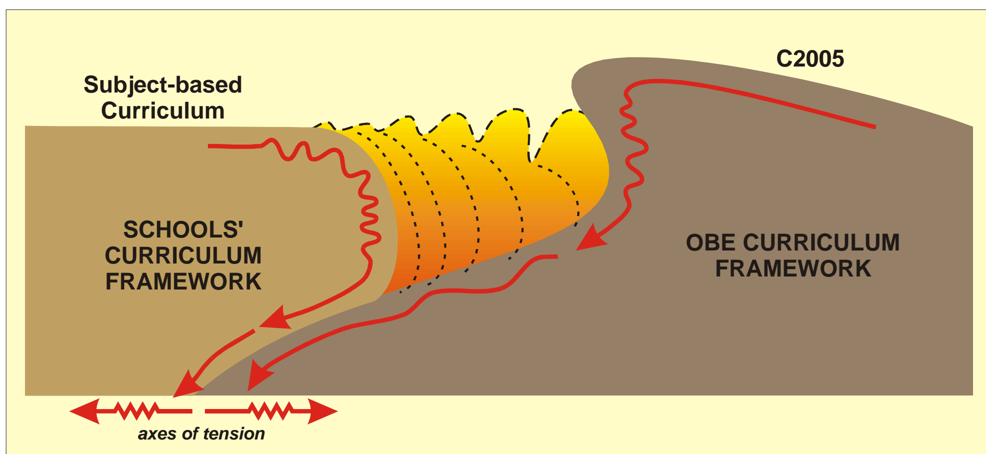

Figure 7.1: The zone of knowledge recontextualisation

Applied to the intervention, the metaphor helped me to understand:

- the dynamic interplay that occurred between the traditional, discipline-based curriculum framework at the schools and the new outcomes-based C2005 framework. The overriding of the existing by the new was triggered by the implementation of assessment policy. In the process of overlaying, opposed curriculum forces (discipline-based subjects versus integrated learning area) collided head-on. Similarly, assessment policy brought into contact the dominant teacher-centred, individual learning pedagogy in history and geography, and the activity-based, learner-centred and group-regulated pedagogy of C2005;

- that in implementing as they did assessment policy, the teachers were forced to push the boundaries of their own thinking and practices, and navigate a way through various axes of tension caused by frictional forces in the zone of instability caused by the new educational framework overriding the existing;

- the significance of boundaries as constructs demarcating and separating different groups or categories (in this case curriculum and pedagogy): how policy implementation forced the teachers to push the boundaries of their thinking and ways of doing and being; and how, by acquiring an understanding of the attributes that distinguished what existed on either side of the boundary, the teachers were able to recontextualise policy in such a way that they maximized the opportunities for self-determination offered by the policy;

- how in recontextualising policy as they did, the teachers first had to be aware of and understand their own educational beliefs and theories, many of which had been implicit, and how these shaped their practices, in order to appreciate the boundaries of the new education framework. Secondly, they had to work within the various axes of tension created by their orientation to curriculum and pedagogy and that of the new OBE policy framework. The intervention provided counter-evidence to the binary view of change associated with the 'paradigm shift' that is dominant in official curriculum documents (Lotz-

Sisitka & Janse Van Rensberg, 2000:51). The findings suggest that change took place within a continuum, each end of which represents an extreme position. In other words, the intervention provided evidence of a relational rather than dualistic or binary view of change. This is illustrated, for example, in the way in which the teachers navigated through the axes of tension created by a traditional discipline-based subject curriculum with strong boundaries at one end, and an integrated learning area curriculum in which subject boundaries are blurred, at the other end. It had not been a case of relinquishing the old in favour of the new. Quite the contrary, the findings suggest that it was a complex and ongoing struggle that involved pushing boundaries and establishing new ones *within* the axis of tension created by the two opposed orientations.

A review of the findings of Chapter 6 reveals that the teachers navigated a way through axes of tension in three distinct but interrelated arenas: curriculum, pedagogy and teacher professionalism. As is evident in the tensions listed below, there were implications for the teachers' ways of thinking and doing (their practices) and their ways of being (their values, roles and identity).

In terms of curriculum, they worked within the following tensions:

- their liberal humanist ideological tradition and belief in the intrinsic value of knowledge, and C2005's dominant utilitarian and social reconstructivist ideology and instrumental view of knowledge as serving broader political and economic needs;

- the teachers' beliefs about what constitutes valid and worthwhile knowledge, and C2005's relativist view of knowledge as socially constructed and contested;

- the teachers' emphasis on rigour and scientific knowledge, and C2005's emphasis on everyday knowledge and a commonsense experience of the world;

- the organization of knowledge as discipline-based with discrete subjects, and C2005's integrated, learning area approach, and

- the fluidity created by the co-existence of C2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement, and the rigidity created by the way policy was interpreted by the various guideline documents and the IEB officials.

In the pedagogical arena, the teachers worked within the tensions between:

- teacher-centred, and learner-centred pedagogy;

- an implicit pedagogy, and explicit outcomes-driven pedagogy;

- covering content and the product of learning, and focused on the process of learning, involving learners in the process through developing their metacognitive skills;

- didactic, and enquiry-based, question-led approaches;

- coherence between and within what is taught and learned, and C2005's lack of coherence and progression;

- depth and breadth of coverage of content

- an emphasis on learning regulated by the individual, and an emphasis on group regulated learning;

- a narrow and broad repertoire of assessment tasks;

- teacher choice of assessment tasks and state prescription;

- standardized and non-standardized assessments;

- teacher assessment and peer/self- assessment procedures;

- assessment as a catalyst for loosening up and enabling change in a previously tight content-driven curriculum, and assessment as a form of state surveillance and control;

- assessment primarily for internal accountability purposes (assessment as a means of improving and supporting learning and raising standards), and assessment for external accountability purposes (as a form of monitoring and policing teachers implementation of the new education framework).

In the professional teacher development[42] arena, they had to deal with the tensions between:

- working with their pupils in a didactic way, with power and control vested in the teacher, and working in a more interactive, collaborative way in which egalitarian power relationships are promoted;

- working as an individual, and working as member of a group inter- and intra-departmentally;

- making decisions as an individual, and being part of group decision-making process;

- gaining enjoyment and stimulation from new ideas and the trialing of new practices, and being overwhelmed or disillusioned by change;

- giving constructive criticism, and being the recipient of constructive criticism;

- being valued and trusted as a professional to make decisions about classroom matters including assessment, and not being trusted to make decisions (being told what to);

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[42] I generated these categories by adapting those used by Rawling (2001:99).

- being a curriculum and assessment designer and Learning Support Materials developer, and relying on that already created by the syllabus or textbook;

- being part of and being willing to participate in wider education forums, and not seeing oneself as part of or needing to participate;

- making a valued contribution to discussions in one's subject at different levels of the system, and not making a contribution;

- believing in the potential value of professional development for personal enhancement, and seeing professional development as an additional demand on time;

- enhancing one's learning through interactions with outsiders and not learning through interactions with outsiders;

- engaging in ongoing critical inquiry, reflecting on and justifying one's ideas and actions to others, and not reflecting on and having to justify one's ideas and actions to others;

- professional autonomy and self-determination, and state regulation and control;

- time for innovation and developmental work, and time for administrative work for the education bureaucracy, and

- being flexible and adaptable, and inflexible and unwilling to adapt.

By using the metaphor, I was able to generate insight into'what' happened in the intervention in terms of the overlaying of the new education framework on the status quo at the schools, the axes of tension that this gave rise to and the dynamic interplay that resulted between the old orthodoxy and the new. More importantly, it provided me with a descriptive language for talking about the process of knowledge recontextualisation that took place in the intervention.

The metaphor did not, however, enable me to gain an understanding of how these struggles played out in the various arenas identified above, or how the teachers acquired knowledge of the distinguishing attributes and boundaries both of their own practice and of the new policy. This came only after further in-depth reading of Bernstein, which enabled me to work with his ideas and model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996) at a deeper analytical level. It allowed me to escape the trap of self-referentiality that I had fallen into through reliance on a geographical metaphor which, as explained above, was useful but limited in terms of the insights it was able to generate.

7.4 Theoretical framework

In this section I explain and justify how I worked with Bernstein's theory (1990, 1996) at two levels, which involved:

- Bernstein's **model of the pedagogic field** and **theory of knowledge recontextualisation** (1990, 1996) which I used as a heuristic to interpret and understand *what* happened in the intervention in terms the process of knowledge recontextualisation, and the teachers' positioning and functioning within a differential field of production in which there is a social division of labour.

- **principles** and key **concepts** underpinning Bernstein's theory (1990, 1996) which I used as analytical tools to generate insights for understanding *how* and *why* the re-positioning happened as it did, and the consequences this had for teacher empowerment, both political and epistemological.

Working as I did in the two ways identified above, I was able to shift from a descriptive and 'surface' level to a deeper level of analysis, where I was able to engage with the structure and inner logic of the act of recontextualising, and the issues of power and control associated with that act. I elaborate on these dimensions in the next section.

7.4.1 Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field and theory of recontextualisation

Table 7.1summarises Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996). It shows how the pedagogic field consists of a series of categories arising from a social division of labour. These categories are functionally specialised according to the different fields and specialised agents working within these fields, and their respective practices. The latter consists of activities and processes.

According to Bernstein the model shows the "three crucial interrelated contexts of educational discourse, practice and organisation" associated with the educational system (1990:59). The significance of the three contexts, in particular of that pertaining to the recontextualisation of knowledge, and the relations of the various agents and agencies and activities within these contexts, are discussed below.

Table 7.1: Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field

Context	Field	Features of field	Processes
PRIMARY	Production	The intellectual field of the educational system consisting of research groups and individuals	New ideas and specialised discourses are selectively created, modified and changed and a process of primary contextualization
RECONTEXTUALISING	Recontextualising	Consists of two sub-fields: - the official, which includes specialized departments of the State and local education authorities, and bureaucracy; - the pedagogic, which includes university and polytechnic departments of education, colleges, specialized media of education and publishers, NGOs	The recontextualising process delocates, transforms and relocates the texts/practices. It is concerned with the movement (transmission) of the texts/practices; regulates the circulation of texts from the primary to secondary contexts.
SECONDARY	Reproduction	The various levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary), agencies, positions and practices involved in the reproduction of discourse	It is concerned with reproducing and acquiring the texts and practices

Table 7.1 shows that in the primary context, new ideas and theories are created, modified and changed through a process of primary contextualisation. Within this context, an intellectual field is created in which specialised discourses are developed, modified and changed. The activities or processes taking place in this field are those of knowledge production. The secondary context structures the field of reproduction, which consists of four levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary), as well as other agencies, positions and practices in which educational discourse is reproduced.

Between the primary context of production and the secondary context of reproduction, Bernstein places a recontextualising context. This structures a field whose positions, agents and practices are concerned with the movement of texts and practices constituting pedagogic discourse from the field of production to the field of reproduction.

As shown in Table 7.1 the recontextualising context consists of two distinct fields, each with a number of sub-fields. The field of official recontextualisation (ORF) consists of official State and provincial education agencies and agents. The field of pedagogic recontextualisation (PRF) consists of agents and agencies drawn from various non-state/official sub-fields, including university education departments, teacher training colleges and polytechnic departments of education, and specialized education media – for example journals, publishing houses and learning support materials developers.

The field of recontextualising is concerned with the appropriation and delocation of texts and practices from the field of production, and their transformation and relocation in the field of reproduction. In this process the text is altered. Bernstein explains that it changes its position in relation to other texts, practices and positions; it is modified by selection, simplification, condensation and elaboration; and it is repositioned and refocused. Bernstein argues that the "principle of decontextualising" – that is, the appropriating and delocating of the text from the primary context of production – regulates the new ideological positioning of the text in the reproduction field (1990:61-62).

Once the text is relocated in the reproduction field, it undergoes further transformation as various agents recontextualise and reposition it further. Bernstein contends that it is crucial to understand how the two processes of transformation of the text differ (1990:61). He explains that the first process involves recontextualisation of the **primary** text within the recontextualising field, whilst the second involves the transformation of a "**transformed text**" (emphasis mine) in the interactional pedagogical process involving agents working within the field of reproduction and acquisition. He is emphatic that *"it is the recontextualising field which generates the positions and oppositions of pedagogic theory, research and practice"* [italics in the original] (1990:62). The significance of this proposition to the process of recontextualisation that took place in the research intervention cannot be emphasized enough, particularly in terms of the teachers' epistemological empowerment. This is explored in Chapter 8. I shift now to an examination of the principles underpinning Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field and theory of recontextualisation.

Bernstein's model, used as a heuristic grid, provided me with a spatial, locational and interactional perspective on pedagogy, that is, the transmission and acquisition of knowledge from its primary context of production to its secondary context of reproduction. It illuminated and helped me to understand:

- the different categories, their agents and agencies and specialised activities in relation to the social division of labour;
- the position and function of the teachers in this study in relation to the structure of the pedagogic field in which there is a social division of labour, and the re-positioning that took place in the intervention;
- the relations between the categories in the pedagogic field, that is, the teachers and me and the IEB officials as agents working within the PRF and ORF respectively, and
- the various processes involved in the movement or communication of knowledge or pedagogic discourse consisting of texts and practices, through the system from its source of production to its sites of acquisition.

Useful as it was in providing a spatial and location perspective, the model did not provide insights necessary for understanding *how* and *why* the teachers managed to re-position themselves as recontextualisers of knowledge, or the struggles it involved

and the consequences it had in terms of teacher empowerment, both political and epistemological, that had taken place.

With further reading, I realised that the principles underpinning Bernstein's theory held the key to a deep understanding of the case, in particular, the principles of classification and framing – linked to notions of power and control – which Bernstein uses to describe the relationship between the various categories of production in the model of the pedagogic field, and within its agents, discourses, and practices (Bernstein 1996:101).

7.4.2 Principles underpinning Bernstein's theory and model

In this section, I outline the fundamental principles of Bernstein's theory (1990, 1996) on which the model of a pedagogic field rests. These enabled me to work at a deeper analytical level in order to understand the inner logic of his model. In the discussion that follows, I explicate and describe the principles underpinning his model of the pedagogic field. From the outset, it should be noted that these principles are fundamental to the entire corpus of Bernstein's theory, and that latterly he has used the notion of fields more broadly to distinguish between the economic field of production (the market), the political (state) and the field of symbolic control (Bernstein, 2000). Muller (2000:Chapter 1) uses the model of the pedagogic field to provide a critical commentary on knowledge construction and reconstruction. I work with Bernstein's model in a narrower way to understand the primary and subsequent transformations or recontextualisations of curriculum and assessment policy text that took place in the study.

Bernstein (1990:22) argues that education has a social basis that is structurally similar to that of production. Irrespective of whether the focus is objects as in production or discourses as in education, he contends that there is a social division of labour. This means that in the production and reproduction of educational discourse, "we have sets of specialised categories (agents and discourses) and sets of specialised practices (pedagogy)" (1990:23). His model illustrates how this principle translates into the field of educational policy production.

Bernstein contends that categories constitute the "voice" and practices the "message" of educational discourse, and that the message is always a realisation of the voice. Practices are seen as realisations of the categories, which means that the form taken by the practices – that is, the extent to which practices are specialised to categories – depends upon the relation between the sets of categories (1990:23). This means that once categories are specialised, their practices are specialised. If categories of either agents or discourses are specialised, it means that each category has its own specific identity and its own boundaries. If the specificity of each category is to be maintained, then, there needs to be insulation between the categories (Bernstein 1990:23).

Insulation is thus the key to ensuring that relations between categories remain intact. Strong insulation gives rise to the principle of strong classification, in terms of which the boundaries between two categories are stable and clearly demarcated, the functions well insulated from each other, and the agents not interchangeable (Bernstein 1990:49). Conversely, weak classification means that the boundaries are fuzzy or blurred, there is less insulation between functions, and agents are more interchangeable between categories.

Bernstein uses the principle of classification to describe the strength of the insulation that exists within and between categories. The former refers to the horizontal dimension of classification, or internal classification, which is the relation between members within a given category. The second is the vertical dimension, known as the external classification, which refers to agents who are members of different categories. The vertical dimension may, but does not necessarily, create a hierarchical ordering, or ranking, of the relationship between categories (1990:35).

Bernstein explains that the degree of insulation is not static. As the strength of the insulation between categories varies, so will the categories vary in their relation to each other (as will, also, their space, identity and 'voice'). He contends that the degree of insulation is thus a crucial regulator of the relations between categories and the specificity of their voices (1990:24). According to him, if the insulation changes its strength, the category relations change. If the "insulation is broken, then a category is in danger of losing its identity because what it is, is the space between it and another category" (Bernstein 1996:20).

Bernstein argues that insulation and the space between categories is preserved by power. According to him, power relations are linked to the spatial principle of location. This means that they "create boundaries, legitimise boundaries, reproduce boundaries" between different categories of groups, discourses and agents, and within a category (1996:19). He explains that a boundary is the relationship between categories, and that the dominant power relationship establishes the boundary relationship between the categories. He uses the principle of classification to describe the relationship between the categories.

Classification principles, as boundary rules, establish the specific recognition rules whereby a context, agent or discourse is distinguished and given its position with respect to other contexts, agents and discourses. Classification is thus associated with location and position and ranking. It regulates the spatial ordering or orientation and the forms of the realisation. As such, it is linked to the notion of power. A change in classification is a threat to the integrity and coherence of the agent or discourse of a given category, for example, curriculum. According to Bernstein, an attempt to change the degree of insulation between any categories or within any category, exposes the power relation on which the insulation is based and which it reproduces (1996:21). Power relations regulate principles of classification by maintaining or changing degrees of insulation between categories. Power relationships position subjects through the principles of classification that they establish (1996:101). Bernstein claims that any attempt to change the classification requires a change in the degree of insulation, and will provoke the boundary maintainers to restore the principle of classification and themselves as dominant agents. In order to do this, they must have the power as well as circumstances that enable them to exert it.

Whereas power relations thus determine and regulate the position of categories and agents in relation to one another, control "establishes legitimate forms of communication appropriate to the different categories" and "control carries the boundary relation of power and socialises individuals into these relationships" (1996:19). While power relations establish the voice, that is, the 'what' of a category, it does not determine the message (the 'how' or practice) (1990:24).

The principle of framing refers to "the locus of control over the selection, sequencing, pacing and criteria of the knowledge to be acquired" (Bernstein 1996:101). Strong framing is when control rests with the teacher, weak framing when it lies with the learner. Like classification, framing also has two dimensions: an internal and external. The former refers to the internal strength of control within any given pedagogic context, while the latter refers to the external strength of control between different pedagogic contexts. Changes in the variations of framing result in changes in pedagogic practices, that is, the 'message'. Whereas classification establishes the recognition rules, that is 'what' and 'who' (pedagogic discourses and agents) counts as legitimate, framing establishes the realisation rules, that is the 'how' (the pedagogic practices) (Bernstein 1996:101; 1990:35).

Bernstein argues that there is a dynamic relation between voice and message, that is between 'who' and 'what' counts as legitimate, according to the principle of classification, recognition rules and the locational principle, and how these are realised in practice according to the principle of framing, realisation rules and the interactional principle. The relation involves the former limiting the latter, and the latter being a source of change of the former and of itself (Bernstein 1990:35).

I have described how the model of the pedagogic field has as its basis the social division of labour. I have explained the significance of insulation, and the principle of classification and framing in relation to the notion of power and control. Importantly, once I understood the principles on which Bernstein's theory of recontextualisation and model of the pedagogic field rests, I realized that I had:

- a heuristic grid for viewing and making sense of the positioning and re-positioning of teachers as recontextualisers of knowledge that took place through the intervention, and

- an analytical tool and rich descriptive language with a strong grammar (that is a rule bound, conceptual structure) apposite to understanding how and why the teachers recontextualised knowledge as they did, and the consequences this had in terms of the empowerment, both epistemological and political, that took place in the intervention.

Importantly, I recognized that by working with Bernstein's ideas as described above, I would be able to create a conceptual bridge and acquire the descriptive language that I believed were necessary in order to connect the micro-level or local happenings of the case study to macro-level changes in educational ideas and dominant values in the education system (Goodsen, 1994:113).

I have provided evidence of how (to have recourse to another geographical metaphor), by building and travelling the Bernstein road, which I have mapped in this section, I was able to reach a vantage point needed for generating insights that would provide a deep understanding of the case (see Chapters 8 and 9).

7.5 Synthesis of the insights generated in this chapter

In this chapter, I have described the dilemma I faced when confronted by the many fascinating issues that emerged as a result of my reviewing the intervention from a position of hindsight and detachment. Secondly, I explained the role played by Bernstein (1990) in providing me with lenses that enabled me to see a link between the sources of puzzlement that I had identified and the concept of knowledge recontextualisation. Thirdly, I explained how, with support and affirmation from critical friends, and utilising my own conceptual-making tools, I built a road to Bernstein – that is, I returned to his work and engaged more intimately with his ideas. This enabled me to advance in my journey to a vantage point that would enable me to gain the insights I needed for a deep understanding of how and why knowledge recontextualisation happened as it did in the intervention, and of the consequences it had for teacher empowerment, both political and epistemological.

As a result of the encounters and explorations described in this chapter, I was able to generate the following insights:

The research, which started out as a case study on outcomes-based assessment policy implementation in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences, had in fact moved beyond its

initial goals. In implementing the GET assessment policy in full, and describing, documenting and providing various educational authorities with feedback on:

- how teachers responded to national assessment policy
- the type of support they needed to develop the deep understanding necessary for meaningful enactment of policy
- what policy looked like in practice, and
- the issues and problems associated with assessment that emerged,

the intervention had exemplified the process that is necessary for change to be implemented in the spirit and form intended by policy. It illuminated a dynamic and complex process of meaning-making in which the following emerged:

- The extent to which teachers respond to change in a positive and meaningful way depends on the degree of recontextualisation that occurs within the change process, and that an environment conducive to recontextualisation is essential.

- The intervention illuminated a complex and multi-dimensional change process, characterised by continuity and discontinuity, that took place as a result of the imposition or overlaying of the new assessment policy (and by association the new OBE framework) on the stable environment at the two schools. The movement of the new over the old disturbed and rendered fragile the boundaries demarcating the educational framework at the schools.

- In recontextualising policy, the teachers had to navigate a way through axes of tension created by the opposed forces of their existing curriculum, and assessment and pedagogic framework, and the new. It meant pushing the boundaries of their thinking and practice in terms of 'what' was being taught (curriculum) and 'how' it was being taught and assessed (pedagogy). Secondly, boundaries demarcating teachers' roles and functioning within the structure of the educational system were disturbed. Thirdly, boundaries demarcating social relationships between individual teachers, between the teachers intra- and inter-departmentally, and between the teachers and the

broader education system, the latter being represented by the IEB, were disturbed.

- In recontextualising policy, the teachers' individual and group culture was rendered unstable and fragile. In the midst of the instability arising from and associated with boundary disturbance, there was increased porosity and the opening up of spaces which had previously not existed. These spaces provided the opportunities for professional and curriculum renewal and innovation that happened in the intervention. Importantly, it was in these spaces, amidst the struggles and tensions associated with the overlaying of the new framework on the existing, and through a creative and dynamic human process, that the teachers were able to recontextualise policy. It involved the disintegration and, in some instances, the destruction of the existing; a metamorphosis and reconfiguring of thinking and practice. The latter processes were generative, sometimes rapid and instant, but usually slow and evolving.

- In recontextualising policy as they did, the teachers successfully navigated their way through the axes of tension created by the opposed forces of the old orthodoxy and the new. This meant that they were able to work creatively and meaningfully within the various axes of tension, maximizing opportunities for self-determination and self-definition as contained in policy.

The process of co-engagement I chose had consequences which I neither foresaw nor anticipated. These were as follows:

- Through the participatory process of co-engagement around a shared concern, namely interpreting and implementing the GET Grade 9 assessment policy, the teachers and I simultaneously, albeit differently, became producers and recontextualisers of curriculum knowledge. They produced knowledge about curriculum change through their assessment tasks, rubrics, etc., and I produced knowledge of curriculum change processes and a professional model which enabled them to effect meaningful change.

- Through the participatory process, and my intuitive approach of negotiating[43] along the way, the teachers' knowledge base of the epistemology and pedagogy underpinning the new policy framework grew from a generally low level to a higher level, and, with time and experience, their confidence increased. This enabled them to move from a position of dependence to one of inter-dependence and finally independence and self-determination. This is borne out by the following comment in the external evaluator's report on the research intervention: "The teachers grew in confidence and were able to 'cut the umbilical cord' and initiate their own meetings to discuss teaching and learning issues" [CR 12, p.5].

- The process of co-engagement had a catalytic effect. As a result of the collaborative writing of two research reports, a conference paper and a published article, the teachers became co-owners of the research process and products.

- The reports, intended as "a mirror for the team to hold up to themselves" (CR 7, p.ii), took on a new significance once they entered the public arena. Without realising it at the time, the submission of the reports to the IEB enabled the teachers to create a voice. Thus the participatory co-engagement had political as well as epistemological consequences. In documenting, with substantive evidence, their interpretation and implementation of policy, the teachers became voiced political agents.

In summary, the two most important insights were the following:

- The intervention had provided an exemplar of the process that is necessary for change to be implemented in the spirit and form intended by policy. It illuminated a dynamic and complex process of meaning-making. The richness and potential value of the research lay in enhancing our understanding of a

[43] My approach to teacher education, as described in Chapter 4, suggests a leaning towards facilitation based on a tacit knowledge about teacher professional development. My course outlines and publications provide further evidence of my intuitive facilitatory approach to teacher professional development.

dynamic and social process of knowledge recontextualisation, that is, in illuminating the meaning-making process necessary for knowledge recontextualisation.

- The participatory approach of co-engagement that I had adopted and intuitively applied had been the enabling mechanism for the meaningful and creative recontextualisation of curriculum knowledge. The richness and potential value of the research lay in enhancing our understanding of how teachers can re-position themselves as recontextualisers of curriculum knowledge within the structure and functioning of the national system.

