THE IMPACT OF SOUTH AFRICA’S NEW EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON MAMELODI TEACHERS’ ROLE PERCEPTIONS.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work and that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any university.

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T.T. Sibanyoni

7 January 2000.
ABSTRACT

The main aim of the study is to investigate black teachers’ perceptions about their role in Mamelodi a township east of Pretoria. It argues that policy changes at macro level, that do not take into account the school and classroom settings, do not lead to a proper understanding of their implications and, subsequently an improvement of classroom practice. Findings are drawn from the accounts of twenty teachers from the primary and secondary sectors. The study concludes that even though teachers were using the terminology related to new policy expectations when talking about change, they were unaware of the essential skills related to such expectations. As a result they failed to appreciate what is required to develop the proposed critical skills for the learners. The teachers' understanding of the new curriculum policy is limited. The study recommends that for effective implementation relevant preset and inset programmes need to be provided.

Key words.
Mamelodi, teaching-practice, role perception, policy, consciousness.
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<tr>
<td>CHED</td>
<td>Council of Higher Education</td>
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<td>DET</td>
<td>Department of Education and Training</td>
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<td>INSET</td>
<td>Inservice training.</td>
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<td>M+3</td>
<td>Matric + 3 years experience</td>
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<td>NAPTOSA</td>
<td>National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa</td>
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<td>PRESET</td>
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<td>Related Education Qualifications Value</td>
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<td>SACE</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During apartheid education, history syllabi were compiled by educational experts without consulting teachers, parents or pupils. Teachers were also overlooked in the selection of textbooks. Furthermore, history as a school subject was approached from a narrow perspective. Generally the critics of the history and geography syllabi complained about their limited scope, irrelevance and complexity for the learners. The syllabi were viewed as providing inadequate preparation for the learners' future role in society and the hidden curriculum was viewed as supporting the ideals of the Nationalist government. (cf. Appendix C for the general aims of the syllabus for this level)

These aims were to be fulfilled by teachers who did not have the required skills. School facilities were poor. These factors, together with the large numbers of learners in black schools, made it difficult for teachers to function effectively. Without the necessary skills, teachers could not, for example, provide learners with the intellectual skills of investigating historical facts. Also, the examiners and subject advisers did not provide proper guidance to the teachers or hold meetings to give them the support they required for curriculum development. Examiners did not give feedback on the examinations. Inspectors who visited schools were viewed as critics who came to "spy" on the teachers' work (Shalem, 1992).

To overcome the problem of teacher incompetency in-service programmes were introduced, but as Modiba's (1996) study indicates, not all the teachers were afforded the
opportunity of attending the in-service programmes.

As a result of the criticism levelled against the syllabi a new curriculum has been introduced in South Africa. Its focus is on the improvement of content, skills and competences. For example, to address the problem of irrelevance, the history syllabus has added more sections on the black people's history. To address textbook and knowledge reproduction, the learners are to be taught new skills, which include for example, creating responsible citizens in a culturally diverse democratic society, making sound judgements that will contribute to the sustainable development of human society, the physical environment and the development of distinctive skills and critical awareness of social and environmental patterns, processes and events based on reflection within and across related focuses. (cf. Appendix C)

Even though the new policy document has been introduced, teachers have mixed reactions with regard to its implementation. Some understand the nature of the expected change whilst others do not see any difference. Curriculum 2005 has been introduced and is aimed primarily at addressing weaknesses experienced in the field of science technology (Education Department Policy Document October, 1997). However, though such expectations are clearly stipulated, they are nevertheless still negotiated mainly through existing policies, and Apartheid influenced perceptions of good classroom practice and teacher education. Teachers, black ones in particular, are uncertain about the role they have to play in the new dispensation despite the fact that South Africa has recently come up with new norms and standards for teacher education (cf. Education
Department 1998). Therefore, one could argue that in this country teachers face a serious problem of role perception.

Little research on teachers' role perception has recently been done in South Africa except for the following analytical studies that have been conducted since the country has had new education policies. They are mainly theoretical critiques of such policies (see, the various Quarterly Reviews of the Wits Education Policy Unit). In addition to authors who researched the role of teachers during apartheid, more work that has been done is mainly concerned with the transitional period in South Africa, for example, Rossouw (1994) and Smith (1995) are but some of the few. It is unfortunate that these studies tended to provide very general ideas with little attention paid to the dynamics which are faced by the country. They can thus be viewed as providing simple guidance for the complex practice of teaching. Smith (1995) is concerned with outcomes based education. His study is aimed at improving the involvement of pupils in the classroom. He is of the opinion that undemocratic procedures which contribute to the passivity of learners in the classroom should be eliminated. According to him, pupils should be involved in everyday classroom activities. Emphasis should be placed on learner-centred approach. The talk and chalk method whereby the teacher imparts knowledge and evokes the participation of few learners results in the passivity of the majority of the learners. Secondly, the operational objectives prescribed in the old syllabi do not cater for the individual needs of each learner. Rossouw on the other hand pays attention on the importance of the senior management team in the transformation of an outstanding school. The writer views the teachers as team leader, a view that is different from what used to be the case in the
apartheid period where the management team acted to promote the apartheid ideas of the Education Department. Rossouw emphasises that the senior management team should work together with the teachers, learners and parents to attain an effective teaching-learning situation. This is the case because even though there has been a change of policy at a micro-structural level, teachers' perceptions at an institutional level (school) and classroom level are still primarily those that have been shaped by apartheid ideology and its associated educational ideas and practices. The examples referred to above, provide simple solutions for the complex practice of teaching. Therefore, what was necessary for this study was a more comprehensive stance that could try to examine teachers' collaborative efforts to establish meaningful connections between curriculum conceptualisation, planning, designing and implementation. As Stenhouse (1975) asserted that:

Classrooms are not islands, for teachers do not test and verify knowledge in their classrooms in isolation, but in communication with other teachers to find common vocabulary of concepts and develop syntax of teaching theory (1989:87).

Rationale of study

In South Africa teachers' involvement in curriculum planning and design has been overlooked for a number of years. With the current expectations they face, there was a need to identify ways on the basis of which they read meaning into the expectations and decided on strategies to implement what is essential to them because:

(1) During the apartheid system, like all other teachers, South African black teachers could not avoid the influence of Apartheid ideals. However, as black people, they did not wholeheartedly embrace the expectations of this system. Their position
wavered between apartheid ideals and their own ideals as black people (Modiba, 1988).

(2) Black teachers in South African schools generally viewed the curriculum they were expected to teach as unrelated to the context in which they worked, and the ideals of the communities they served. In spite of this, they took for granted the expectations they faced and still believed that, in circumstances under which they lived, implementing this curriculum was a worthwhile exercise. But with the political changes in the country and the new perceptions introduced and expected in education, their role is now perceived as different from that which the nationalist government expected. For instance History and Geography teachers are expected to achieve certain specific and ultimate objectives. It is expected of the teachers to promote the following skills amongst the learners:

(a) Critical understanding of how South African Society has changed and developed.
(b) Critical understanding of the patterns of social development.
(c) Participation in promoting a just, democratic and equitable society.
(d) Sound judgement about development, utilisation and management of resources.
(e) Critical understanding of the role of technology and social development.
(f) Demonstration of an understanding of the interrelationship between society and natural environment.
(g) Addressing of social and environmental issues in order to promote development and social justice.
(h) Analysis of forms and processes of organisations.
(i) Use a range of skills and techniques in human and social science context.

Teachers are expected to play a different role in the new dispensation. They are no longer expected to implement uncritically the curriculum prescribed by the educational authorities. They are considered to be important stakeholders in curriculum planning, design and implementation. Therefore, as a teacher who has worked under the previous
dispensation, I found it necessary and important, as part of examining the changing expectations faced by teachers in schools, to establish: how they understood their role, that is, to understand the shifts in relation to the past role perceptions and the current ones. The views of Aronowitz and Giroux (1985) were useful to establish whether teachers viewed themselves as having a role to play, a different role that is transformative and intellectual. Stenhouse's views also assisted in determining the extent to which teachers appreciated the need to work together in bringing about educational change, and Elliott's assisted in determining how teachers discussed educational problems, challenged, when necessary, ideas and suggested solutions introduced by educational authorities.

Aim of the study
In brief, the aim of this study was to establish the extent to which South African black teachers of History and Geography at primary and secondary levels in Mamelodi, a township in Pretoria, perceived their role in the changed education system. It focused on the conceptual shifts that teachers have experienced because of new expectations. The study also aimed at finding out how these shifts were impacting on the processes they employed in teaching and the facilitation of learning.

Method
Since it was important to examine the conceptual position of teachers as far as it related to new educational policy expectations in South Africa, the best way of collecting data required providing scope and time for teachers to express their views. A structured but informally conducted interview process was considered as an important tool for this purpose. The researcher believed that it would allow teachers a relaxed atmosphere and
scope to explore and refine their ideas freely.

Sample
About twenty History and Geography standard two (grade four) - standard ten (grade twelve) teachers from the primary and secondary schools in Mamelodi were selected for this study. The researcher assumed that these teachers would be in a better position to draw comparisons between their subject-areas and explain how the changed system influenced their present role perception when compared to the past. Also, these teachers were selected because they are now expected to collaborate as practitioners in a common learning area, that is, social science.

Organisation of study
The first chapter broadly outlines previous policy and expectations for History and Geography teachers and gives an analysis of the new expectations faced by the History and Geography teachers. The latter is done in terms of content, skills and competences to be taught and learned. Also included is a brief account of the general proposed role of teachers in the new dispensation. This is followed by an examination of the literature on educational change and its effect on teachers' understanding of their role in the organisation of teaching, that is, as curriculum developers. This review of selected texts is followed by an explanation of how it helped the researcher to decide on the research tools and methods employed in the study. The next section analyses the research data by looking at teachers' understanding of policy changes in South Africa post 1994 and their views about the influence of policy on their competence post 1994.
Finally, the study concludes by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses in teachers' perception and makes recommendations for meaningful curriculum participation in the area under investigation, the learning area of Human and Social Science inclusive of subjects traditionally known as history and geography.
CHAPTER 2

The chapter examines theoretical and empirical research about teachers' role perceptions. As pointed out in the preceding chapter, in South Africa, work done in this area is limited. As a result, the chapter has had to draw largely on work done in other parts of the world in order to develop broader conceptual tools which could serve as a basis for designing the research conducted towards this study.

From this discussion, it will be evident that both local and international authors uphold the idea that the role of the teacher as a manager, professional, and transformer are inextricably linked. The writings referred to here agree that the teacher is a transformer who should have an influence on his/her practice through involvement in curriculum design, development, and implementation. The general view is that such involvement presupposes situations where teachers ask questions about the goals they are striving for, what they teach and how they are to teach it. They make judgements about their practice and effect changes where necessary. To make critical judgement about practice, teachers need to go beyond prescribed models and regulations. They need to use different alternatives to view the school situation.

Studies conducted during Apartheid education such as Modiba's (1988), (1996) and Shalem's (1992) provided useful insights for this study, on the basis of which it was possible to determine the extent to which, at least in the case of Modiba, teachers' perceptions about their role have changed since there has been a change of government in
South Africa. In her 1988 study Modiba examined the influence of Apartheid ideology in general and Apartheid education in particular on Black teachers' role perceptions. She concluded that the impact of apartheid on teachers' perceptions was characterised by a conflict between their awareness of the need to promote the aspirations of the communities they served, and identifying ways of coping with the constraints caused by the hierarchical structure of the Education Department. In addition, in her 1996 paper, she investigated black teachers' understanding of their practices in education. In this study she employs two concepts of Gramsci: common-sense and traditional intellectualism to argue that in spite of being generally dissatisfied with their practices, there was a level at which teachers still took for granted the structures within which they worked and regarded what is expected of them as worthwhile. This seemed to be the case despite the feelings that they were denied the authority to be creative with their classroom practices, even though as professionals they should have been entitled to such authority (1996:123).

The author highlighted the general outcry of teachers to the lack of power to influence their practice and how they felt deprived of the conditions that could help them remedy the situation. Teachers felt the need to comply because it was the only system available to offer some form of education to black children. They did not have enough courage to challenge what was unacceptable. Furthermore, regulations governing teacher employment had generally treated public comment or criticisms of the education department as misconduct. Teachers became submissive in fear of losing their jobs, fringe benefits and in order to gain promotion. Teaching in the Bantu education system presented itself as a job which took care of the values of those it served (1996:120).

