

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BOTSWANA TECHNICAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME

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DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own unaided work. All the sources have been acknowledged by means of a complete reference list. It is submitted for the Degree of Masters of Management in Public Policy in the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg and it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any University.

Bose M Mhizha

Signed on this _____ day of September 2012.

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ACRONYMS

BTEP	Botswana Technical Education Programme
DTVET	Department of Vocational Education and Skills Department
EV	External Verification
IV	Internal Verification
MoESD	Ministry of Education and Skills Development
PDD	Programme Development and Delivery Division
PTL	Programme Team Leader
QAA	Quality Assurance and Assessment Unit
SQA	Scottish Qualifications Authority
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
BOTA	Botswana Training Authority
TEC	Tertiary Education Council
DOE	Department of Education
NPE	National Policy on Education
RNPE	Revised National Policy on Education
NRB	National Report of Botswana
NAB	National Assessment Bank

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	i
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABBREVIATIONS	iv
CONTENTS	v
ABSTRACT	viii

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background to the study	2
1.3 Problem Statement	3
1.4 Purpose of the Research	4
1.5 Research Questions	4
1.6 Research Objectives.....	5
1.7 Justification and significance of study	5
1.8 Literature Review	5
1.9 Research Design	6
1.10 Research Methodology	6
1.11 Clarification of concepts	7
1.12 Plan of the Study	11
1.13 Conclusions	13

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction.....	14
2.2 Policy Implementation.....	14
2.3 Policy Implementation Theories.....	15
2.3.1 Top-down model.....	15
2.3.2 Bottom-up model.....	17
2.3.3 Synthesis of bottom-up and top-down approaches.....	18
2.4 Theoretical Frameworks.....	20
2.4.1 Introduction	20
2.4.2 Conclusion.....	24
2.5 Factors that affect the implementation of Outcomes-based Education.....	24
2.5.1 Outcomes-based Education in Australia.....	25
2.5.2 The Western Australian Experience.....	25
2.5.3 Outcomes-based Education in South Africa.....	26
2.6 Elements of Conceptual Framework.....	27
2.6.1 Policy Content.....	27
2.6.2 Commitment of implementation to the policy.....	28
2.6.3 Support of clients and coalitions for implementation.....	29
2.6.4 Capacity to implement policy.....	30
2.6.5 Attitude of implementers towards the policy.....	32
2.6.6 Context of implementation.....	33
2.7 Summary and conclusions.....	34

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction.....	35
3.2	Research Methodology.....	35
3.3.	Research Design.....	36
3.4	Methodologies and processes for data collection.....	37
3.5.	Research population.....	38
3.5.1	Data Collection.....	38
3.5.2	Interviews as qualitative data gathering.....	39
3.5.3	Semi-structured interviews.....	40
3.5.4	Document Analysis	41
3.5.5	Triangulation of Data	42
3.6	Sampling	43
3.7	Sampling process.....	45
3.8	Validity.....	46
3.9	Reliability of Study.....	47
3.10	Ethical measures.....	48
3.11	Limitations of the Research	50
3.12	Summary and Conclusions.....	50

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND DESCRIPTION

4.1	Introduction	51
4.2	BTEP Documentation and Record Keeping.....	51
4.3	Quality Assurance Authority.....	52
4.4	Programme Development and Delivery Unit.....	52
4.5	Document Analysis.....	53
4.5.1	Lecturers' documents.....	53
4.6	Interview Findings.....	54
4.6.1	Background information.....	54
4.7	Perceived successes of BTEP Policy Implementation.....	57
4.7.1	Commitment of participants.....	57
4.7.2	Teamwork.....	58
4.7.3	Capacity to implement BTEP Policy	59
4.7.4	Leadership Capacity.....	60
4.8	Perceived Failures of Policy Implementation in the Technical Colleges.....	61
4.8.1	Lack of capacity to implement policy.....	61
4.8.2	Lack of support during policy implementation.....	63
4.8.3	Lack of Commitment to policy.....	64
4.8.4	Diverse interpretation of BTEP policy.....	66
4.8.5	Attitudinal issues towards BTEP.....	68
4.9	Summary and Conclusions.....	71