Further, I have explained how, by making use of a geographical metaphor, I was able to generate insight into:

- the recontextualisation taking place in the zone of instability created by the overlaying of the new framework on the *status quo*

- how spaces that previously did not exist opened up because familiar boundaries were disturbed

- change as a complex process involving disintegration, reconfiguring and metamorphosis, and reconstruction

- the arenas and axes of tension through which the teachers had to navigate in order to reposition themselves as recontextualisers in the pedagogic field.

By exploring and developing my understanding of the principles underpinning Bernstein's theory of recontextualisation and model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996), I realised that I had evolved:

- the heuristic grid I needed for viewing and making sense of how and why the teachers were able to re-position themselves within the recontextualising field, and

- the conceptual tools and descriptive language I needed for analysing, understanding, and talking about how and why the teachers recontextualised knowledge as they did, the boundaries they crossed, the power relations they disturbed and the rules they used.

Importantly, using the conceptual lenses of an external authority, I was myself able to reach an external vantage point from which to analyse the recontextualisation of knowledge that took place in the study. The conceptual lenses provided me with a conceptual framework and descriptive language that enabled me to talk about the specific happenings of the case in a more generalised, abstract and context-independent way, thus linking the micro-level of policy implementation to the macro-level of the national system and policy process (as is evident in Chapters 8 and 9).

7.6 The map to the analysis

As a result of the various processes, encounters, and explorations described in this chapter, and guided by the insights that were generated, I was able to create a map of the journey I had taken to reach a vantage point for understanding the recontextualisation of knowledge that happened in the study.

Figure 7.2 illustrates shows how the teachers and I came together at an IEB workshop at which the teachers collided head-on with OBE curriculum and assessment discourse and the IEB official. This triggered a partnership of participatory co-engagement around a shared concern, the result of which was that the teachers, supported by me, had an outcomes-based policy experience. The diagram shows how, in implementing assessment policy, the teachers had to navigate their way through the axes of tension created by the imposition of a new educational framework on that which existed in history and geography at their schools.

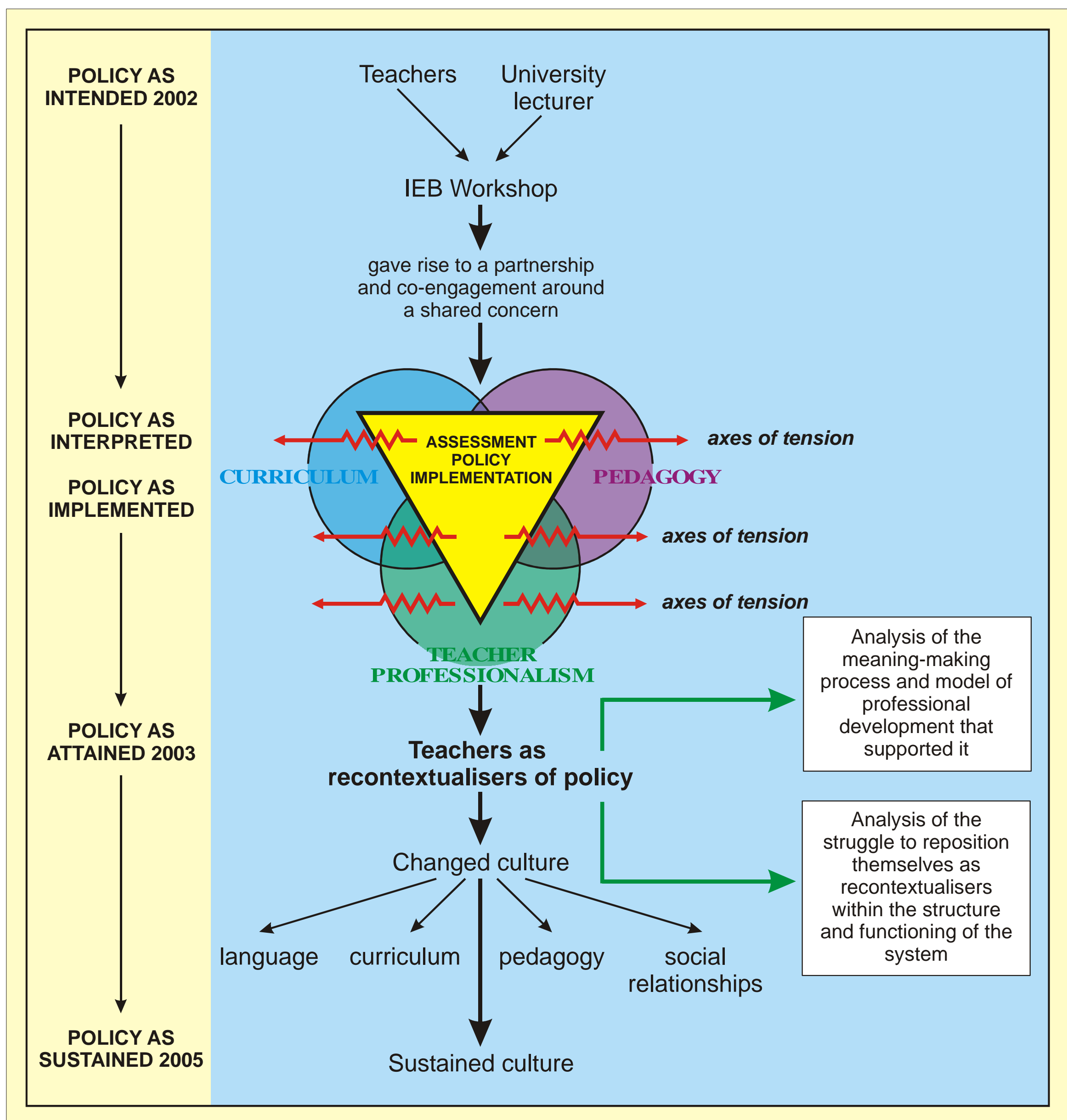

Figure 7.2: Mapping the route to the analysis

Figure 7.2 illustrates how, in implementing assessment policy, the teachers had to navigate a way through axes of tension in the overlapping and interconnected arenas of curriculum, pedagogy and teacher professionalism. Figure 7.2 helps us to understand the context in which there was a dynamic interplay between the opposed forces of the teachers' education framework and the new education framework. It illustrates how, through a dynamic social process of meaning-making, the teachers managed to navigate their way through these arenas with their inherent tensions, and how this enabled them to become recontextualisers of knowledge. Figure 7.2 shows that in becoming as they did knowledge recontextualisers, the teachers generated

certain consequences for their culture. These involved changes in the way in which the teachers conceptualised and spoke about their practice, the History and Geography curriculum at the two schools, their pedagogical approach and relationship with their learners, and their social relationships with one another, with their colleagues in other schools and with officials at the IEB.

The left-hand column in Figure 7.2 illustrates the policy process (Tayler, Muller & Vinjevold, 2003:161) that took place parallel to the intervention. It helps us to understand the movement of policy that took place in the intervention – from policy as 'intended' at the workshop, to policy as 'interpreted' and 'implemented' by the teachers, and 'attained' by the Grade 9 learners in the two schools. I have added the category 'policy as sustained' which I believe will help us to understand the extent to which the changes that took place in the intervention were deep changes (Fullan, 1993:5).

Figure 7.2 sketches the journey that was undertaken by the teachers in order to become recontextualisers of knowledge, and it signposts the two dimensions of the empowerment that took place during the recontextualisation process. These are as follows:

In terms of epistemological empowerment:

- an analysis of the meaning-making process that enabled the teachers to empower themselves epistemologically through the acquisition of a deep understanding of, and the skills for applying, the new policy framework, the consequence of which was that they became recontextualisers of knowledge; the significant moments in the meaning-making process when recontextualisation took place, and the model of professional development that supported it.

In terms of political empowerment:

- an analysis of the teachers' struggle to re-position themselves as recontextualisers of knowledge within the structure and functioning of the national education system.

These dimensions are the foci of the analysis of knowledge recontextualisation in Chapters 8 and 9.

7.7 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter I have taken what may be considered an unusual detour. But there were good reasons for doing so: first, the chapter enabled me to shed light on the methodological struggles I faced because of a fundamental disjuncture in the study as a result of its two-part research design, and on the actions that were taken to resolve the resultant dilemmas. As such, the chapter provides a critical commentary on the difficulty of working productively within the tension of being both an active participant in and researcher of the same study.

Secondly, I have described the strategies and activities that were involved in the process of my own meaning-making. I have illuminated what peer examination and peer review, frequently proposed in the literature on qualitative research, look like in practice. There is evidence suggesting that they are powerful strategies for overcoming the methodological difficulty of gaining perspective and direction for the analysis.

Thirdly, the chapter has made visible the dynamic and social process of meaning-making that was involved in my struggle for an analytical framework, and it described how by re-engaging with Bernstein I was able to reach the vantage point I needed in order to acquire a deep understanding of the recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place in the intervention.

I believe the approach adopted in this chapter was necessary and justifiable. It has provided an honest account of the struggles I experienced and of my growing frustration at not being able to theorise the research intervention in a way that would enable me, first, to gain a deep understanding of the process of recontextualisation that had taken place; and secondly, to articulate it in the light of the transformation South African education is currently undergoing.

In the next chapter, I work with Bernstein's theory, model and principles to analyse the epistemological empowerment that took place as a result of the teachers becoming recontextualisers of knowledge.

CHAPTER 8
RECONTEXTUALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE: THE EPISTEMOLOGICAL DIMENSION

8.1 Introduction

This chapter offers an analysis of the epistemological dimension of the recontextualising of curriculum knowledge that took place in the school-based intervention (as described in Chapter 6). My intention in this chapter is, first, to present the heuristic which I developed by using Bernstein's theory (as outlined in Chapter 7), and secondly, to describe how I applied the heuristic to the case to understand the following:

- the significance of the teachers' positioning and functioning within the recontextualising field in relation to their positioning and functioning in the national education system
- how and why the recontextualising of curriculum knowledge took place as it did in the intervention
- the meaning-making process that enabled the teachers' epistemological empowerment
- the model of professional development that supported the teachers' meaning-making, and
- what features of the environment made it supportive of recontextualisation.

The chapter consists of four parts. In the first, I outline the model I developed and explain how I applied it. In the second part of the chapter, I analyse the meaning-making process and the model of professional development that supported it. Thirdly, I analyse the environment that was supportive of the recontextualising of knowledge. Finally, I synthesise and conclude the discussion.

8.2 Developing a heuristic for the analysis

Figure 8.1 illustrates the model I developed by applying Bernstein's (1990, 1996) theory of pedagogic discourse (in particular his model of the pedagogic field and ideas about the processes associated with the movement of pedagogic discourse through the field) to the South African education system (represented by the pyramid in the diagram). Figure 8.1 also shows how I used the curriculum process framework developed by Taylor, Muller & Vinjevold (2003:66) to illustrate the spiral and recursive movement of policy from its site of production/formulation to its sites of interpretation and re-interpretation in the state education departments and other institutions and organizations, and eventually to its sites of implementation and realisation in schools.

I accept that the model carries the potential risk of over-simplifying a complex reality. Nevertheless, it enabled me to integrate and work with an amalgam of ideas that I believe are appropriate for probing the epistemological empowerment that was a pre-requisite for the recontextualising of knowledge. The model helped me to visualise and conceptualise:

- the location and functioning of teachers in the pedagogic field in which there is a social division of labour
  in relation to
- the position and functioning of teachers within the structure and functioning of the national system in which there is a social division of labour
  in relation to
- the curriculum policy process and movement of policy through the education system.

In the next section, I provide evidence that the model was a useful analytical tool for understanding *what* happened in the intervention.

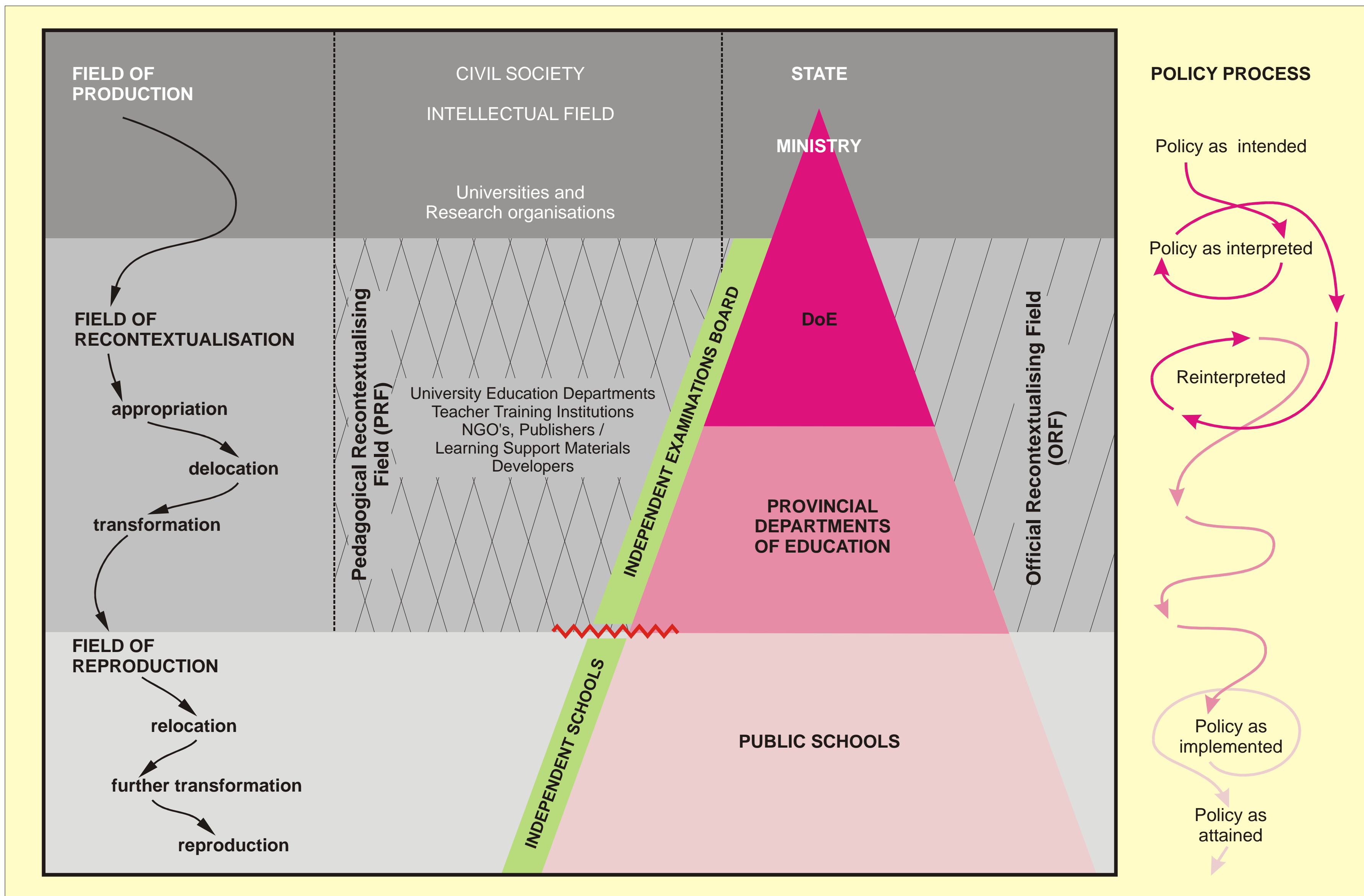

Figure 8.1: Heuristic for the analysis of knowledge recontextualisation

8.3 Analysis of *what* happened in the intervention in terms of knowledge recontextualisation

In this section I explain how I used the model to analyse, first, the significance of the different acts of transformation which Bernstein describes as taking place in the recontextualising field (see Chapter 7, Section 7.4.1) in relation to the structure and functioning of the national system, and secondly, the mechanisms and processes that enabled the teachers to re-position themselves in the recontextualising field.

8.3.1 The transformative acts of recontextualisation

Figure 8.1 sketches the processes which, according to Bernstein (1990, 1996), are involved in the movement of knowledge from its primary context of production to its secondary context of reproduction. The figure illustrates how the movement entails the de-location of the original discourse from the field of production through a process of selective appropriation in which the discourse is transformed and then re-located in the recontextualising field. This is what Bernstein refers to as the first transformative act. Once in the recontextualising field, the primary text may undergo further transformative acts before it is re-located as a secondary or transformed text in the field of reproduction. Further transformation then takes places in the pedagogical act of transmission from teacher to learners.

Of significance to what happened in this study is Bernstein's distinction between the first process (there may be more as I explain below), which involves recontextualising the **primary text** within the recontextualising field, and the second, which involves the transformation of an already **transformed text** (emphasis mine) in the pedagogical interaction between agents working within the field of reproduction and acquisition (1990:61). Bernstein is emphatic that *"it is the recontextualising field which generates the positions and oppositions of pedagogic theory, research and practice"* (italics in the original, 1990:62). For Bernstein appropriation is crucial to the process of recontextualisation, and he is emphatic that the process is not neutral in that the original discourse "undergoes ideological transformation according to the

play of specialised interests among the various positions in the recontextualising field" (1996:116).

These ideas, when viewed in relation to the curriculum policy process, the structure and functioning of the national system, and teachers' positioning in the field and system as illustrated in Figure 8.1, helped me to understand the significance of what happened in the intervention in terms of:

- **Transformation of original discourse into pedagogic discourse**

It became apparent that a policy text, for example, C2005, was the consequence of an ideological transformative act in which original discourse in the intellectual field is selectively appropriated and transformed into pedagogic discourse, that is, legitimate texts and practices. Bernstein helped me to understand that policy, as a legislated text, communicates the official or legitimate pedagogic discourse which has been selectively appropriated from the field of production. This involves the original discourse passing through ideological screens as it evolves into its new form, pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1996:117).

The authority for deciding the 'what' and 'how' of pedagogic discourse is vested with the state, through the Minister of Education. S/he appoints a task team consisting of officials from the DoE and provincial departments of education, specialists drawn from the intellectual field and other agencies, for example the IEB, industry, and teacher and labour unions. The principle of co-operative governance and the co-formulation of policy, as adopted in South Africa post-1994 (as explained in Chapter 2), means that the state is not as insulated from civil society as it was in the past. Nevertheless, political authority belongs to the Minister, and through his/her selection of the task team, the state is able to play an important regulatory role in the policy process.

The appropriation and de-location of discourse from the field of production, as the first transformative act within the recontextualising field, while state dominated, is nevertheless characterized by contestations and ideological power struggles between different interest groups represented in the curriculum task team. In the C2005 policy

text, the struggles and contestations manifest themselves as an axis of tension between competing political and economic imperatives for change (as explained in Chapter 3). The consequence is an ideological and pedagogical positioning for C2005 that is radically different from that of the previous curriculum framework.

C2005's ideological positioning is manifested in its OBE orientation, learner-centredness and integrated design, and in the epistemology (social constructivism) and pedagogy (progressive education) underpinning these. These were selectively appropriated because of the state's political and economic agenda for educational transformation. Once policy is accepted and legislated, the first transformative act is complete. In the context of Bernstein's theory, further appropriation and de-location can only occur through the legislative process of a policy amendment by the Minister.

Given the structural arrangements of the pedagogic field and the national system, both of which are characterized by a hierarchical social division of labour, Bernstein's theory helped me to understand why teachers are seldom, if ever, involved in the recontextualising process outlined above. I accept that strong arguments for this state of affairs may be made on the grounds that the political economy of education is not, nor should be, the core business of teachers. But this does not exclude teachers from exploring the original discourses appropriated by policy, an activity of particular significance when the original discourse is under-specified or over-simplified in policy.

In this study, the teachers' exploration of the original discourse on constructivism, as both an epistemology and a learning theory, helped them to empower themselves epistemologically and enabled them to avoid the trap created by policy's naïve and simplistic interpretations of original discourses, in particular, constructivism. In the case of the latter, discovery learning and group-regulated learning have been foregrounded at the expense of skilful mediating and scaffolding by teachers (Moll, 2001, 2002; Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001; Taylor, 2002:86; Parker, 2003:30). Engagement with 'theoretical' discourses was not spontaneous and was resisted by some of the teachers. Yet it placed them in a more informed position, that is, they acquired more power to challenge the legitimacy of other recontextualising

agents' interpretations of policy. This was evident at the IEB workshops held during the intervention, which I analyse in Chapter 9.

- **Transformation of primary pedagogic text into secondary texts**

In this study, the primary pedagogic text communicating pedagogic discourse is policy. As a legal text, it communicates official or legitimate pedagogic discourse. The second transformative act involves the selective appropriation and transformation of the 'what' and 'how' of policy into secondary texts and practices that are then re-located in the field of reproduction. This act, like the first, is an ideological one shaped by the play of specialised interests among the various positions in the recontextualising field (Bernstein, 1996:116).

Figure 8.1 shows that the recontextualising field consists of an official (ORF) and pedagogical (PRF) field, each of which has different agents involved in transforming and positioning policy text, in particular C2005 and the GET assessment texts. Bernstein contends that the ORF is "created and controlled by the State for the construction and surveillance of state pedagogic discourse" (1996:118). Working alongside the agents and agencies in the ORF, and performing similar functions, often in unproductive tension due to different ideological positions, are the 'non-state' agents and agencies who share membership of the Pedagogical Recontextualising Field (PRF). It is in the dynamic interplay within and between the ORF and PRF that the significance of positioning becomes apparent.

The existence of different agencies and agents in the ORF and PRF means that there is a series of micro-processes of interpretation and re-contextualisation taking place simultaneously and in parallel. Bernstein explains that "both fields may well have a range of ideological pedagogical positions which struggle for the control of the field. And these positions in the ORF and PRFs may well be opposed to each other" (Bernstein, 1996:118). Various agents in the ORF and PRF selectively appropriate C2005 and assessment policy and transform them into a range of secondary pedagogical texts, including for example, guidelines, learning support materials, learning programmes and pedagogical practices, for example, practical workshop activities.

In Chapters 2 and 3, I described the confusion and frustration that have been experienced by teachers, and how the 'cascade model' of policy transmission and training has exacerbated a situation already made precarious by complex and radical change processes. In this study, the various transformed policy texts were also a source of confusion and – as time went by – contestation. For example, at the IEB workshop in January 2002, the teachers were confronted with the IEB official's interpretation of C2005 policy text and the GET assessment policy text [CR 6:p.7]. Of significance to what happened in the intervention was that because the teachers were not familiar with the pedagogic texts that they encountered at the workshop, they were dependent on the IEB official's interpretation. In other words, the teachers were recipients of a pedagogic text that had been ideologically transformed by the DoE (through the guideline document) and the IEB workshop activity. Because the teachers had no knowledge of the discourse, they were unable to access or work with the policy texts, let alone challenge the way in which they had been 'ideologically screened'.

During the intervention, and because of the developmental nature of the new GET assessment policy implementation process, the teachers found themselves having to deal with different versions of the transformed policy text, in particular, the DoE's assessment guidelines (DoE, 2002a, b). They were also confronted with secondary policy texts that had been transformed by agents other than the IEB working in the PRF. By using primary policy text as their point of reference, they managed to navigate their way through the confusing situation arising from multiple interpretations.

There is evidence (in Chapter 6 and the Case Record [CR 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]) to suggest that, by working with primary curriculum and assessment policy texts, the teachers were able to selectively appropriate and transform policy in a way that enabled greater self-determination and self-definition. In the case of C2005, this involved rejecting the policy's integrated learning area approach and retaining instead a discipline-based approach (albeit with different internal configurations). The evidence cited above shows how policy both shaped and was shaped by the teachers' recontextualising acts.

In addition to policy texts, the teachers also selectively appropriated the various guideline documents produced in the ORF by the DoE (the assessment guidelines) and the Western Cape Department of Education (curriculum guidelines), and policy texts transformed by agents in the PRF, including, for example, the IEB and myself. Importantly, this enabled the teachers to create their own texts, for example, the 'Learning Process Map', rather than having to rely on and be constrained by someone else's interpretation of policy.

The teachers' various acts of transformation of primary and secondary policy texts were primarily although not exclusively collaborative acts which involved inter- and/or intra-discipline working groups. But the final transformative act consisted in the interaction between an individual teacher and a class of learners.

- **Transforming the transformed text into the classroom**

According to Bernstein (1996:117), teachers transform the 'transformed text' in their pedagogical relationship with learners. Importantly, while teachers interpret and transform learning support materials in the pedagogical act, these have already passed through various ideological screening processes. Transformed texts position teachers and relegate them to a technicist role of reproducing a pedagogical text which they have neither shaped nor re-shaped. One may infer that working at this level of interpretation and transformation de-professionalises teachers. In Chapter 2 (Section 2.3.2), I described the danger of teachers' being recipients of a text whose values they do not buy into, in that the result may be strategic mimicry or political symbolism.

The adoption of an OBE curriculum framework, as explained in Chapter 3, was intended as a mechanism for opening up a previously tight system and allowing for greater teacher participation in curriculum processes. As such, it calls for teacher participation at a higher level than merely implementing a text that has undergone various acts of transformation.

I have described the transformative acts in which the teachers in this study engaged when implementing OBE curriculum and assessment policy in Grade 9 during the

two-year intervention. In the following section, I analyse the mechanisms and processes that enabled their re-positioning in the recontextualising field.

8.3.2 Teachers' repositioning in the recontextualising field

In this section, I discuss the teachers' epistemological empowerment as a result of their re-positioning in the recontextualising field. This is seen as a consequence of OBE curriculum orientation and design within the loose functioning and fluidity of the national system.

Bernstein asserts that in the past 25 years there has been a notable shift towards increased state regulation in all three fields within the education process (1996:116). The situation in South Africa since 1994 is more complex and paradoxical. As discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, frameworks and processes for decentralisation and diminished central control are in place. However, for various reasons, including teachers' values and a lack of capacity within some of the provincial departments of education, these opportunities have not been optimally exploited. Sceptics like Jansen (2003:55) and Jansen & Middlewood (2003:51) maintain that they never will be. Nevertheless, while a top-down curriculum process persists, the system has acquired a fluidity and dynamism that did not exist previously.