As traditional intellectuals teachers were expected to implement the orders of those who
thought for the department (organic intellectuals). They were expected to reproduce contents of textbooks without critical analysis. Instead of looking critically at the school policy, teachers were mainly concerned with issues related to student discipline, taught mainly to get good results in public examinations and organise school activities effectively. Teachers were expected to mould African minds so that they could accept subservient positions and be of service to white South African economic needs. To win the support of teachers, amongst other factors, and within the framework of apartheid, the department introduced benefits like salary improvement, subsidisation of mortgage bonds and medical schemes. As part of its total strategy it has managed to create a group of Blacks with a stake of economic viability, and it was hoped that this would influence them to ally themselves with the government against the aspirations of the suffering black majority. Modiba assets that:

Teachers tried to cope with the hierarchical system of control in the DET and the rewards it offered for compliance (1996:125).

Drawing from Gramsci, Modiba (1996) also describes the positioning of teachers as traditional intellectuals as follows:

The teacher role in South Africa signifies the disappearance of an intellectual task, which is supposed to be central to the nature of his/her career (1996:127).

The extent to which this did or not happen is evident in the empirical evidence in this study, and provides the basis for more research into issues related to ideology and materialism and the shaping of people's consciousness. Therefore, this study is a contribution to the attempt to establish whether any significant shifts have occurred in black teachers' perceptions since Modiba's work.
Whilst Modiba in her paper describes the perception of black teachers in apartheid education, Shalem (1992) examines those of white English speaking teachers. She suggests that even though these teachers were trained mainly in English medium schools under an English management team, they worked under Afrikaans inspectors and directors who appraised their work, determined their salary, merit and promotion. The author concludes that as a result of this monitoring system, they suffered the same problems of gender and ethnicity because of the application of principles of Christian National Education. Shalem argues that government was:-

A strong centralist Afrikaans male dominated bureaucracy, and juridically state controlled structure of racism and ethnicity (1992:310).

For Shalem these teachers experienced a tension between a marginalised "me" and aspired "I". They had the wish to exercise power but found themselves constrained by the educational hierarchy in their work place and its effect on the organisation of their work. The constraints were caused by factors such as inefficient bureaucracy, an authoritarian pedagogy, curricula and a management which had lost its legitimacy. According to the author these teachers felt they had no say regarding the syllabuses, textbooks, examinations, teaching, training, careers and access to schools because of the hegemony within the education.

It is interesting to look at Shalem's views in relation to those expressed by Modiba regarding black teachers. For anyone with no in-depth understanding of the South African context within which these two authors are writing, the situation could be read as
common in terms of restrictions to both groups of teachers. But in reality the one group had more rights than the other by virtue of being white. Despite this, English teachers according to Shalem raise the same concerns as disenfranchised teachers. However, an important question to ask would be whether both sets of teachers were functioning with an essentially similar consciousness because of the ideological context in which they were practising their profession?

Shalem (1992:310) argues that the privileges confirmed by being a white teacher cannot be expressed in exclusion to those practised by being an English speaking woman teacher. The author highlights the discrimination suffered by white English speaking female teachers even though they were in the majority. Most of the promotional posts were given to males and the women received small salaries in comparison to the men. Other studies such as Van der Merwe (1992), Naidoo (1991) Kruger (1992) and Mabitsela's (1989) have also indicated that despite the evident cracks in the apartheid policy, its attitudes have proved difficult to eradicate. Between 1989 and 1994, teachers were still excluded from curriculum design, implementation and development. According to these authors this was a result of the belief that teachers were not properly trained to handle curricula development matters. According to William Reid (1978:213) change in the school curriculum is dependent on factors such as the adoption of various models. These are models which are underpinned by particular conceptions concerning seeking strategies within the subject to be taught, the nature of children, the role of the teacher to be taught, the nature of children, the role of the teacher and effective teaching, and the nature of the relationship between people and curriculum.
models. He further asserts that the content of the curriculum often reflects the kind of knowledge conceived and practised by industry, higher education and learned societies. What this implies is that the school's input is significantly influenced by industry in addition to who the students are, where they come from, where they will go when they leave school and what expectations are held of them by those who will continue their education and subsequently those who will give them employment.

The South African position can be explained further by drawing from, for example, Fullan and Stregbauer's view on educational change. According to Fullan and Stiegbauer (1991:134) improvement in teaching is a collective rather than an individual enterprise. They assert that innovations developed by teachers within schools also require teacher-teacher interaction. The latter is essential to assist the teachers to trust, share expertise, seek advice and provide help inside and outside the school. Furthermore, they argue that it is only when teachers work together at classroom and school level that meaningful change becomes possible and believe that this might help in improving practice. In their view, such collaboration can be helped further by teacher union and professional associations with their effort to establish conditions of improvement. Through collective bargaining teachers will thus be able to negotiate for innovation and improvement (1991:140). The same view has been expressed by Stenhouse (1995:175) when he argued that teachers need to communicate to find a common vocabulary of concepts and develop a syntax of teaching theory.

Other authors such as Elliott (1989), Calderhead (1989) Viskovic (1989), Kirk (1989),
Achroff and Griffiths (1989), Hatton and Smith (1989), Zeichner and Liston (1987) believe that teachers can bring change in education because they act as reflective practitioners. Teachers as intellectuals raise questions about what they teach, how they are to teach it and the larger goals for which they are striving; thus taking a responsible role in shaping the purpose and conditions of schooling (Aronowitz and Giroux 1987:31). Aschroft and Griffiths (1989:36) also assert that teachers should be able to define their own immediate ideologies from a wider perspective. They suggest that teachers should develop the ability to criticise the existing state of affairs from the moral-political point of view. Therefore, it was of interest for this study to find out the significance that teachers placed on such curricular involvement.

According to Viskovic (1989), Kirk (1986), Hatton and Smith (1994), Aschroft and Griffiths (1989), Zeichner and Liston (1987), papers in Calderhead (1987), the teacher as a transformer is involved in the reflection of his/her practice. For example, Viskovic argues that involving teachers in reflection frees them from their habitual way of the thinking and acting. Through reflection teachers become conscientised and empowered. Reflection is considered a process that leads to other outcomes such as a new way of thinking and feeling, or a decision to take some action. According to Viskovic (1989:10) teachers as critical thinkers become open to alternate ways of looking and behaving in the world. They pay attention to the context in which their actions and ideas are generated. These teachers become sceptical of quick-fix-solutions, single answers to problems and claims to universal truth.
The above view is also reinforced by Hatton and Liston through clarifying the distinction between reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action (1994:34). According to them, when teachers are involved with reflection-on-action it means their conscious thinking is done 'on-the-job'. For them reflection on action occurs when events are unfolding which means that teachers think about reasons for what is happening. On the other hand, reflection-in-action means teachers are aware of what is happening and they modify actions instantaneously. Olson and Eaton in a paper "Curriculum change and classroom Order" (Calderhead) express the same idea as Hatton and Liston by suggesting that school reform within the reflexive perspective comes in two ways (1987:180). Firstly, teachers may be assisted to understand better the knowledge and purpose built in the way they teach. Secondly, teachers are given a chance to handle curriculum materials. These curriculum materials may be used by teachers to reflect on their practice in a critical way and affect the way they think about their work. However, according to Zeichner and Liston (1987:27) a reflexive curriculum does not totally predetermine that which is to be learned, but makes provisions for self-determined needs and concerns of teachers. In their view, such a curriculum encourages teachers to exercise their judgement about the content and process of work, and also gives direction to shape schools as education environments.

But for Eliott (1989), Stenhouse (1975), Aronowitz and Giroux (1985), when teachers exercise judgement about their work it means being involved in critical inquiry. They believe that through critical approaches, teachers examine educational issues of the classroom and see beyond the models that limit conventional thought about classroom practice. These teachers develop the rationale underlying classroom and school
regulations. They examine their own biases and assumptions and the ways in which these affect their own classroom practice. Critical inquiry is, in the words of Kirk:

\[\text{... an action in which teachers act as intelligent practitioners capable of reflective thought and reconstructive action, who are able to take responsibility for their own professional development, and contribute significantly to creation of emancipatory educational process through schooling (1986:156).}\]

The significance of critical inquiry has also been highlighted in Hager and Beckett's paper on professional competence. They argue that there is an interconnection between capabilities, appropriate tasks, sensitivity to context and cultural determinants, and consider capabilities as fundamental in every attempt to be competent (1995:2). These capabilities include the possession of appropriate aspects such as knowledge, skills, attitude and values, and only become evident when applied to the performance of some tasks such as planning and management. According to Hager and Beckett (1995:4) when professionals perform their tasks they need to take into account the context in which they are operating. This context includes how people conceive of their daily beliefs, value and attitudes.

The views of Hager and Beckett could be said to be in support of Linda Darling-Hammond (1989) when she suggested that parents and the general public are important in education and that teachers need to uphold the educationally meaningful and defensible standards cherished by parents and community. They are viewed as having an influence in education, therefore their interests cannot be overlooked. Such a stance is crucial when one considers Linda Darling-Hammond's (1989:18) notion of professional accountability. Firstly, for her this concept means, amongst others, setting educationally meaningful
goals and defensible standards of what the parents and members of the general public can rightfully expect of the school system, school and the teacher. Secondly, there is a need to implement and uphold educational and defensible standards. Thirdly, provision needs to be made for redress and correction. Darling-Hammond further emphasised that teachers are obliged to do whatever is best for the child, not what is easiest or most expedient (1989:21). They need to make decisions about what is best for the child on available knowledge and take into account the unique needs of individual children.

To summarise, to regard the teacher as a transformer assumes the ability to understand the work context and implies asking questions about the classroom and the school situation. The aim is that the resultant mediation would result in a new way of thinking. Viewed in the context of South Africa, the implication is that teachers would be obliged to reflect-on-action, especially when faced with issues related to current education policy and principles fundamental to the country's democracy. The belief is that when teachers reflect on their practice they are likely to be critical of and understand the prescribed documents and the extent to which they are consistent to the present ideals expressed within the country. Therefore, the study employs the concept of critical inquiry referred to here, to establish the extent to which the latter is the case amongst Mamelodi teachers of history and geography. The research tools and methods employed to do this are discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 3

Research Design and Methodology

Various contributions in Calderhead (1987) provided by researchers such as Clark and Yinger, Zeichner, Berliner, Olson and Eaton regarding teachers' role perceptions provided a number of insights that had implications for approaching a study of this nature. The study drew from these approaches to identify useful ways in which the researcher could begin to examine and understand the teaching of black teachers within the framework of the new educational policies in South Africa. As a result, it became clear that the best way of collecting teachers' views needed to provide scope and time for them to reveal their conceptions about practices in classrooms and schools. The research strategy also had to probe into the views expressed. Where there would be lack of clarity the strategy would allow teachers a relaxed atmosphere and scope to express and reflect on their ideas.

Sample

Stacey (1985:72) highlights the aim of research as a way of getting truthful information from people on a subject about which they are under no obligation to disclose if they do not wish to. To obtain such truth requires in Moser and Kalton's view some motivation. They see motivation as affecting the respondent's decision to co-operate and his/her subsequent decision to continue with the interview (1986:271). More importantly it also means motivation to give accurate answers.

To deal with this concern, the research drew largely from Moser and Kalton's (1986:274) view that as an introductory procedure to increase the respondents' motivation to co-
operate, an-explanation is needed of why, and for whom the results will be of interest. It was made clear to the respondents that the research answers would be treated as confidential.

About twenty history and geography teachers from primary and secondary schools in Mamelodi, with experience of 3 years and more were approached for participation in this study. The teachers also had to be teaching standard two (Grade four) or standard ten (Grade twelve). Such teachers were considered suitable for the purpose of the study because, they were not only expected to implement the changed syllabi in their subjects but the researcher also regarded them as being in a better position to draw comparisons and explain how policy changes influence their present role perception when compared to the past. To ensure the latter, other variables which were also considered important in selecting the sample for this study were the following: qualifications (REQV13 or M+3), 3 years experience, gender, institutions where teachers received professional education and affiliation to teacher organisation. The researcher assumed that teachers who are qualified with at least REQV13 are better equipped with knowledge and skills in their subjects. Despite such an assumption she had to accommodate some teachers who had not improved their Primary Teachers Course Certificate (PTC) [see Appendix 1]. They had to be accommodated because of their experience in this level of schooling. In addition they were history and geography teachers at the selected primary schools. The gender variable assisted in establishing whether male and females had different perceptions about teaching. Experience would help teachers who were relatively settled in their careers to compare their teaching in the past to that in the present. Information about institutions
where teachers were trained would help the researcher to understand, where necessary, how teachers were socialised into their careers. Teacher organisation membership was vital because it helped to highlight the nature of teachers' radicalism. It is generally taken for granted that young teachers, the majority of whom are members of SADTU, are more radical in outlook when compared to the moderates who belong to NAPTOSA.