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1	Introduction.....	72
5.2	Implementation Context	73
5.3	Factors that constrained the implementation of BTEP.....	73
5.3.1	Diverse interpretation of BTEP policy.....	74
5.3.2	Lack of capacity to implement policy.....	75
5.3.3	Lack of expertise and training.....	76
5.3.4	Unrealistic workloads.....	76
5.3.5	Lack of resources and funding.....	77
5.3.6	Lack of support/ commitment for BTEP implementation.....	77
5.3.7	Attitudes towards BTEP.....	78
5.4	Factors that facilitated the implementation of BTEP Policy.....	78
5.4.1	Teamwork	79
5.4.2	Leadership capacity.....	79
5.4.3	Commitment to implement the policy.....	79
5.3	Summary and Conclusions.....	80

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1.	Introduction	81
6.2	Summary of Findings.....	81
6.3	Perceived Policy successes	82
6.4	Perceived Policy Failures.....	83
6.5	Recommendations	84
6.5.1	Approaches to Policy implementation.....	85
6.5.2	Lack of Commitment to policy.....	85
6.5.3	Lack of support for BTEP policy.....	86
6.5.4	Diverse Interpretation of the policy.....	86
6.5.5	Negative attitudes towards BTEP.....	87
6.5.6	Lack of capacity to implement BTEP policy.....	88
6.6	Limitations of the Study.....	89
6.7	Further Research	89
6.8	Conclusion	90

REFERENCES	92
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APPENDIX A: Letters of request to the College Principals	108
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APPENDIX B: Letters of request to College Lecturers	110
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APPENDIX C: Semi structured interview questions	112
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ABSTRACT

A new Vocational Educational Policy, Botswana Technical Education Programme policy (BTEP) has been launched by the Department of Vocational Education and Training to enable the learners to acquire the necessary learning experiences and attributes towards effective preparation for the world of work. The nature of the programme is such that facilitation approaches should be learner-centred.

The Quality Assurance policies are aimed to support the implementation of the BTEP. However, they were factors which hindered the effective implementation of BTEP in the Technical Colleges. Consequently, the Colleges implemented the policy partially while there was non-implementation in certain programmes at some Colleges and as a result BTEP failed to increase access in the Technical Colleges as initially intended. This was the research problem of the study.

The aim of the study was to explore factors that constrained the implementation of BTEP. The related literature was consulted to determine the changes that could be made to enhance policy implementation. Subsequently, document analysis and semi-structured interviews were used to determine the current BTEP delivery practices of lecturers at four Technical Colleges in Botswana, namely, Maun Technical College, Selebi Phikwe Technical College, Francistown College of Vocational Education and Training and Palapye Technical College. Thereafter, the requirements of the policy and the current practices of the lecturers were compared to determine the factors that had hindered the implementation of BTEP.

Though the research identified a number of perceived policy successes, perceived policy failures were also identified as follows: Lack of capacity to implement the policy in the Technical Colleges, lack of support for policy implementation from DTVET, lack of commitment to the policy, diverse interpretation of the policy and lastly negative attitude towards the policy was also identified as a constraining factor.

Regarding these perceived constraints it was firstly recommended that DTVET should ensure that there are officers who are held accountable for the progress of the implementation of BTEP at DTVET level. Secondly DTVET should develop strategies to guide and support lecturers to implement BTEP effectively. Furthermore DTVET should ensure that messages are communicated to all stakeholders and that feedback about BTEP is clear and consistent. DTVET should also encourage the Colleges to adopt the policy, mitigate resistance and manage the implementation of BTEP. Lastly DTVET should simplify strategies for implementing the BTEP policy and avoid complex initiatives.

This study may provide a solution to the problem of BTEP implementation in the Technical Colleges in Botswana. I write this in particular to advice and encourage, the Department of Vocational Education and Training, Programme Design and Development Unit, Quality Assurance Unit, College Management teams and lecturers to make use of the issues raised in this study to help them improve BTEP implementation in the Technical Colleges.