In Chapter 3, I described how the adoption of an outcomes-based framework was an attempt by the state to loosen up a previously tight and authoritarian education system by devolving curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom, thus encouraging participation in curriculum design and construction from the bottom up. At the same time, I explained how OBE can be seen as a new and insidious form of governmentality – a technology for enabling increased state surveillance and regulation. Looking back at what happened in the intervention (Chapter 6), I realise that OBE, in particular the radical transformative model underpinning C2005, served as an enabling mechanism for the teachers' recontextualising of curriculum policy.

By re-positioning themselves in the recontextualising field the teachers had acquired greater autonomy and had indeed become involved in the process of curriculum design and construction, as recommended in OBE curriculum policy. Importantly, the

teachers had maximized the opportunities offered by OBE curriculum and assessment policy. C2005's OBE orientation and under-specified content had provided the teachers with a framework that was sufficiently flexible and malleable for self-determined creative interpretation.

In Chapter 3, I explained how the adoption of an OBE orientation was an enabling mechanism for devolving curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom and for increased teacher participation in curriculum construction. This is not to say that teachers did not engage in curriculum construction in the past. There is evidence in this case study that the teachers concerned, in particular the History teachers, had been curriculum designers prior to the arrival of OBE.

In Chapter 2, I explained how because of the stakeholder approach, and the principles of co-operative governance and co-formulation of curriculum policy, there had been a shift towards greater collaboration and partnerships within and between the structures of the education system. This has resulted in the opening up of opportunities for movement and a more dynamic interplay between different levels and 'fields' as shown in Figure 8.1. It has helped to create what Muller (2000:11) refers to as "dynamism" in which there is a series of micro-processes of interpretation and re-contextualisation taking place simultaneously and parallel to each other in the field. The teachers in this study maximised the opportunities afforded by the loose functioning of the system. But this was only possible because they had learned the 'ground rules' for recontextualising knowledge.

Because of the loose functioning of the national system and the flexibility and opportunities offered by OBE curriculum orientation and design, then, and despite their positioning at the lowest functional level of both the pedagogic field and national system, the teachers in this study became recontextualizers of curriculum knowledge. Importantly, because the teachers were transforming primary and secondary pedagogic texts (that is, policy and policy guidelines) *within* the recontextualising field, they were able to regulate its ideological positioning in a way that was compatible with their beliefs. This is illustrated by the way in which they recontextualised C2005 as a discipline- as opposed to learning area-based curriculum.

According to Muller (2000:10), the act of interpreting and re-interpreting knowledge is a dynamic one which involves negotiation and renegotiation. He believes that this is significant because it means that the possibility of a different curriculum is always present. The curriculum that was constructed in Grade 9 History and Geography at the two schools studied was a negotiated one, different from both the curriculum that existed prior to 2002 and the curriculum intended by C2005 policy.

Muller also asks: “How do we ensure that the deforming potential of re-description is minimized?” (2000:20), and identifies two mechanisms that lend themselves to the purpose: public assessment systems and school visits or inspectors. He argues that both “depict the school as a highly controlled instructional site where the official ideology is reproduced.” When viewed in this way, these mechanisms represent a top-down authoritarian approach to curriculum management and control which, I believe, de-professionalises and diminishes teachers’ roles and responsibilities in curriculum processes. This case study illuminates another possibility.

The teachers used policy, as opposed to guidelines, as their point of reference, and they acquired a thorough knowledge of the new policy framework and the skills for its creative and meaningful application in their classrooms. This enabled them to re-position themselves within the pedagogical recontextualisation field, which in turn meant that, like other agents in the ORF and PRF, they could appropriate and de-locate the primary text (policy) in a self-determining way rather than having to rely on and be subject to someone else’s ideologically transformed text. Moreover, with time and increased experience, and by documenting their research narrative with substantive evidence, they developed a voice and were able to challenge others’ interpretation of policy, as evident at an IEB workshop. In Chapter 9, I analyse the dialectical interplay that took place between the teachers and the IEB as a result of the teachers becoming recontextualisers of policy.

As suggested above, the teachers in this study were able to maximize the opportunities afforded them by C2005’s outcomes-based curriculum framework because they managed to acquire an understanding of the ‘ground rules’. These include recognizing what is required and knowing how to do it, which Bernstein refers to as the ‘recognition’ and ‘realisation’ rules (1996:107). Their success was also

made possible by the loose functioning of, and resulting dynamic potential in, the national education system, which served to de-insulate the recontextualising field. In sum, the evidence furnished in Chapter 6 (and CR 6 & 7) suggests that the intervention translated the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000) ideal into reality.

This analysis, based on the model in Figure 8.1, has probed *what* happened in the intervention in terms of knowledge recontextualisation, providing insights that are useful but limited in terms of understanding *how* and *why* the recontextualisation happened as it did in the intervention, the nature of the meaning-making process that had enabled recontextualisation, and the model of professional development that supported it. Furthermore, it did not enable me to grasp the inner logic that regulated the relations between the different categories in the pedagogic field, namely discourse, practices and agents. It is to these issues that I now turn.

8.4 Analysis of *how* and *why* recontextualisation happened as it did in the intervention

In this section, I analyse 'how' and 'why' the teachers selectively appropriated and transformed C2005 and the GET assessment policy as they did, giving specific attention to:

- the meaning-making process which enabled the teachers to empower themselves epistemologically, and acquire the rules for recontextualisation (Bernstein, 1996:107);

- the consequences of the teachers' epistemological empowerment and acquisition of the rules in relation to issues of power and control, particularly in terms of 'who' determined 'what' was legitimate in history and geography in Grade 9 at the two schools and 'how' this was realised in practice;

- the professional teacher development model that supported the teachers' empowerment, and

- the environment as supportive of recontextualisation.

8.4.1 Epistemological empowerment and the acquisition of the 'ground rules' as pre-requisites for recontextualisation

My involvement in the school-based intervention, as previously indicated, was triggered by my attending a workshop in January 2002 at which the new outcomes-based GET assessment model for Grade 9 was introduced to the teachers at the two schools that participated in this study, and my perception that the teachers, although keen, were ill-equipped to implement the new assessment policy.

As a university education lecturer and LSMs developer for C2005 with which the new Grade 9 GETC assessment was linked, I was an agent working in the intellectual field of knowledge production and pedagogical recontextualising. In previous chapters and elsewhere (Wilmot 1998, 2004), I have argued for the development of critically reflexive practitioners on the grounds that, while the new framework contains exciting possibilities for enhancing learning, curriculum renewal and opportunities for greater participation and self-determination than was the case previously, the mechanics of the new framework were complex, there were inherent weaknesses in its design, and its OBE orientation was a radical departure from the existing framework. I concur with Prawat (1991:748) who, citing Duffy (1990), contends that:

> We must get beyond giving teachers the impression that the key to effective instruction is compliance with our favoured theories and our favoured techniques. We must instead convey the much more complex reality that what is useful depends on the situation. Consequently, we must help teachers to understand what a theory or procedure is good for, and when it might be useful, and how to make those decisions.

I believe that teacher epistemological empowerment is a pre-requisite for meaningful, creative and – most importantly – *critical* engagement with contemporary national educational transformation initiatives. As evident in the Case Record, an explicit and frequently articulated goal of my facilitating a process of policy implementation at two schools was teacher epistemological empowerment.

There is evidence in the narrative accounts (the research reports in the case record), and in the review of the intervention in Chapter 6, indicating that through the intervention the teachers acquired a deep understanding of the new curriculum and assessment framework, together with the skills necessary for its creative and meaningful enactment in their classrooms. The development of teachers as critically reflexive practitioners enabled them to re-position themselves in the recontextualising field. Here they were able to exercise their right to participate in the selective appropriation and transformation of the legitimate text (policy) in a way that was compatible with their own values and beliefs. In transforming as they did the legitimate text for themselves, they made full use of the opportunities for self-definition and self-determination intended by the OBE framework and *Norms and Standards for Educators'* Policy (DoE, 2000).

A Bernstein perspective also recognises epistemological empowerment as a pre-requisite for working in the recontextualising field. According to Bernstein's recontextualising principle (1996:107), selective appropriation, transformation and relocation of the legitimate pedagogic discourse (in this case that contained in C2005 and the GET assessment policy) in the field of reproduction (the Grade 9 classroom) requires the acquisition of 'ground rules' (Bernstein 1996:31, 107). These rules regulate the work of agents in the recontextualising field who construct the 'what' and 'how' of pedagogic discourse (ibid.:117).

First, one needs the 'recognition rule', that is, an ability to recognize the specificity of the context one is in. This rule is at the level of the 'acquirer'. Bernstein explains that the rule, in orientating one to the specificity of the context, helps one to determine what the context demands. Unless one has this rule, one will not be able to 'read' context and will remain silent or ask inappropriate questions. In this study, the rule required the teachers being able to recognise and understand the relation *between* discourses and practices, that is, between an outcomes-based curriculum and assessment framework and the one that existed at the schools. Recognising and understanding what the new curriculum framework was and how it differed from the framework with which they were familiar, was thus a prerequisite for their

recontextualising it. The evidence in the intervention suggests that they acquired this rule.

Secondly, recontextualising requires the ‘realisation rule’, that is, an understanding of ‘how’ to produce the legitimate pedagogic discourse (both the text and practices). Bernstein contends that without the realisation rule we are unable “to speak the expected legitimate text” (1996:33). The research reports [CR 6 & 7] contain rich evidence of how the teachers became proficient speakers of the C2005 and the GET assessment policy text.

Thirdly, recontextualising requires the ‘evaluative rule’, that is, an understanding of the standards that must be reached and the criteria for attaining them at the micro-level of the classroom where the legitimate text is reproduced. There is rich evidence in the research reports [CR 6 & 7] suggesting that the teachers acquired this rule and that their learners satisfied the expected levels of attainment intended by the new curriculum.

In the following section I analyse the meaning-making process that enabled the teachers to acquire the rules described above. In order to do this, I reviewed the intervention as interpretively analysed in Chapter 6, focusing sharply on the unresolved issues identified in the findings (Section 6.6). I also went back into the data files and reexamined the transcriptions of the three person-to-person interviews that I conducted with the teachers at the start, mid-way and at the end of the intervention, and the various focus group discussions. These are summarised in Chapter 5 (Section 5.7.3).

8.4.2 The meaning-making process which enabled recontextualisation

In Chapter 6, I described the various cycles of curriculum and assessment activity that took place during the intervention. In this section I analyse the processes of meaning-making that took place in the intervention, with the intention of understanding *how* and *why* the teachers acquired the rules that they needed for appropriating and transforming curriculum knowledge. I describe, with substantive evidence, a model of meaning-making that was cyclic and process-orientated.

By drawing on an amalgam of ideas from the literature on constructivist learning including, for example, McLaughlin (1998), Moll (2001, 2002), Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler (2001), Prawat (1992, 1996), Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana (2002), Guskey (2002), and Richardson (2003), I was able to identify various processes and activities that helped me to understand the teachers' meaning-making that took place in the study. These included: initiation, orientation, elicitation, connecting, constructing, testing and trialing new ideas, practising through trial and error, and reflection. In the following section, I explain what these processes were, how and why they took place, and include examples (in Text Boxes) from the intervention.

- **Initiation**

According to Gorodetsky, Keiny, Barak & Weiss (2003:28), a learning situation needs to be initiated by either an external or an internal stimulus. In this study it was the former. Despite the implementation of C2005 having reached Grade 8 in 2001, the teachers in the study had ignored it, choosing instead to continue with the old curriculum. Curriculum policy per se did not provide an impetus that was powerful enough to initiate change. It took a state mandate carrying the threat of sanction to get the teachers to implement a new outcome-based assessment policy in Grade 9, the result of which was that they had to enter and navigate their way through OBE curriculum territory[44]. From this one may infer that the meaning-making process that took place in this intervention did not happen spontaneously or by chance.

- **Orientation**

Orientation, described as a process of demystification, acknowledges that learners require some sort of tuning into what they are going to learn (Russell & McGuigan, 2003:24). The IEB workshop in January 2002 was an introduction and, by

[44] The metaphor of a journey was used by the teachers and me to talk about our learning process. It enabled us to conceptualise the process as ongoing, recursive and complex; exploratory and exciting, daunting and confusing.

implication, an orientation or 'tuning into' the new outcomes-based GETC assessment model. In Chapter 6, I discussed why the workshop failed to achieve its goals. In Chapter 9, I re-examine the workshop with the intention of understanding the political empowerment that took place through the intervention. But the point I wish to make here is that, for various reasons, the workshop did not help the teachers to tune into the new assessment or curriculum framework other than at a basic level of providing technical information. Instead of demystifying the new assessment framework, the workshop plunged the teachers into curriculum territory which was alien and signposted in a language that they did not recognise and thus were unable to read.

There is evidence in the excerpt from the interviews below (Text Box 1)[45] suggesting that with the exception of Dale and Ann, both of whom had knowledge of the new curriculum framework, the teachers found themselves confronted by a curriculum framework that was intimidating because of its new terminology and design features. But it also proved a catalyst for self-reflection and a taking stock of current practice. That the teachers were not unreceptive to change suggests on their part a certain level of motivation and a readiness to learn.

TEXT BOX 1

I don't understand the language, this 'newspeak'. I haven't come to grips with it. It's quite threatening, you know. You kind of get into a comfort zone in twenty years of teaching, and then suddenly to have to change, is quite daunting, but I welcome it in some ways, because one does tend to get into a kind of rut. Although I'm wary and a little bit confused and a little bit fearful about the whole process. I still think it's the right way - in a sense - that it's given me an extra stimulus, something to think about.
James, February 2002 [DF17]

Before our first meeting, I was incredibly frustrated and I felt very much alone out there, I felt very tired and frustrated and also scared, of the unknown. I didn't feel that we had everyone on board (the HSS bus), but following my departmental meeting the other morning when various people volunteered to do things, I felt much happier about it.

[45] I am very aware of the danger of using decontextualized quotations. In my analysis of the interview and focus group transcriptions which together constituted hundreds of pages of text, I have purposively selected excerpts that, I believe, illustrate the meaning-making process that took place in the intervention. In some instances it has necessitated the inclusion of fairly long excerpts. I argue for them on the grounds that they enrich the discussion, and illuminate the human dimension of the study.

Without you we'd be terrified. We haven't been given enough support from our government or from the IEB and if we're supposed to actually implement the GETC this year then there is no way we would have known what to do. Without you, and the fact that we can call you up, it's like having your own private mentor, trouble-shooter and the fact that you've given us direction. I haven't a clue of where we would have gone. I mean the jargon has just been mind-boggling and we've just ignored it, tried to avoid it. And you forced us to confront it and are trying to clear the way, but with out someone like you to keep at our beck and call as it were, which is inconvenient for you, but convenient for us, I don't know where we would go, I think we'd just give up.
Sandy, February 2002 [DF17]

In a very broad sense, I've been engaging quite significantly with policy and procedures around outcomes-based education, because I have been involved, in a university, with those discussions, but also in a history textbook team where we've had to engage, and it's been university and school teachers, with how we put this methodology across, and what it means for the way we write textbooks. So in that sense the jargon, the frameworks, the ambitions of the new - the new system - I feel I understand some of it, although I can go a long way in exploring that - but I also think it's a good thing: this emphasis on learning, the learning process is very positive, because it's forcing teachers to be more explicit about what it is they're trying to do.

I think one of my concerns is that we mustn't be too mechanistic about it. I think it's quite instructive to realise that part of outcomes-based education comes out of a training framework. You know, the Department of Labour being involved in the formulation of policy, and this new seamless qualification setup. And to the extent that education - I mean classroom-based education as opposed to a more training framework, it's not as easy to break into manageable chunks, and we can kill learning, the enthusiasm for teaching and learning, by two many grids and too much of a mechanistic idea. I don't know enough about the GETC to voice concerns.

… trying to understand what does Human and Social Sciences mean as opposed to history and
geography, and how do we inhabit all of these faces, because I believe that we can learn a
lot through multi-disciplinary or in this case a bi-disciplinary approach. At the same time, the
nature of that interaction is dependent on the strength of the disciplines and what they hold. So there's that difficult balancing act…
Dale, February 2002 [DF17]

We've started the year with a sort of explosion, if you can call it that. An explosion of work, in terms of the extra effort that we are going to have to put in is incredible, but I think it is very worthwhile and I think if we're starting out on this note, it can only get better. It's higgledy-piggledy at this stage…

As an external force, you are forcing us to think about our teaching… I don't know, I might be wrong, but I think there are teachers who are stuck in a rut… and for the first time maybe in a long time they're actually thinking about what they are doing and that's making it scary for them.

I think it's really exciting personally for me, it's such a help because in a sense it's like a crutch, because we did all this theory last year (in the PGCE programme) and now I'm putting it into practice…
Ann, February 2002 [DF 17]

How, then, did the teachers 'tune into' the new education framework?

At the start of each activity cycle in the intervention, some form of orientation took place. I used different strategies and tools to orientate and 'connect' the teachers to the new policy framework. Prawat (1992:374) argues for 'connectedness' on the grounds that knowledge is more accessible when it is an integral part of one's cognitive structure. Similarly, Donald et al. (2002:128) contend that 'connecting' is crucial if learners are to be challenged to think in different ways.

Orientation can utilise various strategies, but all must have a 'structuring' element which involves organizing knowledge in a more connected and coherent way (Prawat, 1992:375). Haggett (1972:xv) explains that structures provide a framework on which information, concepts and practices can be hung, but remain sufficiently flexible to accommodate new growth and to allow new perspectives to be acquired.

At the start of each activity in the intervention, I orientated the teachers by explaining and justifying the intended or planned focus. This involved the following:

- the use of structure or frameworks, often spider diagrams or summaries, which I created and through which I was able to share my understanding of the various elements of the new educational framework and of relationships between the various elements of the new framework. Diagrams helped me to illuminate the 'big ideas' of the new educational framework, and stimulated exploratory discussion on a particular dimension of curriculum or assessment which we were going to work on in relation to the whole;

- some formal expository-type teaching by me which acknowledged the teachers' prior knowledge and made explicit links with their worlds, providing opportunities for them to interact and share their experiences, ask questions

and raise concerns. A constructivist perspective acknowledges the role of direct instruction in the learning process (Richardson, 2003:1628);

- my playing a strong advocacy role, the intention being to arouse the teachers' interest, motivation and enthusiasm, to provoke their thinking and convince them about how and why the new framework contained exciting opportunities which were worth taking risks for. According to Prawat (1996:94, who cites Dewey, 1996:49), social constructivist teachers are more like 'provokers' than 'facilitators'. The role of the teacher is seen as creating a climate in which learners feel free to explore their own ideas, ask questions and make mistakes. For teachers to engage in an exploration of their own and new practices and ideas, they often need some gentle pushing ('provoking') because it requires that they move out of their comfort zones. I believe that by playing these roles, I helped the teachers to acquire a sense of the moral imperative for change, that is, the belief that change was worthwhile because it would enhance the quality of children's learning;

- creating a collegial, non-threatening, non-judgmental environment in which teachers felt free to explore ideas and ask questions *before* they engaged in activities that involved risk, the possibility of making mistakes and exposure. It was during the orientation phase that trust, confidence, open-mindedness and mutual respect were engendered.

The following vignette illustrates how orientation took place in the intervention.

We used the metaphor of a journey to describe our curriculum and professional learning, depicting the HSS team navigating its way through OBE curriculum territory (the teachers spoke about being travellers on a bus, a notion they illustrated in cartoon fashion [CR 21]). Orientation meant getting our bearings before commencing our exploratory journey through OBE curriculum territory. It required maps and frameworks to point us in the direction we should take, and signposts demarcating important features in the landscape that we needed to explore. National policy was our primary and preferred map, but because of its under-specified content, complex and

confusing design features and outcomes-based processes, its signposts were not easily recognised by the teachers.

As mentioned in Chapter 6, I created frameworks in which I simplified the policy map for the teachers. This was done using diagrams in which I sketched policy's core ideas and showed the links between its various constituent elements. Examples are included in the Case Record [CR 3]. As conceptual learning tools, they were used for discussion on 'what' was different and similar in the new and old curriculum and assessment frameworks, as well as 'how' and 'why'.

Of significance for the teachers' learning was that initially we only used policy as our map. This enabled the teachers to acquire an understanding of 'what' the new framework was in its *pure,* as opposed to transformed, form; that is, an understanding of the principles of the new education framework rather than a simplified and ideologically screened and potentially distorted version produced within the ORF or the PRF.

In the case of the Grade 9 assessment model, we were obliged to work with the DoE's assessment guidelines, because they fleshed out what national policy had to look like in Grade 9. However, the fact that we had worked with assessment policy (DoE, 1998) meant that we were able to challenge the IEB's interpretation (as explained in Chapter 9).

Importantly, my mediation of policy through the creation of simpler frameworks provided the teachers with an access route to policy. It meant that when they started working with the primary curriculum policy texts (we moved between C2005 and what, in 2002, was still the *draft* Revised National Curriculum Statement) in their curriculum developmental work after the orientation phase, they were conversant with the language and design features. They had a conceptual frame not only of the 'what' but the 'how' and 'why' of curriculum which helped them to acquire a sense of the 'big picture', the relationships between the elements of the picture, and a sense of figure/ground. This helped them to recognize what was important and needed to be foregrounded and what could be relegated to the background. Further, by working

with both C2005 and the RNCS policy texts, the teachers realised the fluidity of the policy environment and the way in which it was being shaped.

By working with policy in these ways, and supported by my 'sketch maps' and other learning tools, the teachers began to create their own maps. The most significant was the Learning Process map, the development of which is described in the 2004 Research Report (CR 7:pp.27-45).

The following excerpts from a focus group discussion in October 2002 [DF 53] have been purposively chosen to illuminate the teachers' perceptions and ideas about structures, frameworks and maps. At the focus group discussion, the teachers reflected on the research process and the learning that had taken place. Prior to the discussion, I had provided the teachers with copies of the transcripts of previous individual and group interviews.

TEXT BOX 2

Dale: The idea of this session is t reflect about what has happened within the course of the year, and that's good because there's been a process of exploration and relationship-building and, I think, that as we read from these transcripts, it provides a very important reflection point for ourselves, as a group and with Di, as a person doing research. There are a couple of themes that I see emerging and which I should like to flag… The image of the journey has been one that we have addressed from a number of angles…maybe that's an idea which we can draw on.

Colin: The idea of the journey has been an interesting analogy for me. Because my perception of a journey is that one needs a map and I don't really feel as though we've had a map. I think we have had lots of ideas about where curriculum was going, and what kind of assessment is available and I feel as though we have changed significantly in the last few months… and at the moment we seem to be trading water and I am not really sure where we are going…so in terms of the journey, I feel as though I'm still lost.

Cathy: Can I pick up on a point that has been made? On thing that comes to me is that in the initial presentation we made to the staff (in March 2002), was that on the bus the historians were going one way and the geographers the other. It doesn't come across in the interview transcripts, but then that's because we have become a team working together, I think.

Ann: I think it's quite difficult to have map because the whole point of this process is that we don't really know where we are going. There is no specific route to get there and we have to find a route for ourselves. We're drawing it ourselves and maybe that's what makes it very challenging for us at certain times, because we do not know where the end-point is. Plus, the goals seem to change all the time… I think that it's quite unique that we have managed to keep on meeting, despite all these uncertainties…

Dale: If we could draw maps, maybe what we'd be looking at are various maps being made as we go along. There is the national policy map, that's still being drawn as it were. It might be in bold outlines, but the contours are still being built in, and then we've got the local process that we are undergoing where to some extent - and this links up with the outside researcher coming in – we've had a map, mapping done in a way that perhaps we wouldn't have had as a group of teachers in a school, so Colin, I don't think there's been no map. I think there have been parts of a map and it's been a question of can we join them together or can we get onto the same map, maybe?

Colin: I agree with Ann's view. There hasn't been a map and we've been trying to make a map and the road we've taken – we seem to go up it and then come back down it and then go in another direction, and maybe that's the frustration I've experienced in that things are constantly changing and we do have a deadline at the end of 2005 (the first national GETC assessment) but are we getting any closer and every time we do get closer, something else changes…

In the beginning we tackled assessment for a few months and we are clear n rubrics and we moved away from that and now we've been looking at an integrated theme under the umbrella of Human and Social Sciences and for me that's probably been a bit more productive and the reproduction of rubrics.

Dale: One of the things that interest me through this process, is that perhaps because of the background I come from, I don't mind going up one road and coming down again… It would be interesting to reflect on whether we, as teachers, want a much clearer sense of, well there's an end goal and basically we ant to know how to get there, or are we happy with lots of cul-de-sacs, or are we just frustrated by it?...

- **Elicitation**

Whereas orientation is described as 'expansive and informal', elicitation is seen as being 'focused and more formal' (Russell & McGuigan, 2003:24). It signalled the point at which I established what the teachers knew and could do, and involved activities in which the teachers made their knowledge visible to themselves, their colleagues and myself. Because, according to the constructivist model, learning takes place through building on present experience, we need to identify learners' prior knowledge in order to create opportunities for further learning. Constructivist

perspectives also acknowledge that this is only the beginning: additional experiences are necessary, provided there is continuity between them (Prawat, 1992:371).

In this study, this meant using different strategies to elicit information about the teachers' practices, beliefs and values. It was done both privately and in groups, and included one-to-one interviews and focus group discussions, such as the one in which the teachers shared their ideas on 'What is History?' and 'What is Geography?' They also made their ideas and practices visible through practical activities, for example, the presentation of their worksheets to the team.

An analysis of the intervention revealed that at the start of each new cycle of activity, there was some form of orientation and elicitation. The former was often accomplished through my writing to the teachers before we met [CR 10], using diagrams, maps and frameworks I had prepared as the starting point for discussions during our weekly sessions, and complementing the literature provided on some of the topics. Importantly, as the more experienced learner, I organised, directed and mediated during the orientation and elicitation phases of learning.