Despite the fact that the interviewer indicated that she was a teacher-student who was doing research as part of her master's degree, some teachers were reluctant to take part in the interview after they had agreed to do so. Fortunately, this was not much of an inconvenience because they could be substituted easily by others who were willing to cooperate. The researcher believed that the more the teachers were willing to participate, they better and more honest would be their opinions. As explained by Stacey (1985:72) she was convinced that it would be against the best interest of the research to over-persuade the reluctant respondents.

In addition, some respondents who agreed to be interviewed needed to be reassured that the data collected was going to be presented as anonymous and those who felt uncomfortable with the tape recordings were assured that written notes would be taken instead. The representivity of this sample was not a matter of great concern since the aim was to get a sense of teachers' views about the new policies within South Africa. The researcher considered it appropriate to use a small number of teachers from whom useful data could be obtained through an indepth interview process as complement to questionnaire responses. In the researcher's view it was not important to obtain data that
could be generalizable to a greater research population. What was important was to capture what was regarded as essential data that could serve as a useful starting point for any effective professional development initiative that could be thought of in the future.

Employing this case study strategy was also useful to the researcher considering the length of time and the scope of a project of this nature. The project does not in any way provide full opportunity to do an extensive study of the subject. It is supposed to serve as a partial fulfillment of a programme already half completed. What this therefore means is that data obtained through this sample could not be used as providing a valid general basis upon which we can begin to think of all Mametodi teachers’ understanding of policy.

**Interview questionnaire**

Drawing from Stacey's (1985) view that open-ended questions are often necessary in matters that have to do with beliefs and feelings, the interview questionnaire consisted of eleven open-ended questions (see Appendix A). The respondents also answered the same question. Asking the respondents the same set of questions helped in determining if there was uniformity or differences in opinions on a particular subject. Furthermore, questions posed in the same words ensured that interviewees responded on substantively identical set of questions. No question was left out of any interview. In addition, asking identical questions saved the researcher time in terms of phrasing questions while the interview process was on.
The first set of questions looked into subject content (1,2,3). The aim of the questions was to establish whether the teachers were aware of the proposed changes in the history and geography taught as school subjects. The researcher wanted to find out if they were aware of the proposed changes in the content and teaching approaches. The assumption here was that the nature of understanding revealed by teachers would assist in determining the extent to which these policy changes would be put into operation. The second set looked into teacher effectiveness (4,5). The two questions were meant to establish the extent to which teachers viewed themselves as accountable to the profession. The questions distinguished between the teachers who are committed and those who are less committed to their work. The researcher assumed that teachers who are committed to their work would be more accountable than less committed teachers. Questions (6, 7, 8, 9) were concerned with the situation in schools. The researcher wanted to find out about the conditions existing in the teaching learning-situation. Since there had been changes at policy level it was of interest to establish whether change had brought improvements in the teaching-learning situation. Furthermore, she wished to explore the influence of the relationship between the school and other structures with an interest in education.

The type of influence, positive or negative was assumed to have an effect on the products of the teaching-learning situation. The last two questions (10, 11) paid attention to teacher commitment again. These questions helped in identifying teachers who loved teaching and regarded it as a calling. They were also to assist in clearing contradictory responses (if any) to questions 4 and 5. It was hoped that through these questions a distinction
would be made between teachers who viewed teaching as a job and those who regard it as a calling. The researcher assumed that teachers who regarded teaching as a calling would indicate more commitment to their work despite the impediments they experienced in their work.

**Interview Process**

The structured informal interview proved valuable as it allowed the respondents to describe their role without much anxiety and suspicion. Furthermore, it allowed the interviewer the opportunity to probe further into the interesting details which emerged.

Generally the respondents belonged to the researchers' community and were thus familiar to her. As a result, they were quite relaxed during the interviews. Furthermore the researcher made it clear to them that the interviews were solely for study purposes. It was fairly easy to fulfil Moser and Kalton's (1986:271) three concepts necessary for a successful interview, namely, accessibility, cognition and motivation.

Stacey (1985:80) warns that open-ended questions produce a mass of different answers, some using different words and meaning different things. To guard against this being the case, where signs of such diversity occurred clarification was needed. The researcher probed into the responses, or the respondents were requested to elaborate their ideas further. To encourage them to do so unreservedly, the researcher reassured them that there was no incorrect answer, their opinions were what counted. Communication was mainly in English because the questions were phrased in English. However, in certain situations
the Sotho language was used by the researcher for rephrasing a question or for seeking clarity of the responses given. The respondents also made use of the language when referring to situations that they could not explain clearly in English. This was useful because it relaxed the respondents and contributed to a relationship of trust. The respondents were co-operative mainly because of the convenience of code switching with which we were all comfortable.

The interviews were conducted separately and individually at various schools. This happened mainly in either the principal's office or a classroom. The location was chosen on the basis of whether or not the room had electric sockets for the tape recorder which was used. The interviews were conducted during the respondents' free periods as they preferred. The general feeling was that conducting interviews in any location other than their work place would be intrusive to their personal time and in some cases, to what was expressed as the "private space and family privacy". As a result, the researcher had to do what was convenient for them despite an awareness that conducting interviews in a work place where other teachers and management personnel were aware of what was happening could have an effect on what teachers were or were not prepared to say. However, despite this concern the researcher was sufficiently confident that the results would not be adversely affected. She considered present day teachers as more confident and courageous in expressing their honest views and feelings compared to what would have been the case during apartheid.
Data analysis

In order to analyse the collected data, the researcher had to transcribe the interviewees' responses onto paper. The responses were then categorised first, on the basis of first, their nature and second, in relation to the focus of each interview question. To summarise the findings, with regard to the questions related to changes in history and geography as school subject, the majority of the teachers were not aware of the implications of the new policy expectations to their role or work. However, even though there was a general feeling that an effective teaching-learning situation has not been achieved, a significant number of teachers still felt accountable and committed to their job. More details about these views are dealt with in chapter 4 and 5.
CHAPTER 4

Teachers' understanding of policy changes

The responses presented in this chapter were obtained from teachers who are in the social science department in secondary schools (cf. chapter 3). Since such departments are constituted mainly of history and geography, the views are classified according to these subject-areas in order to highlight the extent to which there has been complementarity and/or disagreement amongst the respondents. This was a useful way of reflecting not only on the views of these respondents, but also their general positioning in relation to new policy requirements in the respective subject-areas which have now been placed into a common learning area.

A number of variables drawn from the literature outlined in Chapter 2 and employed as a basis for the interview schedule were used to generalise on attitudes and divergent thoughts of respondents. In content they include factors like self-esteem, adaptability to change, critical mindedness and the relation with the community and educational authorities. However in certain instances it was difficult to categorise each and every detail. Some responses, clouded by emotions and attitudes could not be easily categorised into their rightful place because of the ambiguity and contradictions in the responses provided by certain teachers. This was the case despite the probing that the researcher used to clarify these uncertainties.
**Adaptability to change**

The teachers' views concerning the difference between what was taught in the past and what is taught presently focussed generally on three aspects, namely changes in subject content, perception about their work and schools as work settings. With regard to change in content, when asked the following question “Is there any difference between what you taught in the past and what you teach presently?”, these remarks are indicative of the opinions held:-

A change is experienced in the syllabus and more is to come. The history that was taught in the past was taught from a perspective of a white man-blacks were presented as a problem and whites as a solution. But recently children are made to understand their own history, that is, South African History, and are told about things which happened not so long ago. Focus is on the black man's history, which is a good thing.

Yes, the new textbooks are different because they have been simplified. The maps, pictures and jigsaw puzzles have been included.

It would have been more enlightening if the researcher had obtained useful responses when trying to probe the first response to clarify what the teacher was referring to when talking about change. Trying to do so, the following are examples of questions asked and answers given:-

**Q:** What do you mean by more changes in the syllabus?

**A:** It means the history of other cultural groups will be considered when compiling the new syllabus.

**Q:** Can you elaborate on changes that you anticipate in the history syllabus?

**A:** The inclusion of recent history which is more relevant to the learners' lives.

**Q:** May you cite some examples of new topics taught to the learners in South African
history.


It was not easy to obtain clarity on this teacher's conception of change because in the attempt to do so, the teacher simply felt that since the researcher was teaching the same subject it was not necessary to pursue the questions she asked. Nothing the researcher did could open the discussion on this point. At the end, rather than continue being ambiguous, the teacher simply said in a dismissive tone:

You already know about the inclusion of the black conscious movement in the syllabus.

With this attitude and unwillingness to demonstrate clarity on issues crucial to the implementation of change at classroom level, it became crucial to establish the extent to which the teachers were aware of what was essential for their practices in order to bring about effective curricular change. When approached it became clear that out of a sample of twenty teachers, only six (5 primary teachers and 1 secondary teacher) were aware of the expected curriculum approach. The differences in awareness can perhaps be explained by the fact that the new curriculum is being implemented at the primary school first. According to the prediction of the Education Department, Curriculum 2005 will be introduced in the year 2000 in secondary schools. This in the authorities' view would facilitate continuity for the grade 7 learners coming from primary schools into secondary schools. However, even though secondary teachers could state what the changes were, they still could not tell how this would affect their practices. When asked, "is there any difference between what you taught in the past and what you teach presently?", the
following examples are all they could say:

Curriculum 2005, which is learner centred, is introduced. The syllabus is practical.

Yes, there is a difference in approach. Children are given opportunity to give their own opinion before the teacher can give his side of the story.

As for the rest of the teachers, when probed, "What kind of changes did you experience in what you teach presently?" it became clear that they were still sceptical of the changes on the ground. The following responses are representative of their thoughts.

There is no change. We belong to the old didactics. The same situation is prevalent.

There is no difference. We are using the same old syllabi and textbooks.

It is interesting to realise that there are teachers who do not see any change. This begs the question whether or not these teachers held the above views because they were resistant to change or whether this was a convenient way of avoiding anticipated failure in the event of them trying to adapt to policy changes. (cf. Fullan and Stigebauer). The answers to the questions became clear in the deliberations about the way they function. These deliberations were prompted by asking them the question, "What do you think about the way you function?". In response to this question all the interviewees agreed that they cannot perform to their utmost because of the lack of facilities, poor communication and lack of involvement by stakeholders. Two of them explained the point as follows:-
I prefer a situation where the children ask and discuss the topic before I deliver the subject matter. But the children of today have little information because instead of paying attention to their books they spend much time on television. This deprives them of the opportunity to research certain topics to gain more knowledge and insight.

Like in other institutions factors like rationalisation and redeployment bring about tension, unwillingness and lack of enthusiasm to do anything extra.

The situation indicated above shows that the decisions of the Department of Education do not have a great impact on the school situation. Generally, one could argue that teachers do not see any significant difference between the present and past conditions in schools. Even though there have been changes at the level of policy, it seems that these policies have not started to be real.

The teachers who participated in this study are still not aware of their role as transformative agents (Aronowitz and Giroux:1979). The failure to see possibilities of initiating change can be explained on the basis of a study conducted by Modiba (1996:123). In her study of black teachers' perception of their role during Apartheid, Modiba has highlighted the ideological impact of the previous system and the extent to which it affected teachers' consciousness. Viewed in the context of Modiba's conclusions, the extent to which teachers who participated in this study have been empowered to act as professionals and have been given the authority to be critical and creative then becomes crucial. In accordance with Modiba's findings the teachers in this study seemed to be comfortable with the situation where they act as traditional intellectuals waiting to be guided on how to implement the official ideology without reflecting on its impact on their practice and subsequently the quality of education they were trying to provide. However,
it is heartening that the new Minister of Education, the second since the new political
dispensation, has ultimately acknowledged the enduring concerns expressed by the
critiques of Curriculum 2005 from educationists such as Jonathan Jansen. He has
appointed a commission to investigate its feasibility and given the task to a research body
whose findings the country awaits with great interest. Albeit, there is still concern that the
inevitable political expediency that is evident in his stance, may hinder progress.