During all stages of the learning process, there was a great deal of discussion in which new and old ideas and practices were held up for scrutiny and debate. Importantly, all the activities we engaged in were authentic and contextualised, that is, they were directly related to and built on the teachers' existing practice. The literature refers to this as "situated learning" (Brown, Collins, Duguid, 1989 as cited by Prawat, 1992:376). These writers and others, for example, McLaughlin (1998:79), argue that learning must be situated for teachers to act meaningfully and purposefully.

The value of talk in a social process of meaning-making is self-evident. According to Leinhardt (1992:24), talking enables learners to rehearse ideas and concepts and become conversant in the terminology (in this case, of OBE). Barnes (1992:126) contends that not all types of talk contribute equally to understanding. The purpose of talk should extend beyond the presentational and explanatory to include reflection, the latter being "talk outside the event" (ibid.:127).

In the intervention, opportunities for different types of talk were created through the different activities. These included informal inter- and intra-departmental discussions during the planning stages of the developmental work that was undertaken, presentational talk in which the teachers explained their innovations with the HSS team and others, and ongoing reflective conversation in both informal and more formal contexts (e.g. focus group discussions). The excerpts in the text boxes in this section illustrate the various types of talk that were part of the meaning-making process.

- **Building on prior knowledge**

Having orientated the teachers to the new framework, and elicited their prior knowledge, the next learning activity[46] involved experiences that built on the teachers' prior knowledge and provided them with opportunities for demonstrating the sense they were making of the new framework. It required engaging the teachers in activities that facilitated their translating their mental maps or conceptual frameworks into a tangible and concrete form as evidence of the learning that was taking place.

I planned experiences that would enable the teachers to apply their learning. Although negotiation was a key characteristic of the intervention, during the early stages, I played a strong role in determining the direction we should take and the methods we should use to build our road through OBE territory. Importantly, this meant communicating with the teachers and keeping them informed of what we were doing and why; it also meant being receptive to and flexible enough to respond to their needs.

Strategies used to mediate and scaffold the teachers' learning included, first, my modelling new approaches, for example, the shift to a criterion-referenced assessment approach (as described in Chapter 6 and CR 6, pp.13-16). The teachers then mimicked what I had done – much as a child learns by mimicking its mother or a craftsman learns by mimicking a master craftsman – to create their own assessment rubrics.

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[46] This statement does not imply that learning was linear. As shown in the interview excerpts, the one phase often overlapped with another.

Prawat (1992:376) argues that mimicking provides the novice learner with a richer set of connections than they would have made on their own.

Mimicking may be seen as promoting surface or procedural rather than deep or declarative learning. Be that as it may, it was nevertheless worthwhile for two reasons. First, it initiated the teachers into new ways of doing and provided a bridge for them to connect their world to the new. Secondly, and more importantly, it was of great value in terms of the social and personal learning it promoted. It gave the teachers a sense of achievement and engendered confidence that was necessary for taking the next step.

The following excerpts are from a presentation made to the academic staff of the two schools some six weeks after the intervention commenced. They illuminate the elicitation process, what learning through mimicking looks like, and how by building on their prior knowledge and through mimicking, the teachers constructed a bridge from their world to the new OBE educational world. The excerpts also provide evidence of a learning process that recognises that teachers are not 'empty' but have prior knowledge that should be built on rather than discarded. Although only six weeks into the intervention, there is evidence of the teachers' learning and being able to demonstrate their acquisition of the recognition and realisation rules. However, what is significant is that, because the teachers were mimicking and applying my template to the task at hand, they were transforming knowledge within the field of reproduction.

A copy of the worksheet that Jo is explaining in this excerpt can be found in CR 6 (p.12)

TEXT BOX 3

Di asked: "What do you teach in Grade Nine normally?", so Sandy and I said: "The First World War." She said: "Right, now take the First World War and what exactly...what parts of the First World War do you teach, and give us some ideas of how you teach it. "But," she said, "when you put your thoughts together in the spider diagram, look at three categories for every topic in the First World War: What you teach, how you teach it, and why you teach it."

And that's perhaps what the new departure was, that now we were taking something that's been done for quite a few years, and something that's very familiar to us, I mean we've got a lot of shared exercises and experiences, but she was asking us to sort out in our minds exactly how we were doing it, exactly why we were doing it. Sandy and I sat down with our piece of paper, and we had the learner profile in front of us. We looked at all these skills and outcomes and we thought: "Right now, let's see if, when we're teaching them certain sections of the First World War, are we teaching them oracy, or literacy, or graphicacy?" In other words, we were focussing on the pupils.

Let me illustrates with, for example, the causes of the First World War. That's what we would teach. We taught the assassination of Sarajevo, the entry of the great powers into the War, and then the Schiliffen Plan and how Britain came into the War. We've got all the exercises and resources for it… Then we had say to ourselves: "Alright, in the past when we gave those exercises, that was getting the children to understand the causes of the First World War." But now we have to be much more specific, and by using the learner profile document, we then sat down and decided that what we were doing was we were enhancing the children's conceptual development. They were beginning, we hoped, to understand interaction in a global context, they were developing the graphicacy skills for extracting information from diagrams and pictures…

That's where we started: something that we do anyway, something that we know, but what we were doing now was focussing on what the children were acquiring, what outcomes are working there. So that was how it all started.
Jo, March 2002 [DF 23]

I am standing in for Andrew who is away. He presented us with this worksheet [see CR 7: p.13], and it's a really good worksheet on the Romanoff family, the Russian royal family at the turn of the twentieth century. His task [for our HSS meeting] was to list some of these skills that he thought he was going to teach the learners through this worksheet. He said he wanted the learners to "place in an historical context extrapolation, comparison, analysis and exposition".

At our lunchtime meeting last Wednesday, he admitted that at that point he was rather fuzzy. In actual fact, it was an innate, gut feeling that this is what he wanted the learners to get when they had done this worksheet rather than a clear understanding of what was going on. So he asked them to draw a family tree, find some photographs of the Romanoff family, interact with the photographs, and complete an empathy exercise about what it must have been like to be a peasant at the time and so on. The worksheet represents what we have been doing.

Sandy continues with an explanation of the criterion-referenced sheet and rubric I developed to model a shift from an implicit to explicit assessment practice.

So what we were doing was taking our traditional worksheets and 'translate' them into this situation. And that for me, and I think for most of the group, was an important breakthrough. With that, we've got the material, we know the stuff, but we can't say we've been doing that all the time, because we haven't, we haven't gone far enough. What we had to do was actually interpret this in a different way, and each one of us went off. I did a worksheet, I created something on 'propaganda', Colin did something on 'life in

the trenches', James worked on a film called 'Gallipoli', so between us already we have three units of work that we can actually use.
Sandy, March 2002 [DF 23]

I chose the ostrich as my animal persona. I have, for the last five weeks been trying to find the biggest sand dune possible to stick my head into and hoped that the whole nightmare would disappear. It hasn't! On a more serious note I would like to say two things. First of all, Ian highlighted the fact that I found the OBE jargon incredibly difficult to understand. I was encouraged by the puzzled looks on your faces when everyone spoke here today and that's exactly how I felt in our first couple of meetings and still do. Assessment criteria, critical outcomes, specific outcomes, learner profiles, rubrics - that's my favourite word. Rubric! I have learnt how to develop a rubric. Progress has been made. Then on a positive note, it has certainly taken me out of my comfort zone as a teacher and you really think about what's going on in the classroom and I don't think that's a bad thing. For those of you sitting out there who think this is not going to affect you, it's coming your way… so please embrace change.
James, March 2002 [DF 23].

- **Extending and challenging teachers' knowledge**

Whereas learning through modeling and mimicking involved the teachers in copying a template or exemplar that I provided, other strategies were used for engaging them in the construction of their own knowledge. Initially these learning experiences were strongly framed by me, but with time and increased experience, control shifted to the teachers. This shift is evident in the two curriculum workshops held in 2002, and a third in March 2003. An analysis of the three workshop interventions revealed a significant difference in their pedagogical approach and the level of sophistication of the learning that was enabled through them.

The first, a cooperative learning workshop [CR 11], was carefully planned and tightly structured to provide the teachers with experiential knowledge of co-operative learning, a learner-centred approach advocated by C2005, and to promote their understanding of the OBE curriculum design principle of 'design down' associated with C2005. In modeling as it did co-operative learning and peer assessment, the workshop was intended as a means of 'opening up' co-operative learning for critique from within.

Unlike the learning experience described in Text Box 4 above, where the teachers mimicked my template for enacting a shift to criterion-referenced assessment, in the co-operative workshop they received a tightly structured conceptual and pedagogical framework but not the means to achieve their goals. As shown in the workshop materials in the case record [CR 11], the tasks required the teachers to construct, rather than transfer and apply, knowledge using the resources and structures provided. Further, it was organised in such a way that they had to depend on the members of their groups to achieve their goal, namely the design of a new outcomes-based unit of work. In addition to the frameworks I provided, they also used the Learning Profile document they had developed as a tool to support their learning.

The learning process was characterised by high levels of participation, interaction and negotiation. Following Prawat (1992:380), I use the term negotiate to describe the nature of the social interaction in the classroom. Negotiate means being able to overcome obstacles and reach agreement on important matters. It does not mean that conflict and disagreement do not exist. According to Prawat (1996:94), the norms of interaction in a constructivist learning environment must legitimate dissent. This is seen as necessary for establishing trust relationships that are pre-requisite for a strong and vibrant learning community. Similarly, Fullan (2002:204) is emphatic that conflict and dissent are fundamental for successful change. Donald et al. (2002:128) help to clarify this by saying that learning involves challenge and cognitive conflict, both of which are enabled through peer interaction. There is evidence in the intervention that dissent was a catalyst for learning that may not otherwise have happened.

Linked to the discussion above and of significance in terms of the knowledge recontextualisation that took place in the intervention, is the contention that constructivist classrooms require teachers with deep and strong discipline knowledge, which Richardson (2003:1631) explains as referring to the structure of the discipline as well as its epistemological framework. There is evidence in the intervention indicating that it was because the teachers were authorities in their disciplines that they were able to engage in debate and challenge each other at the level that they did.

There was always a healthy amount of disagreement in the team. It became more visible as the teachers became more comfortable with each other. It intensified abruptly when I confronted them with proposals for radical innovation, for example, the development of an integrated HSS theme, which challenged the integrity of their discipline and their authority within the discipline, and forced them out of their comfort zones. For this reason, I purposively delayed trying to advocate radical change until I felt that there was a sufficient level of trust in the group.

Text Box 4 contains edited excerpts from a focus group in which the development of an integrated HSS theme was being discussed. It illuminates the nature of the dissent and level of argument that took place in the team. It also provides evidence of how my suggestions of change initiated from 'outside' were challenged, mediated and re-directed from within.

TEXT BOX 4

Dale: We have before us a task of seeing how far we can go in finding a common approach to an integrated theme for the Human and Social Sciences. I thought in terms of the procedure, let's see, we've got Di's letter to us, dated the twelfth of July, where we are encouraged to 'throw caution to the wind'. Obviously the role that Di has played in my view has been very interesting because she has been a catalyst, she's been a source of resources and of ideas, but I want to propose that in the beginning we at least discuss the prospect of putting what Di suggested we use on one side and see whether any other ideas came forward was taken as the core and the yardstick against which we should be making our decision, which is in itself interesting.

How did we approach Di's intervention? Did we see it as 'well, that's it and let's go for it', or did we have any independent ideas? Maybe that's the issue that we should start off with. In her letter, Di encouraged us to look at the descriptions of Human and Social Sciences and for me it raised the question that I posed when we started drafting the Learner Profile of, are we going to take a 'soft' or 'hard' approach to HSS? And that's part of our decision making today. Do we want to stitch something together in a fairly loose sort of way or do we want to create an entirely new genre if you like, which is hard, an HSS product rather than a stitching together of history and geography? For me those are the big procedural questions.

Any independent thought other than what Di has suggested or are we going to start with what I suggested and then are we going to go for a model that is more loosely configured or one which is a new creation?

Richard: I have to say that we were sidetracked. We only operated off the document, part of which we did not receive We only looked at unit four and thought it was a bit restrictive and as a result of that we said, okay, fine, what are we going to do, and we went off on a different tangent, but linked to what is on the document. We went on to the idea of a different sort of topic, but I think it is adaptable. Do you want to know, do you want to know which direction in which we were going at this stage, or do you want to hear...

Dale: Well, just, just let's get a sense as to how we responded to Di's intervention and whether we are seeing it as an organising core or whether we've got independent ideas.

Colin: I think from a history perspective the subject is very much event-based, um, so I don't think we can use Di's guideline as we found it was geared towards geography as opposed to history, and we felt that if we could possibly find an event that would lend itself to both subjects, that might be the route to go and we did decide on a possible event...

Dale: Okay let's hear.

Colin: Soweto 1976, was an event we thought might be an idea...

Cathy: Sorry, what would the, what would be the position of attack? What would you, how would you approach, what would you do, just so that I can get in my head where the geographers would fit in. I have an idea, but I just don't know how you'd tackle it, what would you do?

James: I'd try to look at the event Soweto 1976, and then bring in the backlash from history's side, Black Nationalism, government resistance, education… and from the geographers' side, urbanisation, migrant labour, resources...
Cathy: All the things we did, only you took a different...

Tracy: We (history) also have a module on human rights which we need to address and we haven't looked at it so far. It's very important and this does lend itself to that, this is one completely ignored outcome.

Dale: I think this dynamic around events, and they tend to be political events, that are dominant in the way school history is taught, and then maybe the orientation around themes in geography… I've got Cathy's thoughts, which presumably summarises a lot of discussion that the geographers had, it's very theme-based and if we look at Di's suggestions, they are theme-based and that's quite an interesting tension, I think, between the two disciplines. To what extent do you start with the events and extrapolate themes from them, or do you use themes and stitch events into them?

Cathy: I don't think it's impossible to take an event out of the theme at all, if that's what you do then one can deal with history of urbanisation through rural dispossession and the putting of people in the townships, I mean that's what Soweto is - a south west township region, the dispossession of land, the repossession of land, the enforcement of migrant labour, all of those topics that have been outlined can come out of the topic…

- **Learning through practice and trial and error**

According to Smagorinsky, Cook & Johnson (2003:1406), practice is a central activity in learning for understanding. They argue for practice as "a recurrent, goal-directed sequence of activities" which they contend is best achieved through communities of practice. They advocate learners being engaged in "joint activity" (ibid.). In this study, learning through practice and trial and error indeed proved important. It was the informing dynamic in the teachers' designing and developing criterion-referenced assessment tasks and descriptive rubrics, presenting them to the HSS team, implementing and trialling them with Grade 9 classes, evaluating and reflecting and then taking action to improve on what had been done. This process highlights the recursive nature of learning and provides evidence to support Fullan's (1993:5) claim that deep understanding needs time, practice and "continuous corrective analysis and action".

Text Box 5 contains excerpts which illuminate the teachers' struggle to develop a criterion-referenced assessment, and their experience of being the recipient of peer evaluation.

TEXT BOX 5

And that's where I really, really battled, and I think that was for most of us. And eventually I came up with something, we went to the next meeting, and believe it or not, Dale and Di and everyone just ripped it apart. Which was great, which was excellent, and eventually, after all the arguing and everything, we came up with something that was workable.
Colin, March 2002 [DF 52]

By October 2002, the teachers were commenting as follows:

Colin: I've appreciated Di and Dale's ability to rip things apart and actually put it back together where it's better. I suppose it's a huge cheek when it is something that you have worked on for hours, but then, to see the final product as being better than what you initially came up with, can be quite positive as well.

Cathy: But I think it is something that is often lacking in a school environment, which is what this process gives us. The security to say 'you're talking rubbish' and you not getting upset.

Dale: For me it's a paradigm shift from simply seeing yourself as a teacher to seeing yourself as a learner at the same time… As we reflect on the whole learning process - through assessment issues, or whatever, and in engaging with curriculum issues – how we think about it, how we learn and that learning means accepting criticism and building trust groups…

- **Learning through reflection and reflexivity**

The development of learners' meta-awareness of their learning processes is an important tenet of constructivist pedagogy (Richardson, 2003:1627). Reflection was an ongoing process taking place on two levels: the teacher as a teacher, and the teacher as a learner. In terms of the former it focused on analysing and evaluating the classroom innovations and activities developed for the new curriculum. Key questions were: what worked, what did not and what needed to be done to enhance or change the innovation before further use? This was usually an informal part of our ongoing weekly professional conversations, and it focused on improving practice.

The second type of reflection was focused on the professional learning that was taking place. When the intervention began, my intention was for the teachers to keep reflective journals. For various reasons, primarily time, this was an unrealistic expectation. Reflection on learning nevertheless occurred informally, and formally, in focus group discussions, some of which were audio- or video-recorded and transcribed. More or less half-way through the intervention, we held a focus group discussion, chaired by a teacher, at which the group members reflected on their individual and group interviews, the transcriptions of which had been provided beforehand [DF 53]. Text Box 6 contains excerpts from this focus group discussion that provide valuable insights into the teachers' perceptions of learning.

TEXT BOX 6

James: I agree with Colin. Drawing up rubrics and looking at what we did initially was daunting for me and I found it really hard – difficult to understand, difficult to draw rubrics. As we moved away from the rubrics and started to plan work - like the Soweto project - I found it more interesting, more stimulating. I enjoyed that.

Ann: Can I comment on what James and Colin have said? Perhaps if we hadn't done the rubrics initially, we would not have had a grasp of the outcomes or the assessment criteria that we needed when planning work such as the Soweto project…

Colin: I agree with what you're saying. But now the assessment, which what was driving us has changed (the postponement of the GETC)…

Dale: What I found so helpful about the focus on assessment, is that I think it is an ignored area in the educational process. We look at the end product as a mark and we don't always reflect on how we actually – what we are testing for – and so to rub our noses in it a little was good – for us to sit up and say: How do we define what we are trying to achieve? It is obviously linked to outcomes. And you don't notice it so much because perhaps it is just part of our bloodstream, as they way we approach things…

Later in the discussion, they spoke about my role

Dale: We have a few minutes left and I'd like us to address, as a group, our reflections on Di as an outsider coming in and what significance it has had for our process…

Colin: I come back to the idea of the journey. To me, Di is the petrol station. Every tine we need to be filled up, the brakes and oil need to be checked…

Cathy: The mechanic!

Sandy: A lifesaver.

Dale: A lifesaver? What about 'cracking the whip at the circus?'

Sandy: It's very gentle!

Cathy: Di has provided the focus and the steps along the way...

Sandy: The skeleton in the body.

Tracy: The compass.

Ann: That's a good one.

Dale: The compass?

Ann: To read the map.

Dale: A compass is a good one.

Cathy: For the map we do not have!

James: Can we discuss vicious academic?
(much joking and laughter)

Richard: I think keeping our focus has been very important because it is easy to lose focus, I was concerned that we were going to, and Di knows where we are going and she says we are going to get there and it's been comforting. And now we feel more comfortable with the developments for next year (GETC) and we will manage whereas before I was not sure bout where we were – we were clowning around making independent decisions but not really knowing what we were doing. So I found Di very useful.

Dale: Would it be fair to say that, if you think about change over time, that Di was much more interventive [sic] in the beginning? The rubrics and the timetable…

Colin: Yes.

Dale: I foresee she's stepped back from the process, which I think has been important for the group. Maybe we know she is still there as it were, but I think that when you [Richard] said Di knows where we are going – I don't know if that is accurate – for the latter part of our process. I think we are now on our own definition of what we are doing and, I think, that's been quite critical in the way Di has read that and the need to step back a little from the process. And it raises the question: For curriculum development to happen, what are the necessary catalysts? Does it have to be an outsider or could it be that certain people on the teaching staff take it on as a portfolio to get groups like this going and to connect with the literature?

Sandy: There are time constraints.

Colin: It has to be an outsider.

Dale: It has to be an outsider?

Colin: Yes, within the school environment, you are so caught up in the everyday running, you need someone to come in a break that.

Cathy: To generate the necessary amount of fear.

The following excerpts are from an interview conducted in February 2003, a year after the intervention began. They provide insights into the nature of the learning that was taking place.

TEXT BOX 7

Ann: At the beginning of last year, I felt as though I was very familiar with the theoretical side of the new framework having just come out of university and having completed my PGCE. I thought it would be a lot easier for me having all this theory, but it was not necessarily the case. I think you may be familiar with the theory but it is at a superficial level, and I think my year of teaching last year allowed me to explore the theory in the light of practice, and to practice the theory…

I still don't feel that I have grasped everything yet. I think it's still developing, even after a year of doing theory. I think, for teachers who haven't done a PGCE it must be even more daunting because they are one step behind…

Di: You mentioned earlier that implementing OBE requires a deep understanding, and that you see this team work approach as helping you to acquire that. Do you think there is a problem with the way the IEB workshop developed your understanding?

Ann: I do not think you can develop a deep understanding at a short workshop over a day or a few days, and I think that is something that the IEB and the department of education have to realize. It's a process that requires a lot of exploration, a lot of trial and error, it requires a lot of reflection, a lot of hard work, a lot of failure along the way and learning from your mistakes, and I do not think a day or four day workshop allows for that… particularly when you are put into groups and you are not comfortable with the people you are working with because at these workshops you are either put with people from different schools or they are from departments that are not collaborating. So you do not have the trust and the respect, you don't have that relationship that we have developed over the past year…

The following excerpts are from the focus group discussion chaired by an outside evaluator in November 2003, the end of the intervention [CR 12]. The teachers had been asked to reflect on the research process and the learning that had taken place.

TEXT BOX 8

Ann: We felt that Di was the catalyst for the changes in our teaching. Well, because Sandy went to her and said she was confused about something because Di happened to be at that IEB meeting. And from then on I think she was responsible for driving the group on initially, but then I think as each person became more involved and each person became more interested, we saw these Wednesday afternoons as a time to think about teaching and learning, and a time to think about very different perspectives and be involved in different types of thinking that we may never normally do, with setting work and being involved with learners, so it created something that was interesting, and I think most of us are very self-motivated to come here and work and, yes, because, it was quite hard.

Cathy: One of the differences between the IEB intervention and Di's intervention was that we were given space to challenge and we've been given material in terms of preparation, so it would be: "Go and do your homework and come back with your interpretation, your understanding, let's see where you're right, let's see where you're wrong", and she sort of modelled what we should be doing in the classroom - that sense of being the centre of the teaching process, whereas with IEB workshops are the most appalling examples of teacher-directedness – "we know what we have to do and we are going to tell you how to do it."

So it's with the involvement and the participation that we have been able to feel empowered to say: "No, we don't agree". I remember a very interesting moment last year, right at the end of the year, it was on a Sunday, because we had some work that we had to do on… it was a departmental thing and Di was mortified that we hadn't asked her to come along. And we said: "We can't bother you on a Sunday afternoon and we're quite capable of doing this on our own." It was like cutting the umbilical cord. And I remember her saying that it was a nice moment, but she wasn't sure that she liked it. But it was only through her intervention and the nature of it that we grew in confidence to be able to challenge and say no…

Sandy: I must say that Di gave us confidence, gave me confidence. It was having someone among us who knew what she was doing, knew where she was going. It gave us all the confidence that we gradually became more and more independent. Because we didn't know what to do, but she showed us a way, and although we didn't always follow her way, we had her tools, crutches to help as get on our way. We couldn't just roll over and say I can't do this, I don't know what to do, or stay confused.

Dale: Just a few thoughts about the human process of the group... (inaudible) There are some older people and some younger people, there are some who've been teaching a long time and some who've just started and I think that interplay has really helped. Yes, I think different of the different arenas in a school. This has been a very important part of that. And all of these things raise a question of replicability. Can you photocopy this experience? Having an external catalyst, having Di as you may realise was not just on a professional involvement here, she's had her own galvanising motives for being here. If she hadn't had that, she probably would not have approached us. That catalytic role drive-role that has been reinforced now is very unusual and then to have the particular mix that I see here and to see if this could be replicated. There has been a distinct sense of change here.

Sandy: We had two heads of department, a principal and two deputy heads in this group. So you had the very top decision-makers and the 'rubble' at the other end. But it's been very useful to have that. It's been critical… (inaudible).

Cathy: Well I suppose it also gives you the support. You don't think: "Oh well, I'm going to get to the classroom and it's going to be a waste of time. So it's added that stimulus and support.

Sandy: And I think the relationship between History and Geography and us, as individuals, is very strong and I think that we'll want to meet next year because we have this tremendous bond.

Cathy: We don't always agree!

Richard: We have a unique situation and it is often related to many other team efforts, wherever you are - if you happen to have the right combination at the right time under the right kind of leadership teams' are successful and for it to happen again. It may fall away and the right combination might not ever come up again with this chemistry. We've got to accept that and say: "Well, we grasped it when it was here".

Joanne:Okay, just one more thing I want to ask, are things in terms of teaching and learning, are they better or are they worse or is it the same?

Colin: The change has been good.

Jo: Anything that makes you stop and think about what are you doing, even if you don't change anything, is good, it's enriching, it's motivating.

Ann: Yes, Jo that's it. This group's been enriching. And that is what has motivated people to come here every Wednesday through thick and thin.

All the learning experiences provided through the intervention, irrespective of how tightly structured and controlled they were or what strategy they used, were characterised by an interactive, dialogical, participatory and activity-based approach which involved the teachers both socially and individually in knowledge construction and meaning-making.

Planning was usually done collaboratively, either inter- or intra-departmentally at our HSS weekly meetings, with the development work usually being done in between meetings, the latter being mostly, but not entirely, an individual as opposed to group effort. In this way, a balance between group and individual learning was maintained and the potential danger of group-think avoided. Importantly, too, the balance gave the teachers space for creativity and individuality.

The intervention contains evidence that I played a pivotal role in mediating and scaffolding learning, and that with time, and as the teachers' experience of OBE increased, my approach shifted from being formally structured, directive and didactic in nature to being less structured and more facilitatory. Importantly, a constructivist pedagogy, unlike the naïve view of constructivism promoted at official teacher training workshops and in curriculum documents (as explained in Chapter 3), accepts that learners make meaning from "encounters in a transmission mode of teaching such as lectures or direct instruction" (Richardson, 2003:1630). Strategies for scaffolding included the use of exemplars, for example, my learning profile document and the criterion-referenced assessment sheet, and different frameworks which I created and which we used as conceptual props. These included an assessment and curriculum

audit sheet [CR 6, pp.43-44], the diagrams described above [CR 3], and a criterion-referenced framework for evaluating the CTA [CR 6, pp.47-48].

The fruits of the teachers' work as contained in the Case Record provide substantive evidence of a meaning-making process that enabled their acquisition of the rules needed for selective appropriation and transformation of curriculum knowledge, and how with time and experience, this happened at increasingly sophisticated levels of recontextualisation.

In this section, I have provided evidence which suggests that through an explicit interactional pedagogy characterised by a high level of participation, discussion, negotiation based on consensus and dissent, shared decision-making, trust and genuine collaboration, the teachers made meaning of the new curriculum and assessment framework. I have analysed the meaning-making model that enabled the teachers to empower themselves epistemologically and learn the rules for recontextualising knowledge, that is, to understand what the OBE policy framework requires and to acquire the skills to realise this in practice. Furthermore, there is evidence in the case record [CR 6, pp.54-56; CR 7, pp.85-92] indicating that the learners acquired the evaluation rules and demonstrated the kind of learning intended by the new curriculum.

An analysis of the meaning-making process associated with this learning revealed that the teachers were:

- actively engaged in the construction of knowledge
- engaged in a variety of activities and experiences in which their ideas and practices were acknowledged, built on and challenged, modified and transformed
- learning in an interactive and experiential way
- engaged in learning that was both individual and social
- mediated, scaffolded and facilitated by a more experienced learner
- acquiring additional layers of understanding at increasingly sophisticated levels.

In my analysis of the teachers' meaning-making process, I have provided evidence of constructivist learning in action and a constructivist teaching approach supporting that learning. I have explicated and made visible the various learning processes that are frequently described in the literature (McLaughlin, 1998; Marlowe & Page, 1998; Moll, 2001. 2002, Moll, Gultig, Bradbury & Winkler, 2001, Prawat, 1992, 1996; Donald et al. 2002; Guskey, 2002; Richardson, 2003; Smagorinsky, Cook & Johnson, 2003).

There is also evidence suggesting that the meaning-making process required time, as well as regular and ongoing support from a more experienced professional mediator. The model of teacher professional development underlying the meaning-making process is outlined in the next section.

8.5 The model of teacher professional development that supported recontextualisation

In the previous section, I analysed and discussed the teachers' meaning-making activities and the teaching approach that supported them. Underpinning this was a particular pedagogical approach and model of teacher professional development. These were outlined and justified in Chapter 5 and the Research Reports (CR 6 & 7). In Chapter 6 and Section 8.4, above, I described what the approach and model consisted of in practice. I do not wish to go over the same ground, so have distilled key features of the model and summarised these in Table 8.1, below.

Table 8.1: Key features of the teacher professional development model

Key feature	Evidence
Work together, work away	At the weekly HSS meetings, I provided points of reference to curriculum change and structured purposeful intra- and inter-departmental activities. These mediated and modelled change in a participatory way. During the work away sessions, the teachers worked individually or in groups planning and then implementing innovations in their classrooms. Recontextualisation involved both group and individual efforts.
A participatory and collaborative approach	As explained in Chapters 5 and 7, the approach adopted was based on democratic principles and respect for persons. The view of teachers was a positive rather than a deficit one. The teachers were treated as equals and co-learners and were involved in joint decision-making. Decisions were negotiated as were the roles and responsibilities in the HSS team. The approach engendered confidence and provided support and encouragement for the creative appropriation and transformation of curriculum knowledge that took place during the two years.
Ambiguity and uncertainty	The approach recognised that change was an ongoing, multi-faceted and complex process characterised by difficulties and challenges and full of opportunities. I did not purport to provide recipes or quick-fix solutions. There is evidence which suggests that teachers as recontextualisers of curriculum have to learn to live with uncertainty.
Flexible and responsive to the teachers' needs and context	The approach was a contextualised one which worked with authentic practice. There is evidence which suggests that in working as we did with the teachers' existing practices, they developed the confidence needed to experiment with new approaches, which involved them recontextualising curriculum knowledge. My approach was attentive to the needs of the teachers. At the same time, teachers need to be provoked into recontextualising rather than reproducing knowledge.
A constructivist approach to learning	The pedagogical approach was process-orientated, activity-based and learner-centred. There was a high level of discussion and debate, with conflict and dissent recognised as productive and integral to learning.
A long term view of professional development	The intensity and duration of the intervention (working alongside the teachers in a weekly basis for a period of two years) provides evidence of the time and effort necessary for teachers to become recontextualisers as opposed to simply reproducing someone else's curriculum knowledge.
Teachers as agents of change	The model acknowledged and promoted a socially critical orientation to education through explicit values education, a focus on enquiry-based learning and greater attention to issues of social justice, environment sustainability and human rights. This was evident in the shift towards issues-based enquiries developed by the teachers, the explication of values in the Learning Process

Key feature	Evidence
	map, which they developed, the emphasis on human rights in a South African context (the Soweto project) and environmental sustainability (the land issue enquiry in 2004), and a shift towards greater learner participation in lessons and increased learner reflection on learning.
A pedagogical approach based on the principle of 'fitness for purpose'	The use of and modeling of different teaching and learning strategies based on the notion of what is appropriate for athe context at any given time. It included: structured, co-operative groupwork; informal group work and discussion; 'traditional' expository teaching; issues- and enquiry-based learning and practical workshops.
An emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge as understanding	The approach emphasised deep learning, that is, an understanding of the concepts and principles of the curriculum, as well as procedural knowledge. It was aligned to the applied competences described in policy (DoE, 2000). The model recognised that deep understanding does not happen quickly. It takes time, practice, regular feedback, support and encouragement.
Teachers as critically reflective and reflexive practitioners	The approach was one of reflection and reflexivity. These were enabled through the various activities, and through ongoing dialogue about what was being done, how and why it was being done as it was, and the actions necessary for improvement.
The recognition of the centrality and importance of the teacher in the learning process	The approach was one that recognised the importance of the teacher as a learning mediator, scaffolder and guide. The authority of the teacher was important. The recontextualising of knowledge was modelled through good practice.

Table 8.1 displays the pedagogical approach and model of teacher professional development that enabled the teachers to become recontextualisers of curriculum knowledge. It is the very antithesis of the official 'cascade model' being used in South Africa. The problem with the approach is that, although highly successful, it was enormously expense in terms of time and effort. In providing a glimpse of what 'might be', it raises the question of the extent to which it might plausibly be replicated.

8.6 The environment supportive of recontextualisation

The analysis in this chapter has shown that both the national and school environments were conducive to change and the recontextualising of knowledge that took place in the study. The national environment is characterised by the flexible C2005 framework

and an outcomes-based educational orientation that advocates the devolving of curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom. Ironically, the poor support offered by the IEB, in triggering as it did a school-based intervention, was an indirect catalyst for the recontextualising of knowledge that took place.

There is evidence in this study to support MacLaughlin's (2002:183) argument that institutional receptivity – that is, the readiness and willingness of a school to accept change – is a necessary but not sufficient condition for successful change. In this study, I have provided evidence indicating that there was institutional and teacher receptivity to change. This was supported by an approach to teacher professional development that provided the teachers with a sense of involvement and experiential learning. It was collaborative, engendering confidence in the teachers and breaking down their tradition of isolation, while nurturing in them a sense of ownership of the curriculum in terms of both processes and products.

There is evidence, in Chapter 6 and the Case Record, of a high level of support and hands-on involvement on the part of senior school management in the curriculum development processes that took place in the intervention. The commitment of senior teachers to the process and their preparedness to be active participants and expose themselves, often playing a lead role in the taking of risks, was an inspiration to the other teachers. There was a high level of trust, both vertical between the teachers and the management of the schools, and horizontal, among the teachers intra- and inter-departmentally. Whereas in the case of the History teachers, there was an established relationship of trust and collegiality, in the case of Geography teachers, two of whom were new, this was built up through the participatory and collaborative approach adopted by the intervention.

The mix of teachers, young and old, experienced and inexperienced, was also an enabling factor, as was the teachers' strong discipline knowledge. According to Richardson (2003:1631), deep and strong discipline knowledge is important in professional development. Successful professional learning requires "knowledge of the structure of the discipline and well as its epistemological framework"(ibid.:1631). Because of their sound discipline knowledge base, the teachers were able to challenge their own thinking and practice, as well as those advocated by C2005, at a conceptual

as opposed to merely a procedural level. This study thus provides evidence supporting the arguments for teachers' discipline knowledge (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999; Chisholm, 2000; Mattson & Harley, 2003), as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.

There is evidence in the Case Record and thesis which shows that because the teachers had strong discipline knowledge, they could work meaningfully with a curriculum framework located in Mode 2 knowledge (Muller, 2000; Matton & Harley, 2003). Again, because of their strong discipline knowledge, the teachers did not become victims of the technicalities and procedures of C2005. It also meant that they were not deterred by C2005's under-specification of content and lack of conceptual progression. On the contrary, because of their sound subject knowledge, they were able to maximise the opportunities to recontextualise the curriculum in self-determining and creative ways. As a result, they enhanced learning in Grade 9, rejuvenated their teaching, and – importantly – did not in the process compromise their values. They were able to harness and maximise the opportunities contained in an educational framework that has been described as the most liberal and adventurous in the world (Malcolm, 2001:209).

The strong culture of learning at the schools, evident in the regular attendance and ongoing commitment to the process, and the stability due to the low turnover of staff during the two years, were also important factors.

There is evidence that the teachers' valued the role I played as an outside facilitator and appreciated my engendering in them the confidence to take risks. They also appear to have valued the honest and constructively critical feedback I gave them on their learning. The latter is seen as crucial for teacher change (Guskey, 2002:387). The participatory and collaborative research approach helped to create the high level of trust and respect needed for change. It also facilitated teacher buy-in and ownership of the process through shared decision-making and negotiation.

Importantly, there is evidence of a 'community of inquiry' or 'learning community' (Prawat, 1991:756; 1996:108; McLaughlin, 1998:76; Hargreaves, 2002:393) in which there was 'real' as opposed to contrived collegiality and a high level of trust, and which allowed for difference and dissent. Importantly, there is evidence endorsing

Prawat's contention that social constructivism supports the development of a learning community based on commitment instead of control (1996:108). There is also evidence validating assertions made in the literature about the time needed for deep change (Fullan, 2002) and the messiness associated with 'real' change (Prawat, 1996:108).

8.7 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter, I have analysed *what* happened in the intervention in terms of knowledge recontextualisation by creating and applying a heuristic that enabled me to understand the processes of knowledge recontextualisation in relation to the structure and functioning of teachers in the national system. I demonstrated how the loose functioning of the system together with the outcomes-based orientation and the flexible design of C2005 were enabling mechanisms for the teachers to become recontextualisers of curriculum.

I have analysed the social constructivist meaning-making process, the model of professional development underpinned by critically reflexive practice, and the environment which was conducive to the teachers' empowering themselves epistemologically and learning to recognise the rules of recontextualisation.

In this chapter, I showed how, by working with Bernstein's (1990, 1996) theory of pedagogy, his rules of recontextualisation and his model of the pedagogic field, I resolved the issue of *how* and *why* recontextualisation took place as it did in the intervention. In the next chapter, I focus on understanding the consequences epistemological empowerment had in terms of teacher authority and power.

CHAPTER 9

KNOWLEDGE RECONTEXTUALISATION: THE POLITICAL DIMENSION

9.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the consequences – in terms of teacher authority and voice – of the teachers' epistemological empowerment and acquisition of the rules of recontextualisation. Prawat (1991:748) maintains that although political empowerment is harder to pin down than epistemological empowerment, it is recognisable in the greater sense of control and professional autonomy that teachers acquire. My intention is to probe *how* and *why,* by re-positioning themselves within the field of recontextualisation, the teachers disturbed functional boundaries and power relations in their favour. More specifically, my intention in this chapter is to understand:

- the significance of *what* happened at the three workshops run by the IEB,[47] the organisation responsible for overseeing and supporting national curriculum implementation at the two schools, in relation to the teachers' repositioning within the recontextualising field ;

- how the power relation between the teachers and the IEB official/s was created, maintained and transformed as the teachers acquired curriculum knowledge and experience (and by inference the rules of recontextualisation) through the intervention; and

- the factors which enabled or militated against the teachers' sustaining their voice.

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[47] The IEB Circular to principals (No 65/2001) stated that the IEB would provide support and training for teachers for the new GETC assessment model.

In order to realise these intentions, I returned for evidence to the data files.

The chapter consists of four parts. In the first, I analyse three IEB workshops that took place during the intervention. Secondly, I take up a Bernstein vantage point to generate insights for understanding the issues of power and control identified above. Thirdly, I investigate what has happened in terms of the teachers' voice and participation in national curriculum processes since my withdrawal from the schools at the end of 2003. Finally, I synthesise and conclude the discussion.

9.2 Analysis of the IEB workshops

During 2002 and 2003, three IEB workshops were held at the schools researched in this study. Their nature and purpose are summarised in Table 9.1. I have cross-referenced the data sources to the relevant data files and case records.

Table 9.1: Summary of the IEB workshops

	Workshop 1	**Workshop 2**	**Workshop 3**
Data source	DF 5 Teacher Interviews [DF17] RJ02, p.2	DF 28 Teachers' oral reflections (taped and transcribed) RJ02, pp.32-33.	DF 66 Teachers' written reflections RJ03, p.27
Date	18 January 2002	30 May 2002	9-10 June 2003
Duration	12h00-15h00	08h30-15h30	14h14-17h00 08h30-13h00
Purpose	-To provide an overview of the GET Grade 9 assessment model -To design a Common Assessment Task working in Learning Areas	-To update teachers on GETC developments -To provide information on the FET roll-out process	-To learn one process for setting an outcomes-based assessment (OBA) task and activity -To produce an outline of a task and an activity within the task -To feel confident about OBA
Number of presenters	One	One	Team of three

	Workshop 1	Workshop 2	Workshop 3
Handouts provided and resources used to support teacher learning	- One page summary of the critical and specific outcomes of C2005.	- Grade 9 assessment guideline document (undated) available for photocopying during the workshop - Summary of Grade 9 assessment - Summary of Learning Area Specific Outcomes and 'core' outcomes	- 17 page document which contained a detailed program of the workshop, the breakdown of time and activities, and an assessment task exemplar - Copy of powerpoint slides used during the workshop - Workshop Evaluation sheet

I have already described and provided a critical commentary on the first workshop in documents generated during the intervention [CR 5, 6 and 7], and in Chapter 6 (Section 6.3.1) of this thesis, and – although my focus is now on issues of power and authority – some repetition may be unavoidable.

9.2.1 Workshop One: 18 January 2002

Using observations and field notes made during the workshop [DF 5], I compiled the following record of its proceedings and my responses to them [RJ02, pp.1-3]:

> The purpose of the workshop was two-fold. First, it was to give the teachers information. To this end they were provided with an overview of the new assessment model for the GETC which was articulated using OBE 'newspeak'. New assessment instruments – the Common Assessment Tasks (CATs) and External Tasks for Assessment (ETAs) – were outlined and portfolios mentioned. Secondly, the workshop engaged the teachers in a practical task, namely working in learning area groups to design a CAT. Task support material consisting of a one-page summary of the critical outcomes and 66 specific outcomes of C2005, was provided.
>
> I noticed how the teachers in the Human and Social Sciences (HSS) group spent the time allocated to the task trying to make sense of the jargon, including for example, critical and specific outcome, before shifting to a discussion of the need to explicate geography and history concepts and skills as pre-requisites for orienting teaching and learning.

In response to Sandy's request for information on the HSS learning area after the workshop, I gathered up some curriculum documents – the C2005 learning area statement and a copy of the draft Revised National Curriculum Social Sciences learning area statement together with a copy of the Grade 8 HSS textbook I co-authored, which I popped into Sandy's pigeon-hole at school.

The workshop was problematic for a number of reasons… In 'telling' teachers about imminent assessment changes in Grade 9, no effort was made to locate or explain the changes in relation to the larger systemic changes associated with the National Qualifications Framework, etc. The workshop assumed that the teachers were familiar with collaborative inter-departmental planning processes. The discussions at the HSS table revealed that this was the first time history and geography teachers had engaged in inter-departmental discussions.

No plenary session was held after the group activity. This meant that the teachers left the workshop without a sense of what had, or had not, been achieved in the different learning areas, and without an opportunity to ask questions or raise issues. As a result, many teachers left the workshop frustrated, confused and angered by what had transpired.

Analysis of the workshop, from the viewpoint of the teachers as the learners or acquirers in the pedagogical relationship, yielded the following:

- The teachers lacked information on the new curriculum (evident in Sandy's request), and although it was no fault of the IEB, this raises questions about the quality and efficiency of the communication about educational change to teachers working at the site where change is intended.

- There was a significant disjuncture between national curriculum policy and practice at the two schools in terms of the curriculum orientation. The schools' orientation was discipline-based with History and Geography being taught and learned as discrete and autonomous subjects.

- The teachers' social relationships were different from those advocated by C2005's integrated learning area curriculum organisation. The teachers had no experience of working inter-departmentally.

- The OBE curriculum orientation, design features (integrated learning areas), and language (critical and specific outcomes) used by the IEB official were

inaccessible to the teachers. They were unable to make sense of the task support material provided. From this one may infer on their part a meagre knowledge base.[48] There is evidence which supports the observation made in Chapter 3 (Section 3.4) that, due to a lack of participation in curriculum development processes, the teachers suddenly found themselves in a whole new world of education. Importantly, the workshop did not orientate or help the teachers to find their bearings.

- The assessment task required the application of curriculum knowledge. That the teachers did not manage the task suggests that their knowledge of C005 was scanty.

The implications for the IEB were as follows:

- The approach in the first half was a top-down, authoritarian transmission of information by the IEB official to the teachers – the 'learners and acquirers' in the pedagogical relationship at the workshop. This was done in a decontextualised way without any attempt to elicit the teachers' prior knowledge with a view to challenging, building on and enhancing their understanding.

- The approach in the second half of the workshop was one of discovery learning in which the teachers, working in groups, were left to discover knowledge that existed 'out there'. The workshop provides evidence to support Parker's (2003:30) contention that learner-centred pedagogy has been focused on learners "self-driven search" for knowledge, which serves to decentre the teacher and diminish his/her role to that of a facilitator. What happened at the workshop mirrored what is happening in schools.

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[48] There were two notable exceptions in the HSS group which need to be mentioned. In the interviews conducted after the workshop, one teacher who had only started teaching at the one school in January 2002 described himself as having considerable experience of OBE because of his university-teaching background and involvement in learning support materials development. For whatever reasons, including possibly that he was new and still 'sussing out' the environment, he did not offer any direction or support for the HSS group at the workshop. Another teacher, a beginner teacher and ex-student of mine, had knowledge - at least at a theoretical level - of OBE curriculum design procedures and assessment. Her silence at the workshop was also possibly due to her being new and still feeling her way.

- The activity was a decontextualised learning experience in that it made no reference to the teachers' current practice. It assumed that learning was generic and transferable, that is, capable of taking place in a vacuum divorced from classroom practice and then being carried over from the workshop to the classroom. This is evidence of the 'blindness to context' that Jansen (2003:39) explains as the tendency to treat all schools in the same way.

- The group-activity approach was based on discovery learning that was regulated by the group. The IEB official did not mediate or support the process. Instead she played the role of facilitator. This suggests a naïve and simplistic understanding of learner-centred education that equates constructivism with group regulated learning, discovery learning and activities in which learners are kept busy but often do not learn much (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999:231; Janse Van Rensburg & Lotz-Sisitka, 2001:108). One can thus understand why the teachers did not demonstrate the intended learning.

- The handout provided, namely a one-page summary of the critical and specific outcomes of C2005, was inadequate for supporting the workshop activity. Further, it contained decontextualised OBE language that interfered with the teachers' meaningful engagement with the new assessment technology (the design of a new assessment instrument, the CAT).

- The learner-centred pedagogy used at the workshop, while involving teachers in curriculum developmental processes that promoted the idea of participatory bottom-up curriculum orientation, in fact only served to mask the hierarchical power relation between the IEB and the teachers.

- The teachers were 'told' about assessment changes, the emphasis being on the technicalities of policy. They were asked to design an OBA task, for which they received rudimentary and inappropriate support (the one page summary of the outcomes). Procedural knowledge was privileged with no attention given to declarative knowledge. There is a growing body of evidence which suggests that unless learners, be they teachers undergoing OBE 'training' or

children in classrooms, understand and engage with the concepts and principles underlying the material, the learning of it will at best be shallow (Jansen, 1999:209; Chisholm, 2000:18; Ensor et al, 2002 as cited in Taylor, Muller and Vinjevold, 2003:80). (I accept that there were severe time constraints, but nevertheless question the appropriateness of what was done in the time available.)

- Despite providing information and updating the teachers in curriculum processes, the workshop did little, if anything, to promote or support acquisition of the conceptual understanding and skills needed for meaningful engagement with outcomes-based curriculum design and the developmental processes necessary for the new assessment model. The pedagogical approach thus trivialised learning and helped to maintain the subordinate and weak positioning of teachers as reproducers of someone else's interpretation of the curriculum. The approach was contrary to OBE policy ideals of devolving curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom.

- The approach helped to maintain the high level of teacher dependency on an outside authority for curriculum interpretation that has been so prevalent in the past, and which new policies are striving to change (DoE, 2001). When viewed in this perspective, the workshop served to disempower the teachers.

- There was a significant disjuncture between the approach to teacher professional education taken at the IEB workshop and that advocated by the *Norms and Standards for Educators* policy (DoE, 2000). The former did not promote a view of the teacher as a reflexive practitioner, nor did it promote the development of applied competency. Rather than democratising curriculum processes by enabling and supporting bottom-up curriculum processes, the workshop perpetuated a top-down, technical approach.

An analysis of the person-to-person interviews I conducted with the teachers a fortnight later revealed that the workshop, while not providing the teachers with the support they needed, had nevertheless disturbed their thinking and made them feel

vulnerable. It thus served to make the teachers more receptive than they might otherwise have been to the idea of participating in a school-based intervention.

The workshop prompted the Head of History to ask me for help and information on the new curriculum a few days later. As HoD, Sandy had the authority to persuade her colleagues of the need for assistance. In the first round of interviews [DF 17] in February 2002, some two weeks after the workshop and start of the intervention, eight of the nine teachers were cautiously positive about the idea of change. Excerpts from the interviews were included in Text Box 1 in Chapter 8 (Section 8.3.2).

By the time the next IEB workshop was held at the schools at the end of May 2002, some five months after the first, the teachers had started to acquire the recognition and realisation rules of the new OBE curriculum. This is evident in the curriculum materials and assessment tasks they had developed through the school-based intervention in the interim [CR 6]. They were thus able to articulate their concerns and ask questions, which they forwarded to the IEB prior to the second workshop [DF 28]. These were as follows:

We wish to work with the LA outcomes specified in the revised National Curriculum Statement rather than C2005's Specific Outcomes. Is this the right direction to be moving?

What are the time frames for implementation?

How do we link up with Grade 7 so as to view Grades 7, 8 and 9 as one unit?

What are the timetable implications for HSS as opposed to existing subject allocations and for the GET-FET cross-over in Grade 10?

How does the 1 to 4 point competency scale link to the allocation of marks?

What examples are there of mechanisms for profiling learning?

Source: DF 28

Although the questions were somewhat narrow and limited to technical and procedural issues, they provide evidence of a shift from the position of silence taken up by the teachers at the earlier workshop. One may infer that because of the

experience and knowledge being acquired though the intervention, the teachers were better informed and sufficiently confident to initiate a conversation with the IEB about the new OBE curriculum.

9.2.2 Workshop Two: 30 May 2002

A second, longer workshop was run by the same IEB official at the two schools at the end of May 2002. The first morning session was spent updating the teachers on the GET and FET curriculum developments. The focus was on the logistics and technicalities of the GET assessment in Grade 9, and the planned 'roll-out' of the FET outcomes-based national curriculum. Although informative, the extent to which the pixel level of detail was relevant or appropriate, is questionable. My perception was that it created unnecessary noise and detracted from the teachers' acquiring an understanding of the fundamental principles or key ideas. On a more positive note, some of the questions raised by the HSS teachers were addressed during the presentation.

During the second half of the morning, the Grade 9 assessment model was explained using the DoE's assessment guideline document. Although – or because – the HSS team was familiar with the guide, having used it as a point of reference for the assessment developmental work they had been doing in the intervention, the session was informative and affirming.

During the afternoon, there was a break-away session during which the teachers re-convened as Learning Area groups to discuss the specifics of the Grade 9 assessment model. The IEB official circulated between groups but did not visit the HSS group. As was the case at the January workshop, no plenary session was held to reflect on what had been done, to identify needs and possible ways forward, or to draw the workshop to a close.

I recorded events at the workshop, together with my perceptions of them, as follows [RJ02, p.32]:

The change in the HSS teachers' attitudes and perceptions of change came as quite a surprise. It was as though I was witnessing a powerful manifestation and public display by some of the team, in particular, Dale, Cathy and Sandy, who appeared neither intimidated nor confused by change. I noticed their physical positioning – they chose to seat themselves in front, almost under the presenter's nose. I felt that she was very aware of my presence which had been announced by the headmaster at the start of the workshop. When I raised my hand to ask a question, I was ignored.

We were shown the DoE's guidelines for assessment. These had been couriered to the schools. It meant that they were not available for distribution at the workshop which I felt was unacceptable because it meant that the teachers did not have a text with which to interact. We photocopied extracts from her copy of the document during the lunch hour.

We met as a HSS group after the lunch break. One of the headmasters asked to sit in at our meeting because he sees our group as having moved way down the track of change and thus feels that we need to play a supporting role for the rest of the staff.