**Students' views about teaching**

In response to the question of what it meant to be competent in teaching history and
geography as school subjects "Do you feel competent in what you teach?", 80% of the
teachers indicated that they measured their ability on the basis factors such as students'
views about their teaching, the role of the state and its impact on their self-esteem and on
stakeholders outside the school environment.

Here is an example of what teachers employed to judge the quality and values of their
teaching, and what they subsequently relied on as a measure of self worth.

Yes, I have never heard my students complaining that there are certain sections
that I did not treat well. The results I see from classworks, homework and tests
show me that children understand what I am teaching them. Even the results at the end of the year, I mean they will not pass all of them but the pass percentage is satisfactory and shows that the work I am doing is commendable.

When taking into consideration the response of the teacher above, it is evident that he/she
defines professional accountability in a narrow sense as compared to Hammond. For
him/her accountability means imparting knowledge and skills, and measuring performance. This teacher does not give an account of how the situation will be corrected if some of the learners do not indicate better performance. According to Darling-Hammond (1989:19) using examinations to measure change results in bureaucratic accountability. The model assumes that students will respond in identical and predictable ways to treatments introduced by policy makers. Furthermore, the available knowledge is regarded as generalizable to all educational circumstances. Being involved in bureaucratic accountability causes the teachers to overlook individual needs of each learner. The teachers become mainly concerned with how their knowledge and skills help to meet bureaucratic expectations and not what is best for the child. In the case of the above teacher, nothing seemed obvious about accountability to, for example, the community.

The sentiment expressed by Darling-Hammond has been echoed by various people in the City Press dated 21 March 1999, 2 May 1999 and 23 May 1999 respectively. Some people questioned an increase of 20.4% of results in Mpumalanga because there were no new standards introduced which could have led to a sudden and significant improvement of results. The outcome of the investigation proved that the examination results were fraudulent and thus could not have been brought about by change. The Mpumalanga education department officials were charged with misconduct for adjusting several 1998 matric examination scores. They also substituted exam cover pages in an attempt to hide irregularities in the adjustment of pupils marks (City Press, 2 May 1999). The senior education authorities who were expected to maintain honesty in examination results were the ones who tempered with the scores. Thus in conclusion, one could argue that it is
difficult to consider examination results as a reliable basis for measuring effectivity.

The remaining 20% of teachers laid the blame for their incompetence on the Education Department, lack of parental support and demotivated learners. The points are explored further in the next chapter through examining teachers' views about who is responsible for their competence.
CHAPTER 5

Teachers' views about the influence of the state on their competence

The teachers who participated in this study over-emphasise the impact of the context at the expenses of such factors as capabilities, appropriate task and cultural determinants. Their concern about the constraints caused by the Education Department restrict their view of competence. They emphasise their accountability to the government, the community and the need to uphold rules, rituals, values and conventions of society. These teachers also overlook the importance of their capabilities and ability to perform their tasks. No mention is made of the role of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that they acquired during their training. Furthermore, they are silent about the tasks they perform and how they do it. This information could have assisted in revealing their capabilities. When asked the following question, “Do you feel competent in what you teach?”, the following answers are representative of the general feeling of some of the respondents:

No, history is not my favourite subject I took it under pressure because I feared right-sizing.

No, due to lack of resources and demotivated learners.

These teachers lack interest and enthusiasm in history and geography as school subjects. They are demotivated and are not resourceful. They expressed no intention of seeking new knowledge in their subjects. Their inability to make the best out of the limited
available resources undoubtedly restricts initiative and creativeness.

Great differences of opinion were raised about the teachers' service to the government. On the whole, the respondents felt committed to their work and felt that they were doing it to the utmost of their ability, despite the hegemony they experience in their relationship with the educational authorities. Ten respondents regarded themselves as serving the government. Two of them explained succinctly:

I am in service of the government because of the work I do and by being involved in education as such. No country can survive without education. Immediately you are involved in education you are in a way serving the government.

I am serving the government because I follow the education policies even though they are not satisfactory.

The responses of the interviewees might be viewed as indicating the ideological influence of the apartheid system. Even though we are in the new dispensation these teachers still operate with a clear apartheid created services ideal. They are aware of the government policies, have concerns about them but they continue to be slavishly committed to such policies without intention of thinking about what is necessary to make them satisfactory and possible to implement.

The same teachers who have not developed critical tools are expected to implement curriculum 2005. According to the aims of curriculum 2005, teachers are expected to assist the learners to develop the skill of critical judgement. It is thus evident that it will be a difficult task to carry out because teachers who do not have critical sensitivities will
be unable to equip learners with the necessary critical tools. The situation provides the
government with a mammoth task. It is not enough to just introduce the new policy
(Ball: 1993). There is a need for a sense of responsibility to equip teachers with the
necessary tools for approaching Curriculum 2005. Most important, the government should
work to change the minds and attitudes of those teachers who have worked for a long time
under the Department to effect change. To the researcher there was no hesitation whether
the teachers fully understood the new expectations as prescribed by the human science
policy document (October, 1997). Putting the blame on the education department for their
incompetence, the respondents explained the concept competence in a rather strict and
narrow sense.

Five respondents out of the remaining few believed that they were mainly serving the
community.

I am building the society and help advance the spirit of reconciliation.

Not necessarily in service of the government but of society. The government is an
indirect beneficiary.

The remaining group is of the opinion that it is serving the child. They regard their role
not only as teaching but consider themselves as also responsible for counselling and
preparing the learners for a bright future. The following are representative of such
thoughts.

I am serving the child whose future is entrusted to us.

Education should be for the benefit of the child, hence I am serving the child.
It is not surprising that the teachers define their role in such a narrow manner. On the one hand, teachers regard themselves as being in the service of the government, on the other hand, they regard themselves as serving the community, while the rest believe that they are serving the child. The teachers seem not to be aware that they are simultaneously in service of the child, the community and the government. The position of these teachers highlights the discussion outlined in Chapter 2, that is where perceptions on teachers' role absolutise specific aspects they result in role definitions that are narrow. Furthermore such perceptions fail to realise the interconnectedness of the various aspects that constitute the role of the teacher, namely as manager, professional and transformer (cf. Aronowitz and Giroux 1985, Stenhouse, 1975).

The relation with other stakeholders.

In discussing the situation in schools the respondents pointed out that the culture of teaching and learning has declined. The uncertainties brought by the post-apartheid era have an influence on schools.

Like in any other school in the country we have realised that the culture of teaching and learning has collapsed. We are in a process of trying to shape it up once again. We are trying our best to uplift the standard and the results speak for themselves even though they are not as good as we expect.

If I compare it (the situation) to other schools it is a little bit better, but it is the best amongst the worst. For example, when coming to disciplinary measures, we can still discipline our children. They can still come on time, stay behind after school. While we are still in class we are being disturbed by children from neighbouring schools.

There is a general realisation among teachers that they need to transcend the problems
which brought the collapsed teaching-learning situation. Even though the situation seems bleak they hope that it will change for the better. This is supported by the wishes for a change in the school situation. Discussing the subject, teachers paid attention to administrative issues, technological changes and moral obligations. They unanimously agreed that it is undesirable to work under the stressful conditions and felt change was essential.

One of my teachers taught me that change is always change for the better. If you look at the field of science and technology, a lot is changing. If you look at our syllabuses we are a step behind, we need to change in the world. We need individuals who can fill posts of science and engineering so that we can have quality results and not quantity. The situation should be different for the benefit of the children who are entrusted to us and for the betterment of the school, its image and the community at large.

Teachers spoke with one voice that change was necessary. They were optimistic and hoped for the better. For them a changed situation would help in releasing stress, instilling discipline, promoting the involvement of relevant stakeholders and restoring the culture of teaching and learning. The comments of the interviewees indicated that an improved teaching-learning situation would also be beneficial for the other stakeholders such as the learners, parents and the community, the government and the vocational world. An improved teaching-learning situation would result in the production of learners who would fulfil their meaningful role in society. The situation also implies that the school cannot operate in isolation but works in relation with other structures with interest in education (Hager and Beckett, 1995, Linda Darling-Hammond, 1989).

Regarding the effects of outside changes on schools, and in response to the following question, "Why do outside changes affect schools?", the general feeling was that the
school and the community are interwoven and inseparable. However, in their discussions, the respondents indicated that most of the influences that filter through schools are negative. Here are some of the comments:

We interact with the world. We do not live in isolation. Once we operate in isolation we will lose touch with reality. It helps to assess what the world expects of us. The outside world has influence on us whether positive or negative. Pupils are members of the society, they come with negative values from the society and thus one cannot separate the two.

One of the interviewees saw the situation from a different perspective. He regarded cross cultural influences as prevalent in black schools.

It is a moral decay of black South Africa. The youth is influenced by media, they indulge in sex, drugs and alcohol. It is a trend of black teenagers who copy from other cultures.

Teachers understand that community influences will continue to filter into schools. Also, the respondents believed that politics cannot be separated from past education. From their explanations it became clear that they viewed the two aspects as interwoven.

Unfortunately education policy is decided by politicians, as such one cannot separate politics from education.

I think it is the tendency of third world countries because people are fighting for their independence. In most cases school children are used. I think that the situation is still prevailing.

To some teachers the involvement of politicians in education results in dominance by the government. They believe that politicians dominate education to the extent that their
interests are overlooked. For them the situation is discouraging and this has resulted in their opinions being divided when it comes to matters concerning their continued service in the teaching profession.

An examination of the reasons for leaving teaching, “Do you hope to leave the teaching profession one day?”, indicated a pragmatic position. Concerning this issue eight interviewees indicated that teaching is not as attractive as they had thought. Two of them remarked:

   Of late teaching is not attractive. If I get a brilliant offer from somewhere which is more attractive, I see myself leaving teaching. The government needs to improve on the state (conditions-own addition), of teachers, especially subsidies and salaries.

   Hopefully yes, because of lack of vision and poor administration of education by government and obviously the dubious way in which promotions are handled.

The two responses indicate that the respondents are more concerned about their personal satisfaction. This is different from the ten respondents who will not leave teaching. The latter are women. They seem more committed when compared to the first group.

   No, I will leave at retirement. Teaching is my field and I feel very satisfied. In order to build our country we need to get our education right. I am assisting to bring education from ashes.

   I do not think so. I like the teaching profession. I am used to it. I like working with pupils, advising and helping them.

The remaining two respondents were uncertain about their position in the profession. The
I did not think about it now. When you leave the job you must have somewhere to go. Leaving has crossed my mind several times because of changes in education policies. Maybe change takes a long time and painful as it is makes one to wonder where one is going to end.

I will mostly depend on the government. If the situation improves, I will stay. But if the situation does not improve, I will definitely leave the teaching profession.

It is interesting to note the different opinions held regarding teaching. Official expectations are at times inconsistent with teachers' responses. Teachers are not only concerned with their personal interests but also with those of the stakeholders. The position is different from that of teachers who are less committed. Unlike the committed teachers, the less committed teachers talked about what the government could do for them and not what they can do for the government. They argued that they would remain in the profession provided that the government improved their benefits, such as salaries, medical aid, housing and car subsidies. These teachers compared their position with the situation in the private sector.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This research report has been an attempt to establish whether there is a difference between the role perceptions held by the teachers in the past and since there has been a new dispensation in South Africa. In order to do this, the study employed concepts drawn from, amongst others, Elliott (1989), Aronowitz and Giroux (1985), Darling-Hammond (1989), Hager and Beckett (1995) to isolate issues that were considered crucial for the design of the research process. The idea was to establish whether teachers went beyond their pre-determined daily activities and reflected on new policy expectations. For example, the concept of professional competence advocated by Hager and Becket assisted in finding out if teachers viewed competence in a broader sense, that is, whether they viewed their capabilities and tasks in relation to their work context and cultural determinants, whilst, Darling-Hammond’s views on professional accountability assisted to determine whether the teachers took into account the interests of other stakeholders in education.

The conclusions drawn here do to some extent highlight the nature of the problems raised at the beginning of this project, namely, that ways of working with teachers and their practices characteristic of the apartheid era are still operational. As Modiba and Shalem pointed out it is difficult for teachers who have been disempowered to begin to see opportunities for self-empowerment. Even though a new curriculum has been introduced for history and geography, in general, teachers have not begun to think about the implications of this new curriculum to the content, skills and competences they have been
working with. They are uncertain about their new role and unfortunately are not as yet receiving meaningful professional guidance and support.