An analysis of the workshop revealed the following:

- It provided detailed information updating the teachers on the technicalities and logistics of the curriculum change process. While useful, this was done at the expense of developing their understanding and skill capacity.

- A focus of the workshop was introducing and familiarising the teachers with the Grade 9 assessment model as described in the guideline document. This goal was only partially achieved due to the non-arrival of the document, which meant that the teachers did not have the resources that they needed for the Learning Area group discussions that took place in the afternoon session.

- The non-arrival of the guideline document, on which half the workshop was dependent, suggests poor organisation and inefficiency on the part of the IEB, and it raises questions about the amount of teacher time expended in attending the workshop.

- The non-availability of the assessment guideline document might also be interpreted as a subtle form of power play and control on the part of the IEB, a sort of gate-keeping that prevented questioning and critical interaction with

policy (and which may or may not have been intended). If the IEB had been intent on the teachers' engaging meaningfully with the new assessment model, then it should have ensured that the document reached the teachers timeously. Ideally, the teachers should have received it prior to the workshop so that they could have arrived better prepared.

- The workshop did not engage the teachers with policy or policy guidelines either in an instructional or structured and purposeful activity-based way. There was no teaching or sharing of expertise by the official, despite her being described as an 'assessment expert'.

- As was the case with the previous workshop, learning was decontextualised with no connection being made with the teachers' current assessment practices. No attempt was made to elicit, challenge or build on the teachers' prior knowledge or existing practices.

- The pedagogical approach of the workshop appears to have been premised on the notion of learning as transfer and absorption rather construction and meaning-making. The workshop approach was top-down and the emphasis was on providing teachers with technical information on curriculum development processes.

- The IEB official did not mediate or scaffold learning during the afternoon session. Instead, she used 'learner-centred' pedagogy in which the teachers were left to their own devices. Learning was thus regulated by the group.

- The lack of a plenary session meant that, once again, there was no opportunity for questioning, for reflecting on what had been learned, or for identifying teachers' needs with a view to follow-up workshops or alternate action.

Minutes [DF 28] taken during the HSS discussion at the afternoon session of the workshop revealed the following:

I did not feel lost or threatened in any way. (Jo)

I found the session on the CTA useful. (Colin)

I felt that it reiterated things nicely. (Kim)

I felt that the workshop had no structure and without the work we've done in our HSS group, we would have been lost. We know what is going on but the talk misrepresents what is happening. (Cathy)

I had a number of concerns: what is policy and what are guidelines? If you read policy, the biggest change is towards criterion referenced assessment yet no mention was made if it today. I felt that the workshop lacked content. (Di)

We need a proper workshop not just a discussion. (Sandy)

The workshop was an external stimulus for a critical review of the curriculum and assessment development work in which the HSS team had been engaged, which included examining the nature and point of questioning in teaching and learning, and analysing the type of questions asked in the teachers' internally-set Grade 12 examination papers and the externally set summative Grade 12 examination, in relation to the type of knowledge and learning that were privileged.

Subsequent to the workshop, and prior to the third one in 2003, the HSS team communicated their dissatisfaction with the first workshop to the IEB via the writing of a research report [CR 6, p.4]. Whether or not the officials read the report, we do not know, as receipt of it was never acknowledged. However, the content of the third workshop suggested that it may indeed have been read.

9.2.3 Workshop Three: 9-10 June 2003

A two-day workshop was held at the two schools in June 2003, more than a year after the previous one. Unlike the two previous IEB workshops, which were presented by one IEB official, this workshop was run by a team of three officials. The workshop was attended by teachers from other Eastern Cape schools whose learners write the IEB examination.

At the start of the workshop, a 17-page document containing the workshop program was distributed to the teachers. This stated that the purpose of the workshop was "to set OBA activities" and provided a breakdown of the various workshop activities and the time allocation [DF 66]. The teachers were told that the two days would revolve around the design and development of outcomes-based assessment tasks and the completion of one activity; that the IEB would distribute the OBA tasks they developed to other teachers, and that at the workshop, they would be taken through the process being used for the development of the CTA.

The workshop started with a powerpoint presentation on the context of educational change. Copies of the slides were distributed to the teachers. The teachers were taken through the process of OBA task design which included their having to construct a concept map (for which they were given the 'correct' version to compare with the one they had constructed), before being set to work on the development of a task in learning area groups.

Written reflections on the workshop in my research journal were as follows:

Today's (the second day) workshop was held in the Design and Technology Centre which meant that the groups were squashed into less space. The IEB presenter talked about the development of a rubric using a 'nonsense' example which caused a stir. Dale interjected and proposed that we skip the 'nonsense' example and get on with a real example. His proposal was not accepted. We set about defining levels which described how 'happiness' could be assessed.

The presenter then illustrated how a rubric could be set for the Natural Sciences. I queried the appropriateness of using a rubric for assessing 'yes/no' responses and, citing Gipps' (1998) 'fitness for purpose' principle, suggested that a traditional point system of marking was more appropriate for right/wrong type answers. I was put in my place by one of the co-presenters who asserted that my understanding of rubrics was simplistic. I decided not to ask any further questions.

Instead, I approached the presenter during the tea break. I asked why the teachers were being told to use curriculum design features (assessment criteria and performance indicators) for the development of the activity when the Report of the Review of C2005 recommended that these be scrapped. I was assured that it was in line with policy and that it was the approach used by the DoE and the CTA developmental workshop. I told him that it was not my experience, having attended the DoE workshop in Pretoria in November 2002.

There was a noticeable drop in attendance at the workshop today. What can be inferred from this?

Tonight was spent drawing a diagram showing how assessment fits into the bigger picture of educational change. I wrote to the teachers informing them of my decision to 'hi-jack' tomorrow's HSS meeting in order to clarify and consolidate the learnings of the IEB workshop. I re-read the Review of C2005 Report and the CTA development guide used at the DoE workshop. It does not mention the use of Performance Indicators. It also provides the evidence which substantiates my argument for working within and between C2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement. I will photocopy the relevant extracts of the report and the CTA development guide for the HSS meeting tomorrow.

What emerged was the following:

- A tightly structured, instructional approach at the beginning, the purpose of which was to provide the teachers with information about the broader context of educational transformation.

- A tightly structured, focused and purposeful activity-based program, the pacing and sequence of which were regulated by the IEB officials.

- Mediation and scaffolding that utilised a generic example and which assumed that learning transfer from the general to the specific would take place.

- The approach, although activity-based, was top-down and authoritarian. The latter quality was evident in the defensive attitude of the officials when asked questions or challenged.

- Communication was one-way with the IEB officials 'telling' the teachers what to do in a fairly prescriptive way. There was an emphasis on giving the teachers a recipe to follow, for example, how to 'do' a concept map.

- The approach to learning was decontextualised. There was no elicitation of prior knowledge or building on the teachers' experience or existing practice. As with the other workshops, the assumption was that the teachers were empty vessels waiting to be filled with knowledge.

- There was no orienting of the teachers to the workshop through the provision of background readings or other strategies prior to the workshop.

- From the high teacher absenteeism on the second day, one may infer that the teachers did not find the workshop illuminating.

- Of significance was that despite it being some 18 months since the first IEB workshop on the GET assessment model, and although there was a pleasing shift in terms of the nature and purpose of the workshop activities, there was no *critical* engagement with the model nor was there any discussion of its strengths and potential weaknesses. Procedural knowledge (the 'what' and the 'how') continued to be privileged at the expense of declarative (the 'why'), and no effort was made to convince the teachers of what, if any, intrinsic worth the new approach was. In other words, there was no attempt to encourage teacher buy in or ownership of the process.

- An evaluation sheet was provided for the teachers to give written feedback on the workshop to the presenters. No time had been allocated for a plenary or de-briefing session in which emergent issues could be identified and discussed.

I distributed an evaluation sheet [DF 66] on which I asked the teachers to comment on the following:

- the extent to which the workshop clarified/enhanced/affirmed/consolidated or confused what they understood about the new assessment model;
- what was particularly useful and what was less useful, and
- what, if any, aspects of assessment need further consolidation.

Only three teachers provided written feedback. This may have been due to the fact that many had not attended the workshop on the second day. The comments I received highlighted both positive and negative aspects of the workshop. Excerpts from the teachers' written comments appear in the text box below. For me, the significance of the comments lay not in *what* the teachers were saying but in *how* they were saying it, that is, the language they were using and the ease with which they were articulating

their ideas of curriculum change processes. One may infer on their part a deepening knowledge of OBE discourse and a greater confidence and ability to converse in OBE language. In Ann's case, there is evidence suggesting that she was a resource and support for teachers in her learning area group who were from other schools.

> Initially I felt frustrated, which degenerated into a little panic when performance indicators, assessment criteria and range statements were insisted upon. One starts to question whether you have understood the OBE process in relation to the rubric construction even though you **know** [emphasis in the original] that you have produced some really good units of work and rubrics to date. As a group constructing the investigative research task on 'plastic bags' was particularly useful.
>
> Very little, if anything, was useful to me apart from interacting with colleagues from other schools. I fear that many who came looking for clarification and a way out of confusion still left confused. The presenters were patronizing and quite intimidating – it seemed to be a competition of who knew more...
>
> Sandy, June 2003 [DF 66]
>
> The workshop certainly affirmed what I did understand. I discovered this not really through listening to what the presenters had to say, nor through their trivial tasks, but rather my knowledge was affirmed through interacting with other teachers. We discussed what an outcome is, and the difference between critical and specific outcomes; what an assessment criterion is, and how it relates to a specific outcome. In the group discussions, questions were raised which I was able to answer with confidence.
>
> On a less positive note, the presenters' superior attitude was offensive. It was rather ironic because I am not sure whether they really do 'know it all'. They seem confused themselves. They are long-winded and go round and round with the same thing and therefore achieve very little and create a lot of confusion. Besides the interaction with the other teachers which I found very useful, I feel I learnt very little...
>
> Ann, June 2003 [DF 66]
>
> The workshop provided an opportunity to reflect and affirm one's degree of understanding of the terminology and processes required in order to make OBE and the GETC work. Working in a group was particularly useful, following the process of developing an activity and tasks within the requirements, with attention to rubrics and assessment. Listening to the overall introductory explanations (the power point presentation) was less useful but then one needs to understand their difficulty in producing a presentation for diverse customers...
>
> Richard, June 2003 [DF 66]

An important theme evident in the review of literature on South African education (see Chapters 2 & 3) is the top-down, technical approach to curriculum change. Given that the IRB workshop described above took place some three years after the Report

of the Review Committee on C2005 (Chisholm, 2000) had problematised the official approach to teacher training, I was angered by the approach used in the workshop. It was a good exemple of curriculum being simply handed down to teachers (for a critique of this, see Frame, 2003:19). Given the Review Committee on C2005's recommendation to simplify C2005's language and design features, the workshop presenter's insistence that the teachers use C2005's complex terminology to construct a concept map of OBA was inappropriate. The activity kept the teachers busy but trivialised their learning. A great deal of time was spent discussing the meaning of the jargon with little, if any, critical engagement with the principles of OBA. I was also frustrated by the way in which the presenter dismissed the Review Committee's recommendation that we adopt and work with the refined and simplified terminology of the Revised National Curriculum Statement.

I have analysed the three workshops that were run by the IEB for the teachers at the two schools during the two-year lifespan of the research intervention. In the next section, I describe the interactions that took place between the IEB and the teachers subsequent to the intervention.

9.2.4 Subsequent interactions with the IEB

At the end of 2003, the second year of the intervention, the teachers and I documented the Development phase of the intervention as a research report [CR 7] which, like the first, was sent to curriculum developers at the DoE and provincial departments of education, and the IEB. Unlike the first research report, the second was acknowledged by the IEB.

In July 2004, the HSS teachers received an e-mail from the IEB, in which they were thanked for their thorough and in-depth analysis and evaluation of the CTA, and for their suggestions and recommendations [CR 17]. The IEB invited the HSS teachers to set the 2005 IEB Human and Social Sciences CTA. From this one may infer that the IEB recognized the HSS teachers' authority and voice.

In the next section, I take up a Bernstein vantage point so as to analyse how the power relationships evident in the workshops were disturbed as a result of the teachers'repositioning in the recontextualising field.

9.3 The workshops from a Bernstein vantage point

By working with Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996), which I described in Chapter 7, in particular:

- the social division of labour on which it rests and the hierarchical structuring of agents and their practices (that is, their functioning)
- the principles of classification and framing, and
- the concepts of insulation and boundaries,

I was able to shift from a surface to a deeper analytical level. This was necessary for probing the intangible issue of the social relation between the teachers and the IEB official/s, and it helped me, first, to illuminate the subtle ways in which power and control were created and maintained. Secondly, it helped me to understand why, in acquiring as they did the rules of recontextualisation and repositioning themselves in the field of recontextualisation, the teachers disturbed power relationships which had, until then, been stable.

In the analysis of the IEB workshops (Section 9.2), I described how through empowering themselves epistemologically, the teachers acquired the ground rules for recontextualisation. In documenting with substantive evidence their curriculum narrative through the collaborative writing of the research reports [CR 6 & CR 7], the teachers became voiced political agents. The reports contain evidence of teacher self-determination and control, that is, the ability to regulate and direct school-based curriculum developmental processes within the constraints and opportunities contained in the national curriculum framework. The reports provide evidence of how the teachers moved from a weak position of curriculum authority (characterised by silence and the lack of teachers' voice evident at the first workshop), to a stronger position of curriculum authority (characterised by a critical voice).

In exercising, as they did, their right to participate in curriculum processes, the HSS teachers disrupted the power relations between them and the IEB agents (evident at the third workshop and in the subsequent interaction between the teachers and the IEB as outlined above). In recontextualising curriculum as they did, the teachers de-insulated the boundary, which in the hierarchical structure and functioning of the national system, historically separated South African teachers from agents in the recontextualising field. As explained in Chapters 3 and 8, OBE's devolved curriculum design processes, intended to loosen up a previously tight system through increased participation from the bottom up, was the enabling mechanism for the recontextualising of curriculum in the intervention.

A re-examination of the IEB workshops from a Bernstein vantage point revealed the following:

- In Workshop 1 there was a well-defined space, that is, a high degree of insulation, between the teachers and the IEB official insofar as their position and functioning in the pedagogic field were concerned. The IEB official was carrying out an administrative function of transmitting and supporting teachers' acquisition of the legitimate text (in this instance OBE curriculum and assessment discourse). At the workshop, the teachers were intended to acquire the text for the purpose of reproducing it (hence their being given a task to do). The specificity of their functions meant that there was a clearly demarcated boundary separating the two agents in terms of their social relation, that is, their position and functioning within the pedagogic field.

- In Bernstein's language, a strong boundary means a strong classification between the two categories, with the functions of each well insulated and not inter-changeable. That the teachers and IEB official belonged to different pedagogical fields, with the latter being higher up the functional hierarchy, meant that there was a power differential linked to status and authority. Strong vertical classification creates and maintains the differential power relation between two distinct categories, with the teachers having the least power as agents in the field of reproduction, the lowest level in the social ordering of the

pedagogic field. This analysis helps us to understand the teachers' dependency and lack of power during the workshop activity.

- There was a well-defined space, that is, a high degree of insulation between the teachers' educational discourse and that transmitted by the IEB official. For the IEB agent working within the recontextualising field, strong classification was not an issue. It may be inferred that the IEB official, as an agent positioned and working within the field of recontextualising, understood the distinguishing attributes of the two discourses in terms of their texts and practices. The official had the recognition (the *what*) and realisation rules (the *how*) of the new OBE discourse, and understood how it differed from the old orthodoxy. This meant that the official could work within the space created by the high degree of insulation, or stated differently, within the tension between the new and the old. For teachers, as agents not working in the recontextualising field, the strong classification of discourse becomes an issue when a power differential exists between them and the policy provider.

- Discourses that are strongly classified may co-exist in mutual isolation. A high degree of insulation creates a well-defined space between them. The strength of the boundary becomes an issue when one discourse makes claims to legitimacy and assumes a position of dominance. Until the workshop, the teachers' discourse and OBE discourse co-existed. However, at the workshop, they found themselves trapped within their discourse. They had no knowledge of the *what* and *how*, that is, the recognition and realisation rules of the legitimate discourse. Taylor, Muller and Vinjevold (2003:79) explain recognition and realisation rules as involving the following: the acquirer must recognise the type of response demanded by a particular context; he/she must be able to recognise the specialised language of the particular discourse and then be able to produce a legitimate text in the required discourse.

- There was no evidence in the analysis of the workshop to suggest that the teachers' had acquired the recognition and realisation rules. As a result, their position was weak. The workshop, despite its learner-centred pedagogical approach and associated high level of participation, did not enable the teachers

to interact with the new discourse, its texts and practices, even at a superficial or procedural level. The teachers did not have the recognition rules necessary for identifying, accessing or acquiring the legitimate text, nor did they have the realisation rules necessary for translating the text into practice. They did not manage the task because they did not recognise and understand 'what' was required or 'how' to do it.

- Strong classification created a differential power relation, with the IEB as the dominant agent. Strong insulation between functions and agents created and maintained the unequal power relation, and reproduced a top-down, hierarchical ordering in the pedagogic field. The fact that the teachers did not manage the task provides evidence that the workshop did not achieve its goals.

- Closer analysis of the workshop approach reveals that instead of being generative and productive, and developing teachers as effective change agents, the workshop helped to maintain and reproduce the social relations that policy seeks to transform. This was exacerbated by the particular way in which a learner-centred pedagogical approach was used in the workshop. I believe it encouraged policy compliance and conformity as opposed to a critical understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the new model. Viewed this way, the workshop undermined rather than enabled teacher professionalism and autonomy.

- The teachers were set to work in Learning Area groups. Learning was regulated by the group with no mediation from the IEB official. Framing was weak with the teachers, as acquirers, controlling what happened in terms of selection, pacing and sequencing. Although interactive, and modeling activity-based participatory learning, the workshop was unsuccessful because of the teachers' poor knowledge of outcomes-based policy processes.

- Although the high level of discussion at the HSS table suggested that the teachers were participating in the problem-solving workshop activity, namely designing an assessment task, closer analysis reveals that the teachers were busy but not productive. They did not manage the task. Despite being well-

qualified and having a high level of discipline knowledge, the teachers did not have the curriculum and pedagogical knowledge necessary for effecting meaningful curriculum change. Not only were they unable to establish what was required, they were unable to challenge the legitimacy of the task at hand, and thus the IEB's interpretation of OBE discourse.

- The workshop modeled a learner-centred pedagogy in which there was weak framing. While it created a sense of inclusion and involvement and hence teacher control, it masked the real power relation between the transmitter and the acquirer. It was even deceptive, creating a false sense of control while maintaining and reproducing the space that insulates categories of agents and discourses, and thus preserving power relations.

- Ironically, the IEB official's interpretation and application of learner-centred pedagogy mirrored that described by Jansen (1999:213), in terms of how it de-centres the teacher. In the workshop, the IEB official, as teacher/transmitter of the new policy discourse, "disappeared into a facilitative, background role while the learners emerged as the initiators and creators of learning." The only difference in this case was that the learners neither initiated nor created but remained trapped in their own frame of reference.

- Instead of engendering confidence, 're-skilling' and building capacity for change, the workshop disempowered and silenced the teachers. They did not acquire knowledge or skills for the task at hand. Critical thinking, as a mode of reasoning, seems not to have been part of the workshop agenda. Instead, technical intelligence was promoted.

- The workshop helped me to understand why the "technocratic rationality" (Giroux 1997: 27) and technical approach to curriculum (Frame 2003) that dominated at the workshop are inappropriate for developing teachers as agents of change. The workshop provided evidence supporting Giroux's contention that knowledge is typically used in the interests of domination not emancipation (1997:23). Knowledge was used in a way that maintained the

IEB official's position of power and the social relations that characterise a hierarchical division of labour in the pedagogical field.

By the time the third workshop took place, some 18 months after the intervention had begun, the teachers had acquired the recognition and realisation rules, as was evident in the research reports. They were therefore able to challenge the IEB's interpretation of OBE, as illustrated by Dale's interjecting and challenging of the legitimacy of the assessment rubric task, and my questioning of the legitimacy of the terminology which the teachers were required to use. The fact that some teachers chose not to attend the second day of the workshop, was a visible display of resistance. The power differential between the teachers and the IEB agents was significantly different from that at the first workshop. No longer were the teachers silenced or alienated by the workshop activities.

The discussion in this section has illuminated how, by empowering themselves epistemologically, the teachers developed a voice. Their voice became audible through the research reports. The reports provided rich evidence of teacher participation in curriculum processes as intended by OBE policy. The reports, in documenting as they did a successful process of policy implementation, were powerful for two reasons: they critiqued policy from an insider position, and they worked with policy at a conceptual rather than a technical level. They provided counter-evidence to the findings of most studies, which tend to focus on the problems and factors militating against curriculum policy implementation.

From the IEB's failure to respond to the first report, one may infer a lack of receptiveness on their part to bottom-up curriculum initiatives. And from the fact that the IEB sent a team of presenters to the schools to run the third workshop, one may infer that the HSS may have been perceived as a threat to the epistemological authority of the IEB. It may also be the reason why IEB officials were so defensive when challenged.

The title of the second research report, *Making OBE work in Human and Social Sciences at two Eastern Cape Schools: Navigating Curriculum 2005 policy, advancing curriculum innovation and implementing the 2003 Grade 9 CASS and*

CTA, suggests a stronger and more confident teacher voice and authority. I believe that by writing a second report, the teachers demonstrated a commitment to curriculum transformation and exercising their right to participate in curriculum processes. The IEB's acknowledgement and invitation to the teachers to set the CTA was an affirmation of the devolved and democratic curriculum process intended by policy.

The teachers' having developed a voice and being recognised as having curriculum authority, raises the question: Can this voice be sustained without the support, provocation and encouragement of an outside facilitator? The next section provides a tiny glimpse into what has happened since my withdrawal from the schools.

9.4 Post-intervention developments

As mentioned in Chapter 6 (Section 6.7), I re-entered the schools in June 2005 to hold group interviews [DF 100] with the teachers, the purpose of which was to follow up on the activities and accomplishments of the HSS team in the 18 months subsequent to my withdrawal from the schools.

I asked the teachers about their relationship with the IEB. According to one teacher, their interaction had "only been at an administrative level". She remarked that the IEB was running a course on assessment later in the year and that, "looking at what's been offered, it's what we did with you and so I'd rather not go to the IEB course because I think I will be frustrated as anything looking at the people who are doing it."

Another teacher stated that: "the fact that we asked an educational consultant to run the FET workshop at our schools rather than the IEB says something…." He continued by saying that he "did not wish to get personal, however the two IEB presenters who had run workshops were not inspirational in the way they train".

I asked the teachers to update me on the setting of the CTA. It transpired that, for various reasons, they had not accepted or declined the IEB's invitation. The teachers

cited the following reasons why they had not, as yet managed to take up the IEB's invitation:

…there was a lack of unanimity in the group

… Ann's leaving put a kind of brake on it as she was going to play a key role in the CTA development process

…the fact that it was our Jubilee year and there was so much else on the go

…some of us were more involved, maybe becoming more involved in examining at the FET level and that this should be the way to go rather then the GET level

…but the big thing was the fact that we don't do the IEB's CTA, which has changed this year.

… we were concerned that we night spend a whole lot of energy on it and it's not accredited at a national level. I think from this year it is going to be accredited but we weren't sure at that point that it was going to be.

…there's quite a punishing timeframe for the CTA setting process…

There was evidence to suggest a loss of momentum in the group. This may have been due to some of the more enthusiastic and motivated members having left the schools to pursue their careers elsewhere; teachers having other priorities, for example, the Jubilee celebrations at the one school, and scepticism about the status and future of the Grade 9 CTA. While there was evidence of the teachers' participation in curriculum processes having been sustained, the focus had shifted away from the GET level.

9.5 Synthesis and conclusion

In this chapter, I adopted a Bernstein vantage point to attempt to understand how teacher voice and authority, as a consequence of epistemological empowerment and the acquisition of the rules for recontextualising knowledge, are linked to issues of power. I went back to the data files to critically review issues of power and control in the context of three IEB workshops held for the teachers at the schools during the two-year intervention. What emerged from the analysis was as follows:

- While the C2005 policy framework contains rich opportunities for self-determination and self-definition, for teachers to maximize these, they have to empower themselves epistemologically. This necessitates their acquiring the rules of recontextualisation, which in turn results in their disrupting and transcending the functional boundaries that have traditionally separated and distinguished them in the hierarchical structuring of the national system.

- By re-positioning themselves as they did in the recontextualising field, the teachers – like the various other agents working in the ORF and PRF – were able to transform curriculum policy. This meant that they were able to delocate and relocate the privileged curriculum discourse (that is, OBE text and practices) in a way that was flexible and which maximized the opportunities for self-determination advocated by policy (DoE, 2000). And this involved them in playing multiple roles, including those of interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials, learning mediator and assessor.

- Because the teachers had acquired the recontextualising rules (and provided evidence of their acquisition through the research reports) they could challenge the legitimacy of the IEB's and the DoE's interpretations of the privileged text.

- Political empowerment was a consequence of epistemological empowerment.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSION

10.1 Introduction

In this concluding chapter, I do three things: first, I reiterate and reflect on the key elements of the research by synthesizing the main findings of the various layers of analysis in the study. Secondly, I respond to the question: 'What lessons can be learned from this study?' And thirdly, I reflect on the some of the implications of the study before drawing the discussion to a close.

10.2 Synthesis

My main contention in this thesis is that the evolving South African education landscape is fraught with uncertainties and challenges, yet vibrant, dynamic and full of opportunities for enhancement, renewal, innovation and transformation. I believe teachers have a crucial role to play as agents of change. But if they are to do so, they need to learn to work within the axes of tension that I have described. They need also to acquire a deep understanding of change, as well as the skills and attitudes necessary for the meaningful and creative implementation of change in their classrooms.

In the context of this study, this entails teachers' understanding the new outcomes-based curriculum framework, in particular, C2005 and its associated GET assessment policy. Unless teachers understand these frameworks, there is a danger that they will become victims of OBE as a technology of state regulation and control and assist in perpetuating a top-down approach to curriculum in which teachers are relegated to the role of implementers and reproducers of someone else's curriculum. On the other hand, by acquiring an understanding of the new framework, teachers can empower themselves epistemologically and acquire the ground rules for recontexualising knowledge (Bernstein, 1990, 1996). This will enable them to reposition themselves in

the recontextualising field where they can maximise the rich opportunities for self-determination and participation in education that are contained in and intended by South Africa's OBE curriculum policy framework.

10.2.1 The research design and goals

This study consisted of two parts: the first (Phase One), was a qualitative case study, interpretive in orientation and using ethnographic techniques, on policy implementation at one level of the South African school system. During this phase, the goal of the research was to *understand*

- History and Geography teachers' responses to OBA policy in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences of C2005, and

- the role of a school-based intervention in facilitating and supporting change located in critically reflexive practice.

As a participant in the case study, I worked from an insider position to describe and analyse the unfolding research narrative. This constituted the preliminary analysis, which is contained in the Case Record.

The second part of the research (Phase Two) was the analysis of the case study. During this phase, I withdrew from the schools and took up an outsider position in order to analyse and theorise the study. This involved two distinct but interconnected cycles of activity, that is, interpretive analysis and thematic analysis, with the latter flowing out of the former. These, the second and third analytical cycles of activity within the study, appear in this thesis (Chapter 6 and Chapters 8 and 9, respectively).

In the interpretive analysis of the intervention from a position of detachment and hindsight (Chapter 6), I described:

- a fascinating, multi-faceted and recursive change process that involved continuities and discontinuities in the teachers' culture. Following McTaggart (1997:31), this meant changes "in the substance and forms of

the language and discourses, activities and practice, social interactions and organisations that constitute the interactions of the group";

- a model of teacher development located in critically reflexive practice that had enabled and supported the teachers' acquisition of a 'deep' knowledge of the new education framework, in particular the epistemology and pedagogy underpinning C2005 and the GET assessment model; and
- the costs, in terms of the time and energy involved in developing teachers as reflexive practitioners, critical inquirers and classroom-based action researchers.

At the same time, I illuminated certain anomalous findings I could not account for but was curious to find out more about. These set me on a course of action which I had not anticipated but which I could not ignore without compromising my integrity as a researcher.

Because I had been reading Bernstein's Sociology of Pedagogy (1990, 1996) during the research intervention, I recognised that the notion of *teachers as recontextualisers of knowledge* was at the nexus of all the unresolved issues that had emerged in the findings. However, because at that time I did not have the appropriate theoretical or methodological tools, I found myself in an impasse. This was the most significant disjuncture in my research design, and it was undoubtedly the greatest challenge I faced both psychologically and intellectually. Critical friends played a crucial role in supporting and helping me to gain perspective on how the research had evolved and moved beyond its initial goals to embrace the following aims:

- to understand the dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that had taken place in the case study, and

- to develop a conceptual and methodological framework for understanding what had happened, how and why it happened as it did, as well as its consequences.

When I reviewed the findings of the interpretive analysis, I realised that:

- the intervention had provided a paradigm of the process that is necessary for change to be implemented in the spirit and form of OBE policy (DoE, 1997, 2000)
- the extent to which teachers respond to change in a positive and meaningful way depends on the degree of recontextualisation that occurs within the change process, and that an environment which allows recontextualisation is essential
- in recontextualising curriculum, the teachers disturbed the stable boundaries demarcating and separating their education framework and that of the new OBE framework
- they had to navigate a way through the axes of tension caused by the imposition of the new framework on the old curriculum framework, and
- the participatory approach adopted for the research intervention had been the mechanism for the epistemological empowerment that enabled the teachers to become voiced political agents and participants in national curriculum processes.

The emergent goals and insights, as outlined above, pointed me in a new direction and set me on course through territory for which I had no map. In Chapter 7, I described my struggle to navigate a way theoretically and methodologically to a vantage point which would enable me to generate the insights I needed for *understanding* the recontextualisation of knowledge that had taken place in the intervention. In Chapters 8 and 9 I described how I worked with Bernstein's model of the pedagogic field (1990, 1996) to develop a heuristic for the analysis. By developing and applying a heuristic, I was able to generate the insights I needed for understanding what I believed were the key dimensions of knowledge recontextualisation that had happened in the intervention.

In terms of the epistemological dimension of recontextualisation, the key findings were as follows:

- The teachers in this study, by empowering themselves epistemologically, acquired the ground rules for recontextualising knowledge. This meant that they were able to re-position themselves in the recontextualising field,

where they appropriated and transformed the primary policy text rather than simply implemented a curriculum that had been interpreted for them.

- By working as they did in the recontextualising field, the teachers had greater professional autonomy and more opportunities to assist in the design of the curriculum, which meant that they took ownership of the curriculum.
- The teachers, in exercising their democratic right to participate in education, became recontextualisers and generators of curriculum knowledge as opposed to simply reproducers of someone else's curriculum handed down to them.
- Because of their epistemological empowerment, the teachers in this study were aware of and able to navigate their way through the inherent tensions in OBE. They were able to maximise the opportunities it offered for democratising education and increasing teacher participation from the bottom-up, through devolving curriculum processes to the level of the classroom.
- The loose functioning of the national system and the new OBE policy framework were enabling mechanisms for the recontextualising of knowledge that took place in this study.
- The meaning-making process that enabled recontextualisation was a social constructivist one.
- The approach and model of professional development that supported the teachers as recontextualisers of knowledge was learner-centred and participatory, committed to deep cognitive learning and located within critically reflexive practice. My role, as a learning mediator, scaffolder and facilitator, was crucial in guiding and supporting the teachers' learning.
- The environment that supported the teachers' recontextualisation of knowledge was flexible and responsive to their needs, and characterised by a high level of trust and collegiality.

With regard to the political empowerment that was consequent on the teachers' epistemological empowerment, key findings were as follows:

- While the C2005 policy framework contains rich opportunities for self-determination and self-definition, in order to make best use of these, the

teachers had had to disrupt and transcend functional boundaries that had historically separated and distinguished them as reproducers from agents in the recontextualising field. This gave rise to tensions and struggles for legitimacy over the HSS team's and the IEB's interpretation and recontextualisation of curriculum policy.

- By empowering themselves epistemologically, the teachers were able to shift from the silence attendant on a weak power base to a position of authority and voice. Initially their voice was ignored by the IEB, but with time and a further display of authority through the submission of a second report (Wilmot, 2004) in which the teachers collaborated with me to document with substantive evidence their curriculum work, the IEB acknowledged the teachers' expertise and invited them to participate in formal curriculum processes at a national level.
- Teachers who are epistemologically empowered can play an active and meaningful part in curriculum transformation processes.

10.3 Lessons learned

The findings of this study shed light on:

- the nature of the curriculum change processes that all South African teachers are currently engaged in, and

- how teachers may give expression to democracy by exercising their right to participate actively and meaningfully in education.

The lessons that can be extracted from this study include the following:

10.3.1 Change processes

The key features of change as illuminated in this study include:

- Change is a complex, multi-faceted, and recursive process (Fullan, 1993, 1999). In this study, change was ongoing and evolving, and characterised by both continuity and discontinuity. In foregrounding as it did the dialectical interplay between the old and the new, this study highlights how important it is not to see change as linear or in binary and oppositional either/or terms, which is overwhelmingly the view of education officials in South Africa. Instead, this study depicted change as involving the disturbance of previously stable boundaries and working within axes of tension, the most important of which were epistemological, pedagogical and political, arising from the imposition of the new outcomes-based education framework on the existing (old) education framework.

- Processes of change involve risks and challenges (Fullan, 1993). Among the risks and challenges that teachers have to face and overcome, this study highlighted the following:
  - giving up one's vested interests, for example, beliefs about the purity of one's discipline as a distinct way of reasoning and knowing;
  - regarding all theory as tentative rather than as 'truth' and accepting that no theory is beyond scrutiny and critical interrogation;
  - compromising, for example, by letting go of the strong sense of identity one has with one's subject, and accepting that there is not necessarily only one way of looking at it;
  - living with ambiguity and uncertainty, accepting the messiness of change and trusting in an emergent process for which there is no pre-determined map or recipe;
  - learning from trial and error and knowing that mistakes may be made;
  - having one's understanding challenged, being open to new possibilities (Prawat, 1996:98) and willing to let go of one's existing practices;
  - maintaining a balance between group-think and individual think;
  - questioning and interrogating one's theory and identity, and
  - making tacit knowledge explicit and exposing one's beliefs and practices to peers and outsiders.

- The recognition that change is a process that may consist of a number of phases or stages which, once set in motion, have much in common with each other. By engaging and getting to grips with the GET changes, the teachers in this study felt better equipped and more confident about the FET curriculum changes.

- Processes of educational change can be enhanced and supported by a more experienced outsider – subject to the following provisos:
    - the outsider should adopt a participatory, non-authoritarian and therefore non- threatening approach;
    - the outsider should not intrude on the teachers' private space, that is, their classrooms;
    - the outsider should not have a vested interest in the school or its internal politics;
    - conscientious efforts should be made to create and maintain egalitarian power relationships between the teachers and the outsider, for example, by negotiating roles, and through shared decision-making, which enables teachers to become co-owners of the change process;
    - the outsider has credibility and is thus accepted by the teachers as an authority rather than someone in authority, and
    - the acceptance of an ethical framework, based on respect for persons and respect for truth, open-mindedness, tolerance and integrity.

- Partnerships between teachers in schools and higher education can be enriching for both parties, provided the partnerships are located within a participatory approach. As part of the process of change in South Africa, far from separating higher education (HE) and schools, we should be striving for strong complementary relationships where each can learn from the other. The danger of being in HE is that one can become so distanced from schools (the 'ivory tower' syndrome) that one loses sight of the realities facing teachers at the chalk-face. At the same time, because teachers are so busy with radical changes in their classrooms, they do not have the time to engage critically with new ideas and need some other means of scaffolding.

- Change processes in South African education cannot separate out the different dimensions that constitute education. Although triggered by an assessment issue, this study revealed that we could not deal with assessment without considering curriculum and pedagogy. If we want to bring about change, then we must ensure that the various agents and agencies involved in supporting and guiding change – in this case the IEB – understand the interrelatedness and interdependency of the various constituent elements of change. This means that we need to make change processes more explicit.

10.3.2 Teachers as change agents

For the sake of convenience, the discussion in this section is presented in a linear way. However, it is important to recognise that the various elements relating to teachers as agents of change are interconnected and interdependent, and collectively constitute an integrated whole.

Prawat (1992:354) indicates how teachers can be both agents of change and major obstacles to change. What we discovered through working together is that for teachers to be agents of change requires certain preconditions to be met:

- Teachers must be receptive to change, and it seems that this must start with some sense of dissatisfaction or discomfort. In this study, the dissatisfaction did not come from what the teachers were doing, but from their impatience and frustration with the IEB. The process analysed in this study, however, reveals how dissatisfaction can be turned into something constructive, rather than becoming increasingly destructive and demotivating. I would argue that the participatory approach adopted for the study played an important part in triggering the positive change.

- For teacher buy in, one may need to have advocacy. Very often people will be dissatisfied but not empowered to do something about it. As shown in this study, this is where it becomes important to have someone who can come in and facilitate change. Equally, once teachers accept the fact that they can gain from change, there is more likelihood of buy in (Fullan, 1993; Prawat, 1996).

For the teachers in this study, the realization that the new outcomes-based assessment approach could enhance their teaching and the quality of learning in their classrooms provided the moral imperative for change. Because the teachers believed that change was worthwhile, they were prepared to sustain their efforts and struggle to achieve it.

- Teachers' values are important if there is to be real as opposed to the superficial buy in that Mattson & Harley (2003) describe as strategic mimicry. In this study, the teachers' values were aligned with those underpinning the new policy framework. These values included fairness and social justice, environmental sustainability, critical inquiry and respect for truth, open-mindedness and the right to participate in democratic processes (DoE, 1995).

- Finally, teacher buy in is facilitated when there is institutional receptiveness. This study demonstrated the power of support, encouragement and affirmation from senior management in enabling and sustaining teacher buy in. Throughout the two-year intervention the teachers' efforts were acknowledged and praised by the heads of the schools. This was done, for example, in the newsletters sent to parents and in reports given at the annual prize-giving functions. The teachers were commended on their efforts and made to feel that what they were doing was worthwhile.

- For teachers to become active participants in curriculum processes, they need to 'own' the curriculum. This study illuminated how ownership is linked to teachers' epistemological empowerment and the importance of both theoretical and discipline knowledge. In terms of the former, it required educational theory to be made explicit. Uncomfortable as they found it, it was through their grappling with social constructivism, OBE, learner-centredness and the notion of knowledge as integration, that the teachers were able to take ownership of the curriculum. In terms of the latter, there has to be strong discipline knowledge for epistemological empowerment. This study revealed how buy in was affirmed because the teachers were able to marry the new theory with their strong discipline knowledge.

- The democratic underpinnings of OBE that are sold to South African educators are all very well but, as shown in the review of the literature in Chapters 2 and 3, most teachers do not have a voice and lack the political empowerment necessary to participate in curriculum processes. This study revealed how, through empowering themselves epistemologically, the teachers gained the confidence to make their voice heard. Once their voice was recognised and accepted, they were prepared to play a creative and meaningful role in national curriculum processes.

- Being agents of change requires that teachers become reflexive practitioners within a group or team of the sort that Prawat (1996:107) refers to as "a learning community." The importance of reflexive practice in the context of educational change has considerable currency in transformation theory. In this study, reflexive practice specifically involved teachers reporting back to the team, which meant that they were accountable to their colleagues. This promoted a de facto accountability based on an inner conviction rather than an external 'carrot and stick' type of accountability. The study showed that mutual accountability cannot simply issue from an individual state of mind, but rather is linked to authentic, as opposed to contrived, collegiality. According to Prawat (1996:108) this involves honouring each teacher's contribution to the group and their connectedness to the community, and is developed out of commitment rather than control.

- If teachers are to be effective agents of curriculum change that is complex, dynamic and multi-faceted, they need to become recontextualisers of knowledge. Key lessons learned in the course of this study focused on the process of knowledge recontextualisation. First, epistemological empowerment is necessary for teachers' acquisition of the rules of recontextualisation. By repositioning themselves in the recontextualising field, the teachers in this study were able to exercise their democratic right to participate in curriculum processes in ways that maximized the opportunities for self-determination and self-definition contained in OBE.

- Second, in order to maximize the opportunities for self-determination and self-definition the study highlighted the need for teachers to be recontextualisers of curriculum rather than implementers and reproducers of someone else's curriculum. Further to this, if teachers are to be active participants in curriculum processes at the micro-level of the classroom and the macro-level of the system, they need to broaden their roles to include those of curriculum designer and developer, assessor, and learning support materials developer. In this study, the teachers could only assume these roles as a result of their epistemological empowerment as recontextualisers of knowledge. This was the foundation on which professional autonomy, reflexive practice and the applied competences described in policy (DoE, 2000) were built.

- Change can be enhanced if teachers are resourceful. The teachers in this study enjoyed success partly because they were already resourceful in terms of their own experience, discipline knowledge, creativity and ability to manipulate learning support materials. The study therefore highlights the need to invest in teacher-education in the broadest possible sense if teachers are to be genuine agents of change.

- Reflexive practice and change agency can be enhanced through collaboration. This study, in illuminating as it did the shift that took place from teaching as an individual endeavour characterised by an isolationist culture, to teaching as a collaborative and collegial endeavour, affirmed the importance of a team approach. In Chapters 6 and 8 I describe the professional qualities that support teacher professionalism (Hargreaves, 2003). They include creativity, flexibility, ingenuity, collegiality, trust, the promotion of deep cognitive learning, learning to teach in new ways, commitment to continuous professional learning, and a capacity for change and risk-taking. The group approach facilitated and promoted the development of these values.

- If teachers are to be change agents they must have a supportive environment. This study showed what real and meaningful support looks like. In the intervention, senior management listened to what the teachers were saying

and created the space that they required for their curriculum development work. This included setting aside a school day for dedicated curriculum work (see Chapter 6) and providing financial support for teachers to attend conferences.

- The development of teachers as change agents has cost implications in terms of time, commitment and effort. The teachers in this study were prepared to invest in the process because they believed it was worthwhile. They saw enhanced practice as ample reward for their efforts. They did however struggle to find the time needed for the process to unfold, and we need to recognize just how much of a commitment is required for real change to occur.

- The importance of ongoing and regular feedback to teachers needs to be recognised. This study highlighted the importance of affirming people and making them feel worthwhile and valued.

10.3.3 OBE policy frameworks

OBE curriculum and assessment policy frameworks are important catalysts for transformation. My study has affirmed what theorists are saying about the opportunities afforded by OBE frameworks (as explained in Chapter 3). OBE provides the space for creativity and greater teacher self-determination and self-definition with regard to the curriculum, but this needs to be made explicit. The study revealed that OBE can indeed be a catalyst for democratising education. But if teachers are to maximize the opportunities afforded them, they need to work from an insider position *within* the various policy frameworks. And for this to happen, they need to have been epistemologically empowered by acquiring the rules for recontextualising knowledge. However, teachers will simply not be in a position to do unless the system, in closer alignment with policy, allows them to.

10.3.4 Teacher professional development

If we want change in South Africa, we need to recognize that it must be based on a participatory model rather than being recipe- and transmission-driven. In this study, the whole process of change associated with OBE was ultimately linked to a model of teacher professional development. It became apparent that an approach to teacher development based on short once-off training workshops is inappropriate and ineffectual in developing reflexive practitioners and agents of transformation. The lessons to be learned from the model used in this study were as follows:

- Teacher professional development needs to promote and support the development of reflexive practice, which is epistemologically empowering. This study has proposed a model of teacher professional development built on four cornerstones:
  - a spiral curriculum for the acquisition of foundational knowledge, that is, an understanding of the theory and practice of the change process;
  - modelling of constructivist theory and learner-centred, interactional pedagogy;
  - apprenticeship: the preliminary application of theory in the classroom; and
  - metacognition: reflecting on the process and taking action to refine and improve innovations.

  A long-term approach to change was taken in this study, with ongoing support and mediation provided to teachers on a weekly basis for a period of two years. Given the challenges posed by the process, a time factor of this order would seem to be inevitable.

- The approach needs to be sensitive to the context- and content-specific nature of change. The professional approach and the pedagogic model used in this study was geared towards responding to a particular context. The approach was flexible and responsive to the needs of the teachers, and the allocation of context-specific tasks to teachers enabled them to make an input into the change process. The tasks were purposively designed to elicit, challenge, extend or enhance their prior knowledge.

- Teacher professional development is enhanced through collaborative social relationships. In this study, collaboration was real and meaningful and characterised by both consensus and conflict/dissent. The latter often provided the positive stimulus for creative innovation.

10.4 Conclusion

The research, in moving as it did beyond its initial design, became multi-layered in terms of both analysis and meaning-making. The vantage point and focus of the analysis shifted from one cycle of analytical activity to the next. This enabled me to generate different layers of meaning which, I believe, enriched the study. Throughout the thesis, I have provided evidence of the integrity of the research as a qualitative case study. This is reflected in my patently consistent and conscientious effort to *understand* the case, albeit it from different vantage points and using different analytical lenses.

This study has provided evidence of the power of a participatory research approach characterised by a high level of trust and collaboration, and how through shared decision-making authentic participation can be achieved. The participatory approach, supported by classroom-based action research, was the catalyst for the development of the teachers into critical inquirers and reflexive practitioners. The participatory, co-engaged and situated process of learning made possible by the research approach enabled the teachers to acquire a deep understanding of change and the skills for meaningful and creative engagement with curriculum processes at a classroom and national level. In the specific terms of the arguments used above, the research approach was a catalyst for the epistemological empowerment of the teachers through their acquisition of the rules for recontextualising knowledge, which in turn proved politically empowering.

By locating my study in two atypically well-resourced schools in the independent sector, I have been able to open a window on what policy looks like when implemented in the spirit and form in which it was intended, and in an environment supportive of change. This is particularly significant given what the review of the

literature on curriculum change in South Africa revealed (in Chapters 2 and 3). Most studies, in focusing as they do on the problems, obstacles and challenges of policy implementation, have provided a gloomy and deficit perspective on change. There is a dearth of research illuminating meaningful and creative change. This study, in providing as it does counter evidence to the findings of most research, affords us a glimpse of *what might be* if the pre-requisites for change assumed by policy were in place. By implementing OBA policy in full, this study has enabled policy to be critiqued from within. More importantly, it has provided evidence, albeit within a specific context, of:

- how the democratic ideals of OBE curriculum policy, including the devolving of curriculum processes to the micro-level of the classroom and increased participation from the bottom-up may be achieved in practice; and

- the consequences that follow when teachers take up their democratic right to participate in education.

I have illuminated the messiness and the challenges of doing qualitative research, and the psychological and intellectual struggles it involves. In spite of the risk of self-exposure, I have been open and honest about the difficulties and dilemmas I faced in the study, and the strategies used to overcome them. Following Gergen & Gergen (2000:1028), who argue for reflexivity, I have demonstrated my “surprises and undoings in the process of research”, and made clear the conscientious effort I have made to ‘tell the truth’ about the entire process of the research and its writing-up. This study, in illuminating a dynamic and social process of knowledge recontextualisation, reminds us that research is, after all, a *human* endeavour.

In sum, in this study, I have shed light on:

- The reception of outcomes-based assessment policy in Grade 9 Human and Social Sciences of C2005 in two independent schools. Although context- and content- specific, my study has generated insights for understanding of the rich opportunities that policy contains for democratising and transforming curriculum processes in South African schools.

- The dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that took place in the study and which was necessary for the teachers' creative and meaningful participation in curriculum processes at the micro-level of the classrooms and at the macro-level of policy development.

- The equally dynamic and human process of knowledge recontextualisation that took place in terms how I interpreted and transformed knowledge in the analysis and interpretation of the case study.

In conclusion, I wish to reiterate Merriam & Associates' (2002:423) contention that

> The nature of qualitative research is as much a social and psychological process as it is systematic inquiry. Because the process is a journey, if not a struggle, it is crucial to study a phenomenon that you are really curious about, and that you care about, that you are passionate about. This interest will motivate and sustain you through the process. Secondly, the process will affect you; we learn a lot about ourselves as we design and carry out the study, write it up and disseminate the results. Thirdly, it is only in the doing of a qualitative study that we really learn what it means to be the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, how the design is really 'emergent' and not pre-determined, how questions of authenticity, validity and reliability become dealt with, and how ethics underlie all of these concerns. Finally, it helps to have some companions on the journey; other people not only strengthen a study but also provide the support that brings it to completion.

This quotation encapsulates the essence of what this research had meant to me. The qualitative research design provided the flexibility I needed for responding to the fascinating issues that emerged in the analysis, some of which I had neither intended nor anticipated. Curiosity made me probe further, took me beyond the initial conceptualisation and design of the research, and sustained my continuing struggle for meaning. My passion for teaching kept me focused and enabled me to sustain the intensity of the participatory process of co-engagement with the teachers. Amidst the intellectual and methodological struggle for perspective, was an intense and deeply personal and psychological struggle to deal with the uncertainty, the risks and the anxiety of not being in control of what emerged. I learned the value of having

companions – professional, personal and spiritual – on the journey, and I learned how to live with hope.

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APPENDIX A

INVENTORY OF DATA FILES

The School-Based Intervention: The Inception Phase (2002)

DF1:	IEB's call for applications for CTA developers
DF2:	Access to research site Correspondence with the principals of the two schools participating in the research and curriculum project, 2001-2004, including permission to use the schools as research sites
DF3:	Letter inviting teachers to participate in the research project, January 2002 Copy of the draft Principles of Procedure discussion document
DF4:	Copies of the diagrams and summaries I developed and used with the teachers as conceptual learning tools
DF5	IEB Workshop handouts, notes taken during the workshop, 18 January 2002
DF6:	IEB Correspondence (Circulars to Principals, 2001-2004)
DF7:	General Education and Training (GET) band: Assessment policy documents, guidelines and support material from the Department of Education and IEB
DF8:	General Education and Training band: Curriculum policy documents and guidelines for C2005 and the RNCS, Department of Education and IEB
DF9:	FET phase: draft Curriculum policy documents (DoE)
DF10:	History and Geography curriculum, that is, the outline of the syllabus for Grades 8 and 9 at the two schools Copy of a 2001 Grade 9 History and Geography examination paper
DF11:	GET Curriculum meetings for the Heads of Departments and Senior Management at the two schools, February 2002, Copy of a statement on policy change made by the two principals as result of these meetings
DF12:	Newspaper articles on assessment
DF13:	Notes made at a meeting on C2005 and assessment policy implementation with a Grade 9 teacher at a local state school

DF14: Meeting with the HOD History, 24 January 2002
Meeting with teachers (the 'HSS research team'), 25 January 2002.