The analysis of data showed that even though the teachers were aware that they need to reflect on their practice, they were hampered by a consciousness created by apartheid education. It was clear from the teachers’ response that the apartheid policy has instilled some doubt and uneasiness in their role. Secondly, it has influenced their behaviour and attitude. Chapter 4 and 5 respectively discuss the divergent viewpoints and feelings of the interviewees regarding their role.

In Chapter 4 when the views of Fullan and Stiegebauer were used to analyse the views of teachers on the difference between what they taught in the past and what they teach presently, it became clear that they did not work in collaboration as suggested by Fullan and Stiegebauer. In order to become aware of the changes in the school, teachers needed to share knowledge, expertise and seek help inside and outside the school situation. The teachers in this study did not see any difference in what they taught. One could argue that this is contrary to Aronowitz and Giroux’s view of the teacher as a transformer. Teachers’ work patterns remained unchanged. Their perceptions did not reflect a transformative stance. The study tried to clarify the nature of this position by drawing on Modiba’s (1996) work wherein she argues that the Apartheid ideology had a great impact on black teachers. The conclusion drawn here is that the teachers who participated in this study were disempowered and could not view their practice with a critical eye. They acted as traditional intellectuals who implement the ideas of the Education Department without
reflecting on them or their practice. When the views of the teachers were further analysed regarding their competence in teaching history and geography as school subjects, it became evident that they were involved in the kind of bureaucratic accountability that Linda Darling-Hammond refers to in her work. They did not practise the kind of professional accountability suggested by the author.

In Chapter 5, amongst others, the views of Ball were used to assess whether teachers considered themselves in the service of the government. Once again it became clear that the influence of the apartheid policy was still prevalent amongst the teachers. Even though teachers complained about the incompatibility of the policies introduced, when asked if they were in the service of the government, they still unreservedly indicated that they had no alternative as people in the service of the government. They felt they were expected to follow policies unquestioningly.

The teachers' perceptions were undoubtedly in support of the assumptions discussed in the first chapter, namely, that black teachers who have worked for a long time under the apartheid government were rather uncertain about the role they had to play in the post apartheid era. During apartheid education these teachers were not empowered to handle curricula issues and to select the relevant textbooks. As a result, the new education policy which has been introduced to redress the problems of the past is viewed with mixed reaction by teachers who are not equipped to implement such policy. The type of education and training these teachers received did not prepare them to challenge the government even when they need to. The conditions have changed, but an apartheid
consciousness remains. However, considering what has been argued by theorists such as Gramsci about ideological influences, it important to note that this will persist for some time. It is part of what is common-sensical for teachers. A change in this common-sense would be the main remedy to their state of mind.

To remedy the situation teachers need to be provided with PRESET and INSET programmes which will assist in redressing the effects of the ideology which has affected them for a number of years. In addition, teachers need to review their commitment. They should be more accountable and not regard facilities and fringe benefits as the main reasons for teaching. As Ball (1993) explains, the introduction of new policy is insufficient without taking into account all other factors that are necessary for it to be implemented successfully, otherwise, the status quo will continue. But for this to happen, and in the case of South Africa in particular, it is important to first build a sound understanding of the problems on the ground in order to be able to devise meaningful strategies. However, the country seems to be caught up in a kind of anxiety that pushes it to do things hurriedly, only to abandon them halfway. Since there has been a change of government in South Africa, workshops, seminars and other forms of INSET programmes have been run but nothing seems to change with regard to teachers’ perceptions and subsequently their practices. Perhaps it is time to calm down and concentrate on what is fundamental to meaningful change, namely, as put by Stenhouse, “acquiring a new common vocabulary of concepts and developing a syntax of teaching theory.” This has not begun in South Africa. Perhaps one could explain this void as a result of lack of understanding of what is happening on the ground because, as pointed out earlier in this
study, research in this area is rather disappointing in South Africa. This study is but a modest attempt of the few that are trying to make inroads into this.
Journal Articles and Other Documents


City Press. (1999) (1) 2 May. *NNP and PAC agree; Mabuza must get out.*
(2) 23 May. *Students call for resignations.*


Van der Merwe, F. J. (1992). *Curriculation as educational skills*. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University, 19


Books


# APPENDIXURE A

## PROFILE OF RESEARCH SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Sex</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Level of teaching</th>
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- **No. of teachers**: 10 (m)  10 (f)
- **Qualifications**: 8 (degree)  12 (diploma)
- **Level of teaching**: 10 (secondary)  10 (primary)

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APPENDIXURE B

Interview questionnaire

1. What subject do you teach?

2. (a) Is there any difference between what you taught in the past and what you teach presently?

   (b) Why do you see/not see the difference?

3. What do you think about the way you function?

4. (a) What do you think about the situation in your school?

   (b) Do you think it should be different and why?

5. Do you feel competent in what you teach?

76. What has equipped you?

7. Why do outside changes affect schools?

8. (a) Are you in service of the government?

   (b) Why do you think you are serving the government?

9. Why do you politics affect education?

10. Do you hope to leave the teaching profession one day?

11. Why do you think you will leave or stay?
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

SYLLABUS FOR HISTORY

HIGHER GRADE

STANDARD 10

DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION: JANUARY 1988
A. AIMS OF SYLLABUS

1. INTRODUCTION

History is a systematic study of the past. It is a study based on evidence: a selection of facts and events that are arranged, interpreted and explained. Thus History, in addition to its content, is also a mode of enquiry, a way of investigating the past which requires the acquisition and use of skills. The events, communities and peoples of the past are studied in order to develop an appreciation of other times and places and also because they are interesting in themselves. History develops both the imagination and the understanding of people and communities, while a study of recent history is essential for an understanding of the present, just as an understanding of the present is necessary to understand the past.

2. GENERAL AIMS

Arising from this conception of History, the course of study offered in Standards 8 to 10 in South African and modern World History has been developed to achieve, inter alia, the following general aims:

2.1 To contribute to the personal development of pupils;
2.2 To contribute to the development of a sense of citizenship;
2.3 To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values;
2.4 To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other peoples and cultures;
2.5 To contribute to their understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events;
2.6 To contribute to their understanding of History as an academic discipline and to the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves.

3. SPECIFIC AIMS

3.1 To give pupils a sense of such characteristics of historical knowledge as: its time dimension; the importance of placing events in their historical context; the concepts and terminology and the interpretations and perspectives of historical knowledge; the changing state of historical knowledge and the contributions made by related disciplines to historical knowledge;
3.2 To give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence, to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas;

3.3 To give pupils a sense of the positive attitudes and values which arise from a study of the past and of the formative value of History through the development of a sense of the past and an appreciation of the complexity of the human forces which have shaped our past.

B. GENERAL REMARKS ON THE SYLLABUS

1. The aims of History teaching can only be realised if the subject matter is presented to the pupil at the appropriate level. In addition to differentiated syllabus content for the Higher and Standard Grades, differentiation should also be achieved through methods of teaching, assessment and evaluation.

2. The content and setting of the syllabus is such that pupils will develop a broad understanding and general knowledge.

3. The syllabus will also ensure that pupils will gain a detailed knowledge and understanding of selected events and movements influencing the history of South Africa and the rest of the world.

4. The syllabus is designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes.

5. Because skills and attitudes are less concrete aims, they require more conscious and systematic consideration from the teacher to avoid an approach based purely on content.

6. Attitudes and values cannot be tested. The aim should be to contribute to the growth and maturing of the pupils.

7. Each year's syllabus should be taught in such a way that there is harmony between the learning process (the "how") and the learning product (the "what").

C. SYLLABUS CONTENT

SECTION A : GENERAL HISTORY

THE WORLD IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

1. THE RISE OF THE SUPERPOWFRS, 1917 TO 1939

1.1 The rise of Soviet Russia

1.1.1 Conditions in Russia before 1917 (by way of introduction).

1.1.2 The February and October revolutions
1.1.3 Lenin's political and economic policies
1.1.4 Economic development and planning (the Five-Year Plans)
1.1.5 Stalin's political terror
1.2 The rise of the United States of America
1.2.1 Entry into the First World War
1.2.2 Isolation
1.2.3 Industrial development, depression and the New Deal
1.2.4 Foreign policy

2. THE SECOND WORLD WAR
2.1 The decline of democracy in Europe (by way of introduction)
2.2 The rise of totalitarianism in Germany, Japan and Italy
2.3 International crises and international relations: German foreign policy and the reactions of Britain, France, the United States of America and Russia, 1933 to 1939
2.4 The outbreak of war
2.5 The entry of Japan and the United States of America into the war
2.6 The aftermath of the war: conquests and alliances and their influence on international relations

3. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND EVENTS, 1945 TO 1970
3.1 The United Nations Organisation
3.1.1 Aims
3.1.2 Composition: General Assembly, Security Council, International Court of Justice and the Secretariat
3.1.3 The shortcomings, successes and failures of the United Nations Organisation (in broad outline only)
3.1.4 The United Nations Organisation and the Cold War: the conflict of ideologies and power blocs (in broad outline only)
3.2 The Cold War in Europe
3.2.1 Expansion of communist control in Eastern Europe
3.2.2 The involvement of the United States in Europe
3.2.3 The grouping of democratic powers; NATO 1949
3.2.4 The Berlin crises
3.2.5 The Warsaw Pact (1955); the Communist Block
3.2.6 Revolts in Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia
3.2.7 Efforts to achieve European unity
3.3 Africa since the Second World War
3.3.1 Movements for independence in Africa and the rise of Nationalism, with pre-1945 protest movements by way of introduction
3.3.2 Common problems of the independent African States (Details of individual states are not required.)
3.3.3 The Organisation of African Unity and its activities
3.3.4 The involvement of the world powers in Africa

SECTION B: SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

THE POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1910 TO 1970

1. SOUTH AFRICA, 1910 TO 1924

1.1 The main features of South African society in 1910.
1.2 The first general election; political parties and their policies; the Botha-Hertzog crisis; the foundation of the National Party
1.3 Economic and social development: growth of commercial agriculture; development of mining; establishment of secondary industries; labour.
1.4 The effects of participation in the First World War; the Rebellion and the occupation of South West Africa; the Peace of Versailles; the self-determination issue and the deputation for independence; the assumption of the mandate over South West Africa
1.5 The amalgamation of the South African Party and the Unionist Party; the Labour Party; the political implications of the 1922 strike on the Witwatersrand; the growth of extra-parliamentary activity
1.6 The fall of the Smuts government, 1924
2. SOUTH AFRICA, 1924 TO 1948

2.1 Co-operation between the National Party and the Labour Party; the recognition of Afrikaans; the flag question; recognition of South Africa's sovereign independence; the 1926 Imperial Conference and the Balfour Declaration; independent Department of External Affairs; Statute of Westminster; Status and Seal Acts

2.2 The economic development of South Africa: growth of agriculture; expansion of the mining industry; diversification of the economy and government involvement in the expansion of secondary industry; measures taken to combat the depression

2.3 Factors and events which led to coalition and fusion of parties; foundation of the United Party; grouping of other parties; segregation; major legislation; forms of extra-parliamentary activity; the issue of neutrality and the decision to participate in the Second World War.

2.4 Participation and role in the Second World War; political strife in opposition ranks; South Africa as member of the United Nations Organisation and the South West African question

2.5 Post-war internal problems; economic growth and industrialisation; the urbanisation of the population; segregation under strain; labour unrest and discontent; party politics during and after the war; forms of extra-parliamentary activity

2.6 The election of 1948 and the fall of the Smuts government

D. EVALUATION

1. CONTENT

Only the Standard 10 syllabus may be taught and examined.

2. YEAR MARK

2.1 A year mark is obtained from marks scored in class tests and the September examination.

2.2 At least four tests should be set on each section during the year.

2.3 At least 50 marks should be allocated for each test.

2.4 The total marks scored by a pupil in the tests are added up and converted to a percentage.

2.5 The converted test marks (maximum = 100) are added to the marks for the trial examination in September (maximum = 400) to obtain the total year mark (maximum = 500).

2.6 The total year mark is converted to a percentage (divided by 5).
2.7 The following types of questions may be set:

2.7.1 Essay questions of a general nature which deal with important issues and which may be divided into a limited number of subsections.

2.7.2 Non-essay questions which may include the following: short paragraphs, completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion and/or interpretation of maps; multiple-choice questions; discussion and/or completion of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, et cetera; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, et cetera.

3. EXAMINATION

3.1 The formal examination will consist of two papers of two hours each:

First paper: General History
Second paper: South African History.

3.2 The two papers will be equal in value.

3.3 Each paper should consist of the following:

3.3.1 Two essay questions of a general nature on important issues, which may be divided into a limited number of subsections;

3.3.2 One set of non-essay questions consisting of the following:

Short paragraphs; completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion and/or interpretation of maps; multiple-choice questions; discussion and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, et cetera; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, et cetera.

3.3.3 For the essay questions 150 marks (2 x 75) are to be allocated, and for the non-essay questions 50 marks. The total for each paper is 200 marks.

3.4 The final examination mark at the end of the year will consist of the marks obtained in papers one and two (maximum = 400).
APPENDIX D

HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

SENIOR PHASE

OCTOBER 1997
RATIONALE FOR HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

Human and Social Sciences contribute to developing responsible citizens in a culturally diverse, democratic society within an interdependent world. They will equip learners to make sound judgements and take appropriate actions that will contribute to sustainable development of human society and the physical environment.

Human and Social Sciences comprise the study of relationships between people, and between people and their environment. These interactions are contextualised in space and time and have social, political, economic, environmental and spiritual dimensions.

They develop distinctive skills and a critical awareness of social and environmental patterns, processes and events, based on appropriate investigations and reflection within and across related focuses.

SPECIFIC OUTCOMES

1. Demonstrate a critical understanding of how South African society has changed and developed.
2. Demonstrate a critical understanding of patterns of social development.
3. Participate actively in promoting a just, democratic and equitable society.
4. Makes sound judgements about the development, utilisation and management of resources.
5. Critically understand the role of technology in social development.
6. Demonstrate an understanding of interrelationships between society and the natural environment.
7. Address social and environmental issues in order to promote development and social justice.
8. Analyse forms and processes of organisations.
9. Use a range of skills and techniques in the Human and Social Sciences context.

ORGANISING PRINCIPLES

The diagram below represents the way the learning area committee conceptualised the balance which needed to be achieved between the different aspects of Social and Human Sciences, in the context of General Education and Training.
### HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

**SENIOR PHASE**

**NOTE:** SO9 is intended as a service outcome for all the others, and as such does not require its own PIs.

**SO1** Demonstrate a critical understanding of how South African society has changed and developed

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<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</th>
<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| 1. The sources from which a knowledge of South African society is constructed are identified | **Source:**  
- Oral tradition, especially to redress its past neglect in schools (e.g. accounts passed from generation to generation; praise songs, poetry, songs; accounts of myths, legends and natural events; interviews recorded; dance forms)  
- Contemporary oral sources (e.g. interviews of old people; interviews of people who lived during important events; oral testimony in courts and the Truth and Reconciliation Commission)  
- Archaeological sources (e.g. fossils; skeletal remains; rock paintings and engravings)  
- Sources of material culture (e.g. pottery remains; beadwork; iron tools)  
- Documentary sources (e.g. letters and diaries; government records; newspapers)  
- Cartographic sources (e.g. maps; aerial photographs; land use surveys; meteorological charts)  
- Statistical sources (e.g. population census; financial records; opinion surveys) | This will be evident when learners:  
- debate whether a source is primary or secondary and explain the main differences  
- identify bias in the use made of a source of evidence in constructing an account  
- explain and justify how they used two or more sources in constructing an account of a place, event or process |

2. Key features of change over time and space are critically examined

- **One focus is developing awareness of the wide range of sources available and means of accessing them, with special reference to oral sources.** At this level oral histories and traditions from school, family and community must be accessed and discussed. In addition artefacts must be extensively used and sites visited.
- **Not all the aspects listed in the box below need be taught; but aspects should be selected in a way which preserves the coherence of the whole**

**Key features,** to include:  
- socio-economic relations  
- forms of state and power relations  
- forms of social organisation (e.g. hunter-gatherer, herder, farming, colonial (including slavery), industrial)  
- ideologies and belief systems  
- levels of inequality (e.g. social class, individual circumstances)  
- period: pre-colonial (from earliest hominids), colonial, post-colonial, Apartheid, post-Apartheid

**Processes of change,** to include:  
- dispossession  
- repression  
- resistance and struggle  
- liberation

- **explain how different aspects of a past society were interrelated**
- **give an account of the changes experienced by communities, including struggles over land, resources and political rights.** "Community" can be defined narrowly to indicate people living in a particular area, or it could be defined broadly to include people with common interests, history or experience
- **analyse the impact of imperialism and nationalism on different classes in South Africa over time**
- **identify key stages in the development of African nationalism and the struggle for decolonisation and liberation in Southern Africa**
Where relevant, the four processes above should dealing with all other processes, including:
- migration
- settlement
- co-operation and trade
- colonialism
- conflict over resources
- exploitation of resources (including human resources), especially in relation to minerals and farming
- imperialism
- nationalism (including African, Afrikaner, Pan-Africanism)
- different relations of production (e.g. unfair labour, wage labour, etc.)
- formation of states and change in forms of states

Key activities in this phase should focus on integrating knowledge and understanding so the learner develops a comprehensive view of major processes such as: colonialism, imperialism, decolonisation and liberation.

3. The interrelationships between South Africa, Africa and the rest of the world are explored.

Particular attention to be paid to Southern Africa

Periods could include:
- pre-colonial, colonial, post-colonial, Apartheid, post-Apartheid

Aspects could include:
- trade and markets
- technology (e.g. spread of new technologies such as iron-making)
- slavery, colonialism, imperialism, decolonisation, neo-colonialism
- ideologies, philosophies and religions
- diplomatic and international agreements and organisations (e.g. UNO, SADC, OAU)
- relations between less developed and more developed nations
- globalisation (e.g. North-South relations, information revolution, entertainment)

Key activities in this phase should focus on integrating knowledge and understanding so the learner develops a comprehensive view of major interrelationships between South Africa, Africa and the rest of the world.

4. The impact of Apartheid on development is analysed by:
- acquiring knowledge of the essential features of Apartheid
- considering its impact on crucial aspects of South Africa society

Scope of impact:
- local, national, regional Southern Africa), International
- the past, present and future
- impact on areas of social life, including at least four of the following:
  - political system

- analyse key interrelationships between South Africa and at least two neighbouring countries with respect to economic, political and social ties: both past and present
- analyse key global interrelationships with respect to factors such as cultural interaction, trade, aid and membership of international organisations
- apply the concepts of colonialism and imperialism in identifying key relationships between Southern Africa and the rest of the world
- identify and explain the major links between the liberation struggle in South Africa and other countries
- show the links between Apartheid laws and earlier forms of similar legislation
- evaluate the impact of Apartheid on particular areas of social life
- evaluate the impact of different forms of
5. Patterns of continuity and change in post-Apartheid South Africa are analysed

- sport and recreation
- education
- health
- the economy
- issues around land ownership and control
- homeland system
- housing
- the environment
- spiritual and cultural life
- family life and children
- women
- workers
- resistance by individuals, communities and organisations (locally, nationally and internationally)

By the end of this phase the learner should be able to show how the impact of Apartheid on development reveals the nature of the system as a whole.

Patterns of redress and development, related to at least four of the following, or any other significant area of development:
- education
- housing
- health
- infrastructure, including electricity, water and transport
- employment and careers
- the legal system
- strategies for redress and development (e.g. RDP)
- trade, aid and investment in Southern Africa

- identify key stages in the development of the Apartheid system and resistance to it
- identify links between local, regional and national developments
- arrive at an informed judgement about the problems and possibilities associated with a particular development
- choose alternative strategies for the improvement of development projects or campaigns investigated

6. Relations within and between communities are critically understood

Problems and possibilities in relation to development, in two of the above areas at local, regional and national level.

Learners should make informed and reasoned judgements about the factors promoting and obstructing redress and development.

Note: In at least two phases biographies (of family and national or community figures) should be used to explore relationships within and between communities.

Main focuses to include:
- Issues of unity, diversity and nation-building
- Policies, practices and attitudes which build identity, community and society, e.g. tolerance, equity, legislation, reconstruction, rehabilitation, positive perceptions of identity, valuing diversity, anti-bias action and conflict resolution
- Policies, practices and attitudes which create division and conflict within and between communities, e.g. legislation (historically), discrimination and prejudice, exploitation, conflicts over resources, negative perceptions of identity
- Commonalities (e.g. same economic system, common past) and diversities (e.g. of culture); groupings and alliances around interests and needs;
- Finding diverse solutions to common problems (e.g. shelter, clothing, food, security).

- identify the sources and forms of bias and prejudice within South African society in relation to communities
- evaluate the impact of the above mentioned forms of bias on communities within South African society
- suggest strategies for combating bias and prejudice against and between communities
Kinds of relations, to include:
- power relations
- socio-economic and class
- religious, ideological
- political
- cultural (e.g. customs, food, dress)
- language
- "race" relations
- gender relations
- sexuality
- age and disability
- close ties with neighbouring countries (e.g., family and educational)

Types of communities (We all belong to many different communities. Definitions of each of these communities listed here should be problematised and seen as value-laden.) To include those based on:
- origin / ethnicity
- common experience
- location
- belief system
- work
- interests
- gender
- families and clans
- age and disability
- race and class

A major focus should be on the significance of communities in constructing both personal and national identities. Learners should have an appreciation of the complex nature of communities.

Scope:
- local/community to South Africa to Southern Africa and Africa
- Periods should include from pre-colonial times to present, and on to predict the future

Key features, to include:
- the natural environment (e.g. topography, climate, river and other eco-systems)
- the built environment (e.g. infrastructure including transport systems, water and electricity services, rural and urban settlements)

Context, to include:
- exploitation of resources
- settlement (e.g. urbanisation)
- migration
- co-operation and trade
- transport
- regional inequalities in Southern Africa
- organisation of production
- political (e.g. pass-laws, resettlement, "Bantustan" system)

An important focus in this phase is developing the ability to evaluate evidence and construct reasoned arguments about major issues: e.g., the location of a new factory or road.

7. Relations between people and key features of the environment are critically examined by: acquiring knowledge, identifying and analysing relationships

- explain how different factors impact on broad patterns of development, such as settlement patterns
- analyse the impact of different environmental factors on regional development in Southern Africa
### ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

1. **Key features of a social system are identified by:**
   - acquiring information
   - defining characteristics
   - explaining significance

### RANGE STATEMENTS

**Note:** For this Specific Outcome, contemporary as well as past societies should be studied. Too often learners have been taught as if societies in the past do not exist in the present; e.g., as if the San still depend on hunting and gathering.

**Key features, to include:**
- socio-economic relationships (e.g., feudalism, wage labour)
- forms of state and power relations (e.g., slavery, wage labour, self-employment)
- ideologies and belief systems (e.g., colonial state, feudal state, democratic state)
- forms of social organisation (e.g., families, clans)
- levels of inequality (e.g., social classes, individual circumstances)
- division of labour
- production of a surplus

Learners should be able to identify the defining characteristics of particular societies. In doing so, they should be able to construct reasoned arguments about significance, using a range of evidence.

Learners should be aware that the categories used are socially constructed.

### PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

This will be evident when learners:
- explain the defining characteristics of several societies (including non-South African), such as those based on slavery or feudal relationships
- give a coherent account of the main features of particular societies, showing how their different features are interrelated, such as links between forms of state, nature of inequalities and major social groupings
- identify different types of society, giving examples, and comparing similarities and differences within each category, such as iron age kingdoms with colonial societies

2. **Types of societies are analysed**

3. **Similarities and differences between societies are explored by:**
   - recognition of patterns of similarity and difference
   - analysis of patterns
   - recognition of the social construction of patterns

4. **Strategies of change and development in society are evaluated by:**

### Types of society, to include:
- developed / less developed
- feudal
- colonial
- capitalist
- socialist

The learner should understand that societies are dynamic; and that each one is unique although they can fall into broad categories.

**Main focuses, to include:**
- examination of concepts of development, progress, well being and change (Definitions of value-laden terms such as "progress" should be problematised).

**Scope:**
- between two or more societies
- between societies at different times (e.g., before and after colonialism)

**Skills, to include:**
- reading and construction of maps, graphs and other techniques for recognising and describing patterns

Learners explore and investigate similarities and differences in order to arrive at an understanding of continuity and change in particular societies.