- Copy of the agenda: 'Mapping the route' – proposed outline of a programme for Term 1(2002)
- Grade 9 HSS curriculum planning framework developed by me for use with the teachers
- Concept mapping activity
- Japan concept map exemplar used by me to illustrate planning process
- Copy of WW1 concept map developed by one of the History teachers

DF15: Meeting with team (2), 30 January 2002

- Copy of the agenda
- Minutes of meeting taken by one of the teachers
- Draft Principles of Procedure discussion document
- Types of assessment: Draft summary prepared by myself and the HOD History
- Learner Profile document developed by Ursula and I
- Diagram (drawn by me on 29/01/02) illustrating the intended research process and structure
- Task briefing sheet for next meeting (06/02/02)

DF16: Learner Profile development, February to May 2002 including the following documentation:

- Summary (made by me) of the concepts, skills and values and attitudes listed in the Revised National Curriculum draft document for the teachers who volunteered to develop a learner profile document
- Dale's draft Learner Profile document, 6 March 2002
- Ongoing conversations on the Learner Profile document – the teachers' and my response to Dale's draft
- Dale's revised Learner Profile document, 22 April 2002

DF17: Person-to-person interview with teachers, 1 February 2002

- Interview questions
- Transcripts of interviews

DF18: Meeting with team (3), 6 February 2002

- Outline of the programme for Term 1
- 'Making the move': Re-orientating assessment diagram to illustrate the shift
- Criterion-referenced assessment exemplars developed by me
- Minutes of the meeting taken by a teacher
- Copy of Andrew's Tsar Nicholas 11 worksheet
- Notes made while he was presenting the worksheet
- The criterion-referenced assessment pro-forma developed by me for the Tsar Nicholas 11 worksheet – to illustrate the shift to criterion-referencing
- Copy of the Hinchey (1998) paper used with the teachers
- Copy of the 2001 Grade 8 CAT
- Task briefing sheet for 13 February 2002

DF19: Meeting with team (4), 13 February 2002
Assessment tasks developed by the teachers, namely:
- 'Life in the trenches' Assessment pro-forma developed by a history teacher
- 'Japan' Assessment pro-forma developed by a geography teacher
- 'Propaganda' assessment pro-forma developed by a history teacher together with my response to the pro-forma
- Revised 'Propaganda' assessment pro-forma
- Task briefing sheet for 20/02/02

DF20: Meeting with team (5), 20 February 2002
- 'Education in transformation' diagram to illustrate change to the teachers together with questions inviting them to reflect on change
- Copy of the 2001 Grade 9 HSS CAT (IEB) and the 2001 Grade 9 EAT (DoE)

DF21: Grade 9 CAT results, February 2002
- Spreadsheet showing the girls and boys' results
- Copy of the CAT and memo

DF22: Meeting with team, 27 February 2002
- Ideas informing the focus group discussion
- Focus group discussion chaired by Ursula: What is history? What is geography?
- Transcription of the video-recording
- My handwritten notes
- Reading provided: "Where has all the geography gone…?" (Van Harmelen 2000)
- Letter written by me to teachers having received their feedback on the discussion (1/03/02)

DF23: Research team's presentation to combined staff of the two schools (as part of the Continuous development programme at the two schools), 8 March 2002
- Transcript of the video-recording
- Copy of the bus cartoon drawn by a history teacher

DF24: Term 1: Teachers' reflections

DF25: Meeting with team, 26 March 2002
- Letter to team dated 26 March 2002
- Readings: Darling Hammond (1997), Chapter 4; Doing OBE (Western Cape Education Department); Jansen & Christie (Eds.), Chapter 10, 11, 12.

DF26: International Geographical Union (IGU) Education Commission Conference Paper: "How teachers deal with change: The Inception phase of a longitudinal case study." Presented at the Regional Conference, Durban 5-8 August 2002.
List of pseudonyms used for the teachers

DF27: Meeting with team (8) (Term 2), 1 May 2002
- Draft programme for Term 2
- Draft framework for rest of the year
- Agenda
- Assessment summary
- The RNC assessment model
- Reading: Luckett & Sutherland (2000)

DF28: IEB Assessment Workshop, 30 May 2002
- Handouts received at workshop
- My notes
- The HSS team's questions to IEB official prior to the start of the workshop
- Minutes of the HSS meeting held in the afternoon

DF29: My role as the outside facilitator: Reflections and evaluation, July 2002
- Copy of the questions asked
- Written responses from 6 teachers

DF30: Meeting with team (9), Curriculum Planning Workshop, 3 May 2002
- Outline and rationale for the workshop
- Instruction cards for co-operative curriculum planning workshop
- Self and group assessment sheets
- Teachers' reflections on the workshop

DF31: Curriculum Planning Workshop
- Documents generated by the teachers during the workshop

DF32: Meeting with team (10), 15 May 2002 - Presentation of OBE units of work for Grade 9 Theme 2 [Geography]
- Materials and documents generated by the geography teachers for the various units of work on 'The wonders of water'

DF33: Meeting with team (11), 22 May 2002 - Presentation of OBE units of work for Grade 9 Theme 2 [History]
- Materials, activities and documents generated by the History teachers for the various units of work on World War 2

DF34: Meeting with team (12), 12 June 2002 - Using questions to promote learning and thinking
- Using questions to promote thinking and learning handout
- Analysis of examination papers – evaluation sheet
- 'Learning as thinking' handout from Grade 8 HSS Teacher's Guide
- Readings given to the teachers: Fisher (1990); White and Gunstone (1992); Leat & Chandler (1996)

DF35: Meeting with team (13), 19 June 2002: Questions to promote learning continued
- Letter to teachers dated 16/06/02
- Agenda
- Notes taken during and after the meeting
- Criterion-referenced evaluation form

- e-mail with feedback from geography teacher re the use of questions in Geography

DF36: Grade 9 Learners' responses to criterion-referenced assessment for Theme 1, 19 June 2002
- Summary of learners' responses
- Analysis done by me

DF37: Teachers' responses to criterion-referenced assessment, 19 June 2002
- Copy of the questions asked of the teachers
- 3 History and 3 Geography teachers' written responses
- Summary and analysis of the teachers' responses

DF38: Meeting with team (14), 10 July 2002: Theory/practice
- Letter to team, 25 June 2002
- Draft outline of programme for after the half-term break
- Timetable for rest of Term 2
- Summary of the research journey
- Diagram showing the relationship of theory/practice
- Handout given to teachers to prepare for the meeting
- Notes (on change, Bernstein etc) used by me at meeting
- Readings given: Osborn *et al.* (2000); 'Divided Nations' unit of work (HSS Grade 8 book); 'The story of human diversity' unit of work (HSS Grade 6 book); Dawson (2000); Huckle (1997); Hicks (1998).

DF39: Meeting with team, 17 July 2002: Planning an integrated HSS theme
- Letter to team dated 12 July 2002 – preparation for the meeting on 17 July
- My draft outline of an integrated theme for their consideration
- My notes
- Tabulated summary of the difference between a constructivist and traditional classroom (Brooks & Brooks, 1993)

DF40: Constructivism Workshop, 22/23 July 2002
- My notes taken during the workshop run by Ursula
- List of readings given to workshop participants
- List of workshop participants

DF41: Constructivism Workshop: Teachers' evaluation
Written reflections received from 6 teachers

DF42: Curriculum Workshop, 4 September 2002: Integrated thematic HSS approach to South Africa
- Workshop rationale and outline
- Workshop materials generated by me

DF43: Copy of the DoE's Pilot CTA, August 2002
Received from a teacher in a local state school

DF44: Focus group discussion, 12 July 2002: Debating a focus/theme for an integrated approach to HSS
Chaired by one of the History teachers

Transcription of the video recording

DF45: Curriculum Workshop, 4 September 2002
Materials generated by the teachers:

- Concept maps – History and Geography

DF46: Curriculum workshop continued, 11 September 2002

- Rationale for integrated theme generated by the teachers
- History's outcomes
- Worksheets and activities developed by the History teachers for Grade 9

DF47: Curriculum workshop continued, 18 September 2002

- Letter to team dated 17/09/02 about the DoE's Assessment Guideline document obtained from a teacher in a local state school
- Field notes taken by PGCE student during a meeting with a local state school teacher
- My field notes
- Copy of a Geography teacher's overhead transparencies
- Geography teacher's reflections on the past two weeks

DF48: 2002 IEB CTA received on 19 September 2002

DF49: Meeting with team, 25 September 2002: Assessment Audit

- My synthesis of DoE and IEB Assessment Guideline documents
- Audit sheet developed by me
- Minutes of the meeting taken by PGCE student during the meeting

DF50: Meeting with team, 3 October 2002: Geography teachers report back on their fieldtrip and presentation to colleagues

- Audio-recorded and transcribed by me

DF51: Meeting with team, 16 October 2002
Notes made on matters discussed (the CTA, the implementation of the integrated theme on Soweto, the assessment audit etc.)

DF52: Meeting with team, 23 October 2002

- Letter dated 21 October
- Copies of transcripts given to teachers
- Draft programme for remainder of term
- Field notes made during the meeting on assessment discussions, namely the CTA and CASS

DF53: Meeting with team, 30 October 2002: Focus group discussion on data obtained from interviews etc. chaired by one of the history teachers

- Field notes taken during the discussion
- Curriculum audit sheets
- Transcription of the video recording by PGCE student

DF54: Meeting with team, 13 November 2002: Focus group discussion on the CTA implementation

- Notes made during the discussion

- e-mails from teachers with additional comments
- Criteria generated by me for evaluating the CTA
- Transcript

DF55: National DoE CTA Development Workshop, 19 November 2002, Pretoria

- Field notes made during the workshop
- Names and addresses of the HSS CTA development team
- List of people to whom the 2002 CTA report was sent on 13 December 2002
- Principal's letter to parents, December 2002

DF56: Meeting with team, 20 November 2002: Curriculum Audit and Planning workshop for 2002

- My suggestions and a possible framework for the CTA report
- Notes used for my report back to the team on the CTA developmental process (based on the national CTA development workshop I attended in Pretoria)
- 2002 History and Geography Curriculum Audit document generated by me and completed by the teachers when auditing the 2002 curriculum they implemented
- 2003 History and Geography Curriculum planning document developed by me as a matrix onto which the teachers can map their curriculum for 2003

DF56a: Copy of the DoE's 2002 CTA (obtained from a local state school)

DF57: Draft CTA Report with the editing that was done by one of the teachers, 10 December 2002
2002 CTA results for the girls and boys

The School-Based Intervention : The Development Phase (2003)

DF57: Meeting with team, 29 January 2003

- Letter recapping and summarising the Inception phase
- Agenda and rationale for meeting
- Minutes of meeting taken by one of the teachers
- Suggested framework for 2003
- Plan of action negotiated at the meeting
- Copy of the 2003 Research and Curriculum Goals negotiated and agreed upon by the teachers

DF58: One-to-one interviews with teachers, February 2003

- Notes made at a meeting held on 6/02/02 at which Ursula and I conceptualized and discussed the interviews
- Interview schedule
- Notes made by me during the interviews
- Transcripts of the audio-recorded interviews

DF59: Meeting with team, 5 February 2003

- 2003 Route map, that is, a planning document for the 2003 research process drafted by me
- Draft programme for Term 1

Meeting with team, 19 February 2003

- Notes made during the departmental presentations
- Outline of the History and Geography curricula developed by the teachers for implementation in Grades 8 and 9

DF60: Graphicacy Workshop, 26 February 2003

- Outline of workshop activities
- Article on graphicacy by Wilmot (2000)

DF61: Enquiry Workshop (1), 19 March 2003

- Letter to teachers briefing them about the workshop and the preparation, that is, the reading they need to do beforehand
- Copy of the readings given to teachers prior to the workshop
- Minutes of the workshop taken by me
- Notes made during the workshop

DF62: Enquiry Workshop (2), 7 April 2003

- Minutes of the workshop taken by me
- My notes
- List of enquiry readings provided
- Extracts on enquiries from C2005 and the RNCS (the latter being for both the GET and FET) used to explain progression
- Grade 8 History enquiry outline developed by the History teachers
- Grade 9 Geography enquiry outline developed by the Geography teachers

DF63: Meeting with team, 9 April 2003: Focus group discussion: Review of Term 1

- Letter/questionnaire to teachers dated 6 April in which the goals of the 2003 collaborative research and curriculum project are summarized and a series of questions reflecting on the process thus far are asked
- Completed questionnaires
- Notes made during the focus group discussion
- Transcript of the audio-recording

DF64: Meeting with team, 20 May 2003: Planning meeting

- Meeting with the Team Manager and another teacher to discuss plans for Term 2, 16 May 2003
- Draft route map for Term 2 dated 15 May 2003, which were circulated to the team before the meeting
- Draft programme for Term 2
- Minutes of meeting taken by a teacher
- Motes made by me for meeting

DF65: Meeting with team, 28 May 2003: Conference feedback
Feedback on the Curriculum Conference at Rhodean School, 22-24 May 2003

- Notes made by me during the teachers' feedback session

- Rubric template received at the conference and Cathy's adaptation of it for Grade 9 Geography
- Documentation received at the conference

DF66: IEB Assessment Workshop, 9-10 June 2003

- Workshop programme
- Copy of slides used in the presentation
- Notes made during the workshop
- Copy of the White and Gunstone article on concept mapping given by me to the teachers after the workshop
- Evaluation sheet drafted by me for completion by the team
- 3 teachers' written reflections

DF67: Meeting with team, 4 June 2003: Curriculum policy analysis

- Copy of my handout dated 20 May 2003: Revisiting curriculum policy which included a questions for the teachers to prepare before the meeting on 4 June
- Learner profile: teachers' amendments and refinements

Meeting with teachers, 11 June 2003: Consolidating and clarifying work done at the IEB Workshop

- Letter to team dated 10 May (my reflections on the workshop)
- Agenda
- Diagram prepared for teachers to illustrate and clarify assessment
- Extracts from the Review Committee's Report (2000); the CTA framework (DoE, November 2002)
- PhD Research proposal

DF68: Meeting with team, 24 June 2003: Focus group discussion – reflecting on the journey thus far

- Letter, dated 20 June 2003, briefing team about the purpose of the focus group discussion
- A3 summary of the collaborative journey
- Teachers' written responses to the summary
- Notes taken during the discussion
- Copy of Muller (2001: Chapter 4) and my notes given to team
- Transcript of the audio-recording of the discussion

DF69: 2003 CTA documents received from Sandy on 9 June 2003

- IEB (Optional) Section A and B
- DoE (Section A)

DF70: Meeting with team, 9 July 2003

- Letter from Team Manager and another teacher with a copy of an agenda they had drawn up for the meeting on 9/07/03
- Revised Learner Profile documents generated by the team
- Revised History and Geography curricula
- Notes taken during the meeting

DF71: Meeting with team, 16 July 2003: Enquiry presentations

- Minutes and notes of the History and Geography curriculum planning sessions held on the Rap Day, 10 July 2003
- Enquiry handouts generated by the teachers

- Revised Learner Profile document
- My notes

DF72: Meeting with team, 23 July 2003: Focus group discussion - Learner Process Map
- Agenda and notes made by me
- Transcript of the audio-taped focus group discussion
- Learner Profile document
- Learning Map document

DF73: Meeting with team and members of The Geographical Association
- Agenda and notes
- Enquiry handouts used by the teachers for the presentation of the History and Geography enquiry
- Feedback from GA members

DF74: The Geographical Association Correspondence re the 2004 Conference

DF75: The Geographical Association Canterbury Conference, Canterbury April 2004
- Letter of confirmation from the conference organisers
- Outline of presentation and handouts used at presentation
- CD ROM of slides used at presentation
- Letter of thanks and positive feedback from conference organizers
- "A Report on my experiences" report compiled for the GA International Committee by the Geography teacher who presented at the GA Conference
- E-mail inviting us to submit an article on enquiries for publication in *Teaching Geography* journal
- Copy of the article submitted for publication in *Teaching Geography* journal, 18 July 2004
- Copy of the article submitted for publication in the SAJE, July 2004

DF76: Meeting with team, 10 September 2003: Focus Group Discussion - Assessment Guideline document analysis
- Assessment diagram used to illustrate the difference between formative and summative assessment
- Annotated Assessment Guideline document showing the team's responses
- Notes made by a PGCE student observer
- Transcript of the discussion

DF77: Meeting with team, 17 September 2003: Focus group discussion – the CTA
- Annotated copy of Section A of the CTA
- Transcript of the discussion

DF78: IEB User Group Regional Meeting, 19-20 September 2003
- Agenda
- Programme of events
- List of schools and teachers who attended the meeting
- Minutes of the meeting
- Handouts and diagrams used for my presentation on assessment

- Final version of the Learning Process Map
- DoE and IEB CASS form exemplars
- E-mail from organiser with feedback on the meeting from those who attended
- Transcripts of the video-recording of the team's presentations on the History and Geography enquiries, and the Learning Process map

DF79: Meeting with team, 1 October 2003: Business/planning meeting
- Copy of the minutes of the Geography Department meeting, 23/09/03
- Proposed programme for remainder of Term 3, drafted by me on 29/09

DF80: Meeting with team, 8 October 2003: Enquiry work continued
- James' planning grid
- Note on consent and anonymity
- Notes taken during the meeting
- Geography enquiry diagram

DF81: Meeting with team, 15 October and 31 October 2003: Learner portfolio organization
- Notes taken during the meetings
- Updated program for remainder of the term
- Table of contents and cover sheet designed by a geography teacher to the Learner Portfolio
- Learner Portfolio cover sheet designed by a history teacher
- IEB cover sheet for the portfolio

DF82: Meeting with team, 5 November 2003: Teacher Portfolio organisation
- Notes taken during the meeting
- A checklist developed by a geography teacher for the Teacher Portfolio
- Draft spreadsheet for the CASS and CTA marks developed by a geography teacher
- A revised spreadsheet done by a history teacher
- A revised cover sheet for the Learner Portfolio – done by a history teacher

DF84: Meeting with team, 12 November 2003: Focus Group Discussion - CTA Section A analysis
- Letter to the HSS team 'manager' outlining the arrangements for the rest of the term while I am away
- Transcript of the focus group discussion
- List of readings used with teachers during the intervention

DF85: Focus Group Discussion, 19 November 2003, chaired by one of the history teachers in my absence
- Transcript of the video-recorded discussion
- My analysis of the transcript

DF86: Copies of the 2003 CTA documents

DF87: Learners' (Girls) written responses to the CTA, 18 November 2003

DF88: Learners' (Boys) written responses to the CTA, 18 November 2003

DF89: 2003 Grade 9 Learners' results, CASS and CTA

- Raw scores
- Tabulated results
- Analysis and discussion of the results

DF90: Focus Group Discussion, 27 November 2003, chaired by an outsider, Ms J Vorster, Academic Development, Rhodes University

- Ms Vorster's report
- My analysis of the report
- Transcription of the video-recording of the discussion

DF91: Cluster Group Moderation meeting, November 2003

- Minutes of the meeting
- History teacher's reflection
- Geography teacher's reflection
- IEB moderator's checklist

DF92: Person-to-person interviews with teachers, January 2004

- Interview schedule
- My notes
- Transcripts of the audio-recorded interviews

Post-Intervention (2004 - 2005)

DF93: 2004 Term 1 HSS Programme (designed by the HSS coordinator)
2004 Term 1 HSS Coordinator's Reflections

DF94: History Curriculum and Assessment work during 2004

- Grade 9 History Enquiry [WW11 Military Operations]
- Grade 10 History Enquiry [Buildings, events and personalities of the school in the past]
- Grade 12 Historical Investigation: Recommendations for Revision, memo compiled by the History Department of the two schools and submitted to the IEB, June 2004

DF95: Geography Curriculum and Assessment work during 2004
Enquiry presentation, GA Conference, Canterbury April 2004

DF96: Draft copy of the 2003 Report, 2 June 2004

- Names of people to whom the report was sent
- Transcript of a audio-recorded conversation about the report held with the teacher who edited the report, 15 June 2004

DF97: *Mind and Concept Mapping:* HSS team presentation to the combined staff of the two schools, 25 June 2004

- Notes made during the presentation
- Copies of the presenter's slides
- Presentation audio-recorded but not transcribed

DF98: e-mail, dated 23/07/04 inviting the HSS team to set the 2006 CTA, and brief for the setting process
e-mail reply from the HSS team, dated 30 July 2004

DF99: Critical reflections on the HSS team's progress and the role of the co-ordinator in 2004 written by Cathy

DF100: Post-Intervention Focus group discussions, June 2005

- Letter to teachers dated 17 May 2005, thanking them for agreeing to participate in focus group discussions and explaining the preparation required for the discussions
- Handout: *Preparation for focus group discussions* dated 25 May 2005.
- Extracts from my thesis (draft Chapter 6) to illustrate the route I was taking to the teachers
- Transcripts of the three focus group discussions that took place (the first being a combined History/Geography one, the others being subject specific

DF101: Letter to teachers, dated 6 June 2005, requesting permission to quote from interviews etc.

- Signed responses from the teachers
- e-mail to principals asking permission to name schools and their response

RESEARCH OUTCOMES AND PUBLICATIONS

Articles in refereed journals

Wilmot, D. (2003). The inception phase of a case study of outcomes-based education assessment policy in the Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2005. *South African Journal of Education, 23*(4), 313-318.

Wilmot, D. & Norton, S. (2004). Issues-based enquiry at two South African schools. *Teaching Geography 29*(3), 128-132.

Wilmot, D. (2005). The development phase of a case study of outcomes-based assessment policy in the Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2005. *South African Journal of Education, 25*(2), 69-75.

Conference proceedings

Wilmot. D. (2002) What teachers do when dealing with change: The Inception phase of a longitudinal case study. Proceedings of the Regional Conference of the International Geographic Union (IGU) Commission on Geographical Education (CGE), Durban, South Africa, 4-7 August 2002. CD-ROM format. ISBN 0-9729283-0-8

Research Reports

Wilmot, D. (2002). An evaluation of implementing the Grade 9 CASS and CTA at two Eastern Cape Schools, 2002, within a professional and curriculum development framework. Report written in collaboration with the History and Geography teachers, St Andrew's College and the Diocesan School for Girls, Grahamstown.

Wilmot, D. (2005). Making OBE work in Human and Social Sciences at two Eastern Cape schools: navigating Curriculum 2005, advancing curriculum innovation, and implementing the 2003 Grade 9 CASS and CTA. Report written in collaboration with the History and Geography teachers, St Andrew's College and the Diocesan School for Girls, Grahamstown.

Research journal

2002 Research Journal

2003 Research Journal

Portfolios

Teachers' Master Portfolio used for the cluster group moderation process in 2003

Sample of Grade 9 Leaner Portfolios used for the cluster group moderation process in 2003

AUDIO AND VIDEO TAPES

T1: Interview with Andrew and Colin, 1 February 2002

T2: Interview with James and Dale, 1 February 2002

T3: Interview with Ann and Sandy, 4 February 2002

T4: Interview with Richard and Cathy, 6 February 2002

T5: (Video) Focus group discussion: What is History? What is Geography? 12 February 2002
HSS team presentation to staff of the two schools, March 2002

T6: (Video) Focus group discussion: Negotiating an integrated HSS theme, 12 July 2002

T7: (Video) Focus group discussion: Analysis of interview and focus group transcripts, 30 October 2002

T8: Focus group discussion: the 2002 CTA Report

T9: Interview with Cathy and Colin, 7 February 2003

T10: Interview with James and Richard, 7 February 2003

T11: Interview with Dale and Jo, 7 February 2003

T12: Interview with Ann and Sandy, 13 February 2003

T13: Interview with Kim, 13 February 2003

T14: Review of Term 1, April 2003
Report back on the Rhodean Curriculum Conference, May 2003

T15: Focus group discussion on the research process and its consequences, 24 June 2003
Learner Profile development discussion, 23 July 2003

T16: Focus group discussion on the Assessment Guidelines, 10 September 2003
Focus group discussion on the CTA Section A, 10 September 2003

T17: Focus Group discussion on the Assessment Guideline documents, 17 September 2003

T18: (Video) IEB User Group Meeting, 19 –20 September 2003

T19: Focus Group Discussion on Section A (Geography) CTA, 12 November 2003

T20: (Video) Evaluation of the research process, 29 November 2003

T21: Interview with Colin and Cathy, 3 February 2004

T22: Interview with James and Ann, 3 February 2004

T23: Interview with Richard and Sandy, 4 February 2003

T24: Interview with Dale and Kim, 6 February 2004

T25: Discussion of Report 2 with Dale, 15 June 2004
HSS team presentation on Concept Mapping to staff, 17 June 2004

T26: Focus group discussion with HSS team, June 2005

T27: Focus group discussion with History teachers, June 2005
Focus group discussion with Geography teachers, June 2005

APPENDIX B

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CR 2	Letter to History and Geography teachers of the two schools explaining the nature and purpose of the research project, and a copy of the draft Principles of Procedures discussion document, dated 29 January 2002.	DF2	**4**
CR 3	Examples of the diagrams used as conceptual meaning – making props in the school-based intervention during the period 2002-2003		**8**
3.1	- Making the move: Re-orientating assessment	DF 4	**9**
3.2	- OBE/Revised National Curriculum: Assessment Model	DF27	**10**
3.3	- Grade 9 Assessment: The 'bigger picture'	DF38	**11**
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3.5	- Background to Educational Transformation	DF78	**13**
3.6	- OBE Assessment model	DF78	**14**
CR 4	Wilmot. D. (2002) How teachers deal with change: The Inception phase of a longitudinal case study. Proceedings of the Regional Conference of the International Geographic Union (IGU) Commission on Geographical Education (CGE), Durban, South Africa, 4-7 August 2002. CD-ROM format.	DF26	**15**
CR 5	Wilmot, D. (2003). The inception phase of a case study of outcomes-based education assessment policy in the Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2005. *South African Journal of Education, 23*(4), 313-318.	DF26	**21**

Number	Description of evidence	Data File	Page
CR 6	Wilmot, D. (2002). An evaluation of implementing the Grade 9 CASS and CTA at two Eastern Cape Schools, 2002, within a professional and curriculum development framework. Report written in collaboration with the History and Geography teachers, St Andrew's College and the Diocesan School for Girls, Grahamstown.	N/A	**27**
CR 7	Wilmot, D. (2004). Making OBE work in Human and Social Sciences at two Eastern Cape schools: navigating Curriculum 2005, advancing curriculum innovation, and implementing the 2003 Grade 9 CASS and CTA. Report written in collaboration with the History and Geography teachers, St Andrew's College and the Diocesan School for Girls, Grahamstown.	N/A	**166**
CR 8	Wilmot, D. (2005). The development phase of a case study of outcomes-based assessment policy in the Human and Social Sciences Learning Area of C2005. *South African Journal of Education, 25*(2), 69-76.	N/A	**299**
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CR 14	Copy of letter sent to the General Education and Training Project Manager at the national Department of Education, the IEB, uMalusi (the quality assurance body for GET schools), and curriculum developers at the national and provincial Departments of Education, dated 6 June 2004	DF 96	**332**

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