**Change and development strategies**
- e.g., Green revolution, urban planning

### Strategies of change and development

- subsistence farming
- explain how we usually label societies according to the dominant forms of social organisation
- identify different types of society such as feudal, colonial, capitalist, socialist and communist
- compare the similarities and differences between feudal, colonial, capitalist and socialist societies
- analyse changes which are global (influence many societies) as opposed to local (influence a particular society)
- arrive at an informed judgement about factors which were most important in bringing about changes within and across societies

- identify factors which impact on the success or failure of development
• identification of strategies and processes
• consideration of theories of development where appropriate
• analysis of strategies and processes

empowering women
Types of impact: at different scales:
personal, community and global
At this phase the main focus should be on learners being able to explain the reasons for the success or failure of strategies, and identify the criteria used in the evaluation.

strategies in different countries
• suggest alternative strategies to overcome the obstacles identified in the above analyses

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**SO3 Participate actively in promoting a just, democratic and equitable society**

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<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| 1. Key features of democratic processes are identified | Features: to include:
• representivity (indirect and direct; self and others)
• decision-making (mandates, accountability, consultation, communication, procedures and rules)

South Africa and at least one other society with respect to the above to be compared. Explanations given as to similarities and differences found. | This will be evident when learners:
• analyse similarities and differences between democratic processes in South Africa and at least two other countries

• arrive at informed conclusions about the conditions necessary for democratic systems to develop

• participate in a democratic process

• analyse the reasons for the successes and failures of the democratic process, such as lack of consultation or accountability |
| 2. Democratic processes are critically understood by:
• participating in processes
• investigating processes
• reflecting on and evaluating processes | Processes: to include:
• decision-making
• reconciliation
• conflict resolution
• voting

Contexts:
• In present and past
• active participation or observed
• local, national, international

Activities:
authentic: classroom, school or community based

Participation in democratic processes in the school or community should be analysed. Reasoned explanations should be given of factors such as poor (or good) support for the democratic process. |
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<tr>
<td>3. A critical understanding of the South African Constitution is demonstrated by:</td>
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<td>Nature, Origin and Development of the South African Constitution:</td>
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<td>Reviews of other constitutions:</td>
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<td>4. Informed judgements about issues are made in relation to the Constitution by:</td>
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<td>5. Projects to develop democratic practices are undertaken</td>
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<td>Aspects to include:</td>
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<td>A major focus should be on defining areas which require democratic practices to be developed:</td>
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<td>Access to include activities such as:</td>
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<td>6. Ability to access constitutional structures is demonstrated</td>
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Structures, to include:

- legal institutions (e.g. courts, Human Rights Commission, public protectors)
- local, provincial and national government structures

The need to access structures about an issue is identified and debated. The issue might be local or wider in scope. The means of making voices heard, and for obtaining information, should be discussed and strategies agreed on.

- describe various methods of accessing the channels
- explore and evaluate various strategies through which issues could be addressed
- evaluate whether the structure was effective in addressing an issue

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<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</th>
<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| 1. Resources are defined and identified. | Exploration of the concept of resources, to include:  
- consideration of how 'gifts of nature' become resources  
- the notion that what is considered a resource depends on social and historical contexts (examples to include historical and cultural contexts around the world)  
Categories of resources, to include:  
- human / natural  
- renewable / non-renewable  
- viable / non-viable, etc.  
In this phase learners should identify resources which are both local and distant, and be able to distinguish how the importance of these resources will have changed over time. | This will be evident when learners:  
- distinguish how the importance and value of these resources may have changed over time and place  
- explain different perspectives on how resources are valued  
- evaluate these differing perspectives |
| 2. Relationship between human development and resources is explored by: showing how resources are accessed by integrating knowledge, skill and technology | Factors influencing the relationship between resources and human development, to include:  
- access to education and training  
- location and distribution  
- ownership and control  
- available technology  
- exploitation  
Processes for accessing resources, to include:  
- extraction  
- utilisation |  
- explore how resource utilisation affects the development of individuals, communities and societies  
- critically analyse the exploitation of resources  
- critically analyse the need for sustainable utilisation of resources |
3. The impact of the distribution of power relationships and resources on social and environmental issues is understood

- development
- management.

Effects of resource development on individuals, communities and societies, to include:
- benefits / advantages
- disadvantages

In this phase the focus should be on appreciating how resources are exploited, distributed and utilised, and understanding the importance of resource management in these processes.

Scale of issues:
- local, national, international
- past and present

Impact, to include:
- evaluating how resources are used
- consequences of good and poor resource management
- consequences of the unequal distribution of resources

Power relations (and the conflicts they engender), to include:
- ownership of resources
- management policies (e.g. between individuals and groups)
- gender, class, race (etc.)

Social issues, to include:
- migration
- colonisation
- capitalism

4. Strategies to address issues are designed and evaluated

- urbanisation
- globalisation

Environmental issues, to include:
- deforestation
- over-utilisation
- soil erosion
- pollution
- conflict over land-use
- conservation (etc.)

In this phase the emphasis should fall equally on the social and environmental issues. Learners should reflect on power relations in terms of social, economic and political factors.

Designing strategies, to include:
- gathering information
- analysing contexts
- identifying strategies
- taking action where appropriate
- documenting what they have done

Evaluating strategies, to include:
- recognition of different perspectives on an issue
- evaluating the merits of different perspectives

In this phase the emphasis will be on understanding the reasons for the need to manage resources well, with a view to practical action related either to future employment or developing useful research skills.

- explain strategies to effectively develop and manage resources, human and natural

- critically analyse the impact of power relations on the development, management and utilisation of resources from both a social and environmental perspective. Local, national and international perspectives should be included

- explain in detail the need to manage resources effectively and sustainably, in order to develop society

- design and implement strategies to address issues which impact on the utilisation and management of both a natural and human resource

- evaluate the impact and effectiveness of these strategies and suggests alternative strategies to address the issue

- present an argument to explain why resources need to be developed, utilised and managed in a sustainable way
### SO5 Critically understand the role of technology in social development

<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</strong></th>
<th><strong>RANGE STATEMENTS</strong></th>
<th><strong>PERFORMANCE INDICATORS</strong></th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 1. Factors contributing to development and change in technology over time are analysed  | **Areas of technology, to include:**  
• agriculture  
• industry  
• transport  
• Information / communication  
• organisation  
**Factors influencing the development of technology, to include:**  
• discoveries and inventions  
• response to need  
• response to a market  
**Factors influencing changes in technology, to include:**  
• economic necessity  
• markets  
• consumerism, discoveries and inventions  
• political changes  
**Evaluation of the effects of change in technology, to include:**  
• identification of effects  
• assessing advantages and disadvantages | **This will be evident when learners:**  
• explain how technology influences social development  
• critically analyse the advantages and disadvantages of technology from different perspectives |
| 2. Differences and similarities in the type, development and use of technology in different places are analysed | **Types of technology, to include:**  
• organisation of production (land, labour, capital)  
• resistance to technology  
• social barriers to the use of technology | **relate the increase in available information and/or resources to a change in economic activities** |
| 3. Interrelationships between technology and human activity in various contexts are evaluated by:  
• analysis of interrelationships between technology and social change  
• exploration of social barriers to use technology and action to overcome them  
• assessment of impact of technology on access to information and resources  
• critical evaluation of application of technology in different contexts | **Development and use, to include:**  
• impact of technology in certain social contexts (e.g. home; community; workplace)  
• appropriate management of resources for future generations  
**Differences and similarities, to include:**  
• identification of differences and similarities  
• identification of contexts  
• assessment of the reasons for them  
**Interrelationships, to include:**  
• organisation of production (land, labour, capital)  
• resistance to technology  
• social barriers to the use of technology  
**Impact of technology on human activity, to include:**  
• agriculture  
• industry  
• transport  
• Information / communication  
• organisation  
**Application of technology in different contexts:**  
• e.g. agriculture, energy, manufacturing  
**Evaluation of the interrelationships, to include:**  
• assessing advantages / benefits  
• assessing disadvantages  
• for different interest groups | **describe how barriers of race, class and gender have been (and may continue to be) used to exclude people from using certain technologies** |
| 4. Appropriate technology is used safely and efficiently to contribute to development | **Decisions about whether technology is appropriate, to include:**  
• identification of technologies that can be used in various contexts | **evaluate the application of technology in different contexts** |

**HSS - 22**

**HSS - 23**
### HSS - 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</th>
<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Understanding of the earth as a life-sustaining system in the universe is demonstrated</td>
<td>Conceptualisation of the links between people and the universe, to include:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- appreciation of the contribution of astronomers and philosophers, from diverse cultures at different times and places (from at least South America, Africa and Asia)</td>
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<td>- myths, legends, theories and perceptions from a variety of perspectives (time and place)</td>
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<td>- the spiritual bond between people and the Earth at different times and in different places</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Factors which contribute to the earth being a life-sustaining system, to include:</td>
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<td>- the earth's position and orientation in space, its size and composition</td>
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<td>- the distinctive ability of earth to sustain people</td>
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<td>- the earth as providing resources (e.g. water, air and soil) to meet people's basic needs for survival.</td>
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<td>Learners must be able to explain how various factors contribute to the sustaining of life on Earth.</td>
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</table>

### HSS - 25

### ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

1. Understanding of the earth as a life-sustaining system in the universe is demonstrated

### RANGE STATEMENTS

- Conceptualisation of the links between people and the universe, to include:
  - appreciation of the contribution of astronomers and philosophers, from diverse cultures at different times and places (from at least South America, Africa and Asia)
  - myths, legends, theories and perceptions from a variety of perspectives (time and place)
  - the spiritual bond between people and the Earth at different times and in different places

### PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

This will be evident when learners:

- explain some of the reasons for exploration of the universe, including space travel
- describe the importance of the various factors which contribute to the earth being a life-sustaining system
2. Knowledge of the nature of ecosystems and the significance of their diversity and interdependence for people is demonstrated.

Characteristics of ecosystems:
- common to all
- diverse (selected examples at different scales)

Significance of characteristics for people, to include:
- concept of biodiversity
- provision of resources
- environmental stability in complexity and balances

Links between ecosystems, to include:
- role of the atmosphere, ocean and coastal systems in linking energy flows
- implications of these links for ecosystems and people

Learners should be able to conduct investigations and construct models which demonstrate the diversity and interdependence of ecosystems.

Scope:
- different types (e.g. commercial / subsistence farming)
- different times
- different places (local, South African, African, global)

Human activities, to include:
- Land issues (e.g. land ownership, and control)
- economic activities (e.g. farming, mining, forestry, services)
- construction (e.g. of settlements, transport routes, dams)

3. The impact of human activities on different natural systems is investigated by:
- ascertaining impact
- accessing information
- identifying key causal factors and relationships
- critiquing decision making processes and motives

- explain the diversity and links between different ecosystems and identifies the role of humans within these ecosystems
- explain the concept of biodiversity (able to identify biodiversity in different regions) and its importance to people
- relate the significance of the interdependence between the various ecosystems (investigate environmental stability and balances)
- critically evaluate how and why decisions are made which influence the impact of human activities on natural systems

- leisure (e.g. tourism and travel)
- population movements (e.g. migration, resettlement, urbanisation)
- wars
- trade

Natural systems, to include:
- forests
- river basins
- the atmosphere and oceans, etc.

Impacts, to include:
- pollution
- deforestation
- species extinction, etc.

Accessing information, from:
- field observations
- measurements
- written and oral accounts
- statistics
- photographs, etc.

Ascertaining impact, to include:
- positive/negative
- on the natural environment and thus on people linked to it
- scale and scope

Key causal factors and relationships contributing to impact:
- social, economic, political and physical (e.g. soil erosion due to the homelands policy, not population pressure per se)

Critique of decision making and motives, from perspectives of:
- equity
- power relations
- tenets of the SA Constitution
### 4. The impact of natural events and phenomena on people is investigated by:
- accessing information
- ascertaining impact
- identifying key causal factors and relationships

An investigation is conducted which allows the learner to analyse the connections between ecosystems and cultural, socio-economic or political factors.

**Context:**
- local, South African, global
- in the present and past

**Identification of events and phenomena:**
- (e.g. floods, desertification, cyclones, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, droughts)

**Accessing information, from:**
- field observations
- measurements
- written and oral accounts
- statistics
- photographs etc.

**Ascertaining impact, to include:**
- on the natural and built environment
- on people (positive/negative; scale and scope; differences in impact across groups, places, structures)

**Key causal factors and relationships contributing to nature of impact:**
- social, political and economic factors (e.g. when a settlement is flooded because it is too near to a river, the underlying cause is lack of access to land)

**Analysis showing the relationship between a natural force and the social, economic and political circumstances of the people**

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### 5. Relationships between natural features and human activities are analysed

The analysis should reveal the complex nature of the consequences of the interaction: e.g., both negative and positive.

**Scope:**
- regional and global

**Natural features, to include:**
- physical features (e.g. rivers, mountains)
- climate distribution patterns soil types, etc.

**Relationships, to include:**
- limiting human activity (e.g. mountains on traffic routes)
- facilitating human activity (e.g. harbours or ports)
- modification by human activity (e.g. draining of marshes)

**Factors contributing to relationships:**
- (e.g. access to decision making power; wealth; available technology perceived needs)

The main focus should be on the learner being able to give a relatively comprehensive account of the way human activity is patterned by natural features; and an account of mediating social factors.

**Range of attitudes and perceptions, to include:**
- conservation of natural, cultural and historical heritages (e.g. game parks, museums, archaeological sites)
- appreciation of natural environments (e.g. silence / aesthetics / back-to-nature possibilities)

- analyse the causal factors and the relationships which influence the extent of the impact of natural events and phenomena on the lives of people
- explain how social factors may influence the way in which human activity is patterned by natural features

### 6. Attitudes, values and perceptions regarding the environment are examined by:
- identifying the attitude and perceptions
- considering factors that influence attitudes and perceptions

- analyse how attitudes and values influence decisions which impact on society and the environment
• reflecting on its origins and development
  • personal evaluations of places and environments (e.g. as unsafe / inferior)
  
Factors impacting, to include:
  • context
  • historical and individual experience
  • collective memory
  • education
  • interest groups

Significance of attitudes and values:
  • in conflict situations regarding the environment
  • in personal decision making

The learner is able to come to a reasoned judgement about the influence of various factors on attitudes and values regarding the environment.

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SO7 Address social and environmental issues in order to promote development and social justice

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<th>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</th>
<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| 1. Social and environmental issues related to development and social justice are identified | Social issues, to include:  
  • good global citizenship  
  • inequalities in distribution of and access to resources (within and between societies)  
  • prejudice and discrimination (based on race, class, gender, age, ability)  
  • poverty (e.g. lack of piped water)  
  • exploitation (e.g. unfair labour practices; unbalanced trade agreements; some aspects of aid and development policies)  
  • crime  
  • population / resource imbalances  
  • conflict (e.g. resistance; war; genocide; military aggression; persecution)  
  • disease (e.g. AIDS, TB and malaria  
  • unemployment  
Environmental issues might include:  
  • environmental degradation (at various scales, of various kinds);  
  • resource depletion;  
  • global warming;  
  • ozone hole;  
  • population pressure | This will be evident when learners:  
  • use evidence from a range of sources to provide a reasoned argument explaining the impact of social and environmental issues on development and social justice |
2. Identified issues are critically analysed

- Account taken of the impact on development of society and the environment

**Contributing factors, to include:**
- environmental
- economic and social (e.g. actions of groups; attitudes; power relations)
- interconnections between these factors
- actions of different groups
- the RDP and the Constitution

**Different perspectives on issues, to include:**
- political ideology
- religious beliefs
- culture
- different contexts
- different times

Learners must be able to identify factors relating to an issue, and support their choice with evidence and reasoned arguments.

3. Strategies to address issues are developed and evaluated

**Strategies, to take account of:**
- changing attitudes
- using available resources
- analysing causes and situations
- power relations
- impact of the issue

**Evaluation in terms of:**
- feasibility
- likely benefits and negative responses
- costs
- conformity to principles of the Constitution and human rights

In developing strategies learners must be able to predict their outcome based on analyses of current situations. At least one issue should be considered which enables the learner to relate local, provincial and national aspects.

4. Strategies are implemented to address particular issues

**Issues:**
- local (e.g. lack of security at school) to global (e.g. global warming)

**Strategies:**
- individual or collective action

**Activities, to include:**
- actions to address local issues (e.g. gangs)
- actions to address global issues (e.g. conserving energy)

Learners must be able to implement relatively complex strategies which require more than one phase and the involvement of a number of people.
### SO8 Analyse forms and processes of organisations

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The different forms and purposes of organisations are identified by:</td>
<td>Discussions to include finding similarities and differences between large and small, formal and informal organisations</td>
<td>This will be evident when learners:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• acquiring information</td>
<td>Forms, to include:</td>
<td>• evaluate the relationship and significance between forms and purpose of organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>• identifying forms and purposes</td>
<td>• schools, groups, gangs, associations, clubs, congregations, companies, unions, parties, non-governmental organisations</td>
<td>• conduct an in-depth study into the form and purpose of one organisation</td>
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<td>• explaining their significance</td>
<td>Purposes, to include:</td>
<td>• distinguish between local, national and international organisations and identify links between them</td>
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<td>• protection and security, provision, production, trade and commerce, recreation, information, mutual benefit, service to others, class/group rights, political interest</td>
<td>• recognise how context influences the forms and purposes of organisations</td>
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<td>Scale:</td>
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<td>• local, provincial, South African, and Southern African</td>
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<td>• in the present and the past</td>
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<td>• large and small organisations</td>
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<td>• formal and informal organisations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>One organisation can be studied in depth and from this study inferences drawn about the forms and purpose of organisations.</td>
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<td>2. Characteristics of organisations are analysed by:</td>
<td>Discussions to include finding similarities and differences between large and small, formal and informal organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>• accessing information</td>
<td>Characteristics:</td>
<td>• critically analyse one organisation in depth to draw inferences about characteristics and significance of organisations</td>
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<td>• determining characteristics</td>
<td>• formal and informal rules</td>
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<td>• explaining significance of characteristics</td>
<td>• hierarchy and management</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. The origin and development of organisations are understood</td>
<td>Discussions to include finding similarities and differences between large and small, formal and informal organisations</td>
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<td>Aspects of origins to explore:</td>
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<td>• why people came together</td>
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<td>• why decisions were taken (who chose the leaders)</td>
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<td>• what programme was adopted</td>
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<td>Aspects of development to investigate:</td>
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<td>• changes in the organisation’s goals</td>
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<td>• changes in leadership</td>
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<td>• changes in programmes</td>
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<td>• funding for the organisation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Scope:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• large and small</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• local, provincial and national (clubs, corporations, unions)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• democratic and non-democratic</td>
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<td>In this phase the main focus must be on organisations related to career, employment or education opportunities. One organisation can be studied in depth and from this study inferences drawn about the characteristics of organisations.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• explain the relationship and interdependence of different organisations including the similarities and differences between small and large, formal and informal</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• investigate in detail the origin, development and functioning of an organisation</td>
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</table>
4. Information which can address personal and community needs is obtained by:
   • knowledge of relevant organisations
   • accessing information required
   • processing information
   • getting advice and assistance

Needs might include:
   • health
   • education
   • careers and employment
   • sport
   • community development
   • school development

In this phase the main focus must be on organisations related to career, employment or educational opportunities.

In this phase the main focus must be on organisations related to career, employment or educational opportunities.

• show how to access and utilise the services of an organisation
• evaluate the assistance received and determines whether the strategies followed were adequate to address the personal and community issues identified
• suggest alternative strategies

SO9 Demonstrate the ability to use a range of skills and techniques in the Human and Social Sciences context

For outcomes-based approaches to succeed, learners need to acquire investigative and problem-solving skills. This crucially involves critical thinking, processing information and communicating effectively. In the Human and Social Sciences, certain skills require more attention than they might in other Learning Areas. This outcome is designed to provide a framework for the development of these skills and their application in all the other outcomes.

Note: Differentiation by phase in range statements has not been done. This is because the skills listed below are intended to be used in the context of all the other specific outcomes, and these have range statements which have been differentiated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT CRITERIA</th>
<th>RANGE STATEMENTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A critical understanding of the nature and use of sources and evidence is demonstrated by:</td>
<td>Examples include:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• demonstrating an understanding of the difference between sources and evidence</td>
<td>• a source provides information; analysing a number of sources might provide evidence for a conclusion to be made</td>
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<tr>
<td>• gathering and recording information from sources</td>
<td>• interviewing someone and writing down what he or she says, in order to find out about what happened long ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• deducing and synthesising information from sources and evidence</td>
<td>• show evidence of the use of resource centres such as libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• showing respect and sensitivity in deriving and using information from human and other sources</td>
<td>• combining different accounts of an event to make a new version</td>
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<tr>
<td>• recognising the integrity of sources</td>
<td>• respecting confidentiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• recognising the problematic nature of sources and evidence</td>
<td>• appreciating the particular circumstances under which a source was made</td>
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<tr>
<td>• evaluating the reliability of sources and evidence in specific contexts</td>
<td>• sources might have been altered; evidence based on source of one kind only might not be valid</td>
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<tr>
<td>• detecting bias in sources and evidence</td>
<td>• by comparing different accounts of the same event</td>
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<tr>
<td>• recognising that bias is inherent in knowledge and its use</td>
<td>• recognising when someone has promoted his or her own interest, or perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• using sources and evidence to formulate</td>
<td>• all knowledge can be biased in some form</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• collecting evidence to use to promote the protection of the environment; writing an account on the basis of the sources found and evidence deduced</td>
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<td>Arguments and to state a position</td>
<td>The ability includes:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>clarification of attitudes and values (e.g. recognition of different perspectives on an issue)</td>
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<td>distinguishing between conflicting values</td>
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<td>empathising, i.e. understanding people's behaviour in the context of their circumstances, both past and present (e.g. suspending premature and uninformed judgements of other people's behaviour; appreciating the opportunities and constraints facing people in different situations)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evaluating the merits of different perspectives</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2. Ability to make informed judgements is demonstrated

3. Competence in the application of graphic techniques is demonstrated by:
- accessing and interpreting graphically represented data
- representing data graphically
- translating data from one form of graphic representation to another
- analysing graphically represented data
- considering the problems of relevance and bias in graphically represented data

   Types of graphic representation, to include:
   - graphs (e.g. pie, line, bar)
   - flow diagrams, illustrations (annotated and other)
   - cartoons and other drawings
   - photographs (vertical, oblique and orthophoto)
   - line lines;
   - maps (e.g. of different scales, areas subject matter, times/dates, areas, showing contours, sketch and accurate) etc.

   Interpretation, to include:
   - decoding of symbols and signs
   - recognising shapes and features from different perspectives
   - using a key
   - reading maps (e.g. using scale to measure distance, finding direction and fixing position; using contours to identify landforms and features)

   Analysis, to include:
   - relationships and patterns (over time and space) rates of change

   Uses:

4. Independent and co-operative learning skills that promote critical understanding of social and environmental issues are demonstrated

Making
- inferences
- decisions
- recommendations
- evaluations

Explanation, to include:
- proposed routes and other developments
- impacts of events in the past
- changes over time
- differences/similarities from place to place

Skills of working in a group, to include:
- those associated with roles (e.g. facilitator, note-taker)
- those associated with sharing ideas (e.g. listening, responding supportively, participating actively, evaluating ideas, accepting critical comment)
- those associated with synthesising and integrating ideas
- those associated with managing the process: keeping time, allocating and taking responsibility for tasks

Skills of working independently, to include:
- personal skills (e.g. initiative, self discipline)
- selecting and integrating these two sets of skills as appropriate for the task
- reflecting on and evaluating processes of individual and group work

Examples include:
- measuring, interviewing, analysing documents, using questionnaires and surveys
- the question the research is expected to answer; the anticipated answer (if... then... )
- choosing a suitable method of research, or more than one
- communicating proposals to all stakeholders; taking account of feedback
- in terms of values associated with the constitution and other aspects of human rights; of their impact, for their feasibility
- considering how successful / unsuccessful they have been and why
• using various methodologies to gain different perspectives on the problem
• developing and negotiating strategies to solve the problem
• using participatory and democratic approaches
• critiquing proposals
• taking appropriate action
• reflecting upon and evaluating the processes and results
• recording the problem-solving process and its outcomes, reporting and disseminating the results

6. Effective communication in social environments is demonstrated by:
• Using communication to participate in local, regional and global activities
• Critically understanding the role of communication in shaping society
• Applying outcomes from Language learning in the context of the Human and Social Sciences where applicable

Examples include:
• accessing media to publicise issues, lobbying, protesting, petitioning, debating
• the manipulative power of communication and the devices which make this possible; the role of mass media in society