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy introduced in the year 2000 is the first response of an OBE curriculum policy document in Botswana. It marks a major shift in the development of curriculum in Botswana in that, this is the first national VET qualification developed in Botswana by its own people. The BTEP is promoted as a response to the diagnosis of identified weakness in VET curricula and is an attempt to align VET curricula more closely to the needs of the industry. (Bennet, 2005:27)

OBE is introduced from a policy perspective stated in the strategic plan of the Ministry of Education 2001 – 2006. This is identified as Goal 3.3, “to provide quality education and training through relevant responsive and outcomes based curricula at all levels of the education system by January 2006”. BTEP has introduced the elements of the OBE system in the development of the curriculum. (Much of the emphasis on the elements of OBE practices is placed on the writing of the content areas (learning outcomes for each unit). (Bennet, 2005:27)

BTEP is developed to meet the country’s economic and development objectives for the 21st century. The policy has variations of the reconstructionist view of education, where a vision of what society will be is outlined and the role of the TVET sector is underscored and stated in all policy documents which drive the education process. The policy document is based on the economic premise that the country’s economic performance is linked to the level of skills and ability of the nation’s workforce. This is similar to economic arguments for the development of Technical and Vocational Education initiative (TEV1) and GNVQ in the UK. (Bennet, 2005:27-28)

The nature of BTEP is such that facilitation approaches should be learner-centred to enable the learners to acquire the necessary learning experiences and attributes towards effective preparation for the world of work. Essentially, teaching and learning sessions should be activity-based with emphasis on independent study and learners’ responsibility for own learning. BTEP entails a rigorous assessment system with three layers of checks namely; assessment, internal verification and external verification which are intended to ensure that standards are applied consistently and maintained. The assessment and internal verification

processes are carried out by the centre while the external verification process is carried out by the Quality Assurance and Assessment Unit (QAA).

As part of the reforms the Vocational Training Centres were reconceived as Technical Colleges for the provision of pre-employment technical training in the form of the Botswana Technical Education Programme as well as theoretical components of the national Trade Tests and National Craft Certificate. One of the reasons for broadening the mandate of the institutions was under-utilisation of the Vocational Training centres due to lack of uptake of apprenticeships. (BOTA, 2010).

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The guiding policy in education in Botswana is the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) 1994. In it, the Government of Botswana (GOB) has acknowledged that Vocational Education and Training (VET) is crucial to the country's economic diversification from an agro-based to an industrial economy. The (RNPE) 1994 indicates that the government should take responsibility for initial broad-based vocational education, while employees should be responsible for more job specific or specialized vocational training (BOTA, 2008-2009).

Recommendation 52 of the Revised National Policy proposed that the government in conjunction with employers and unions formulate a national training policy. This resulted in the National Policy on Vocational Education and Training (NPVET), which was accepted in December 1997. The ostensible focus of the National Revised Vocational and Educational Training Policy was to 'integrate the different types of vocational education and training into one comprehensive system. (Republic of Botswana: Foreword, 1997). The National Revised Educational Vocational Education & Training Policy of 1997 focused on the need to expand access to make it more inclusive and equitable whilst addressing issues of quality and cost efficiency (BOTA, 2010).

The pre-Revised National Education/National Policy on Vocational and Education training era was however characterised by ineffective co-ordination between different training organizations and lack of standardised vocational qualifications, curricula and quality trainers (BOTA, 2010). There was no unified policy for TVET and the system was fragmented and of uneven quality. The policy instruments governing provision of vocational education were the Apprentice and Industrial Training Act under the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs and various administrative policies and the Education Act in the Ministry of Education. Enrolment numbers in the Vocational Education training institutions were modest and such

institutions were underutilised due to the uptake of the apprentice-ship scheme by industry. The policy identified that traditional delivery modes do not meet the needs of the broader profile of VET students existing in the country, (TEC, 2008).

Taking up the mandate provided by the 1997 VET Act, a major curriculum policy document initiative was launched by the Department of Vocational Education and Training (DTVET) in the same year to develop and implement the Botswana Technical Education Programme (BTEP) policy. Designed to meet the needs of a modern and flexible economy and to encourage graduates to become life-long learners, BTEP was introduced in 2001. It is a modularised, outcomes-based programme, which is designed to be delivered flexibly in a variety of modes to a wider range of different learners using individualized, constructivist methodologies (Richardson A, 2009).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The research problem for this study was derived from a variety of personal observations by the researcher, experiences in the field of study and discussions with others involved in the same discipline as the researcher.

Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy (BTEP) was since introduced in 2001. The (BTEP) Policy was introduced to address the problems encountered through the traditional delivery modes. The structure of the new Policy (BTEP) allowed students to ‘graduate’ prior to practical industrial training and so more students could potentially graduate in a shorter period than the four years required by the previous programme” (BOTA, 2010). Despite its early promises as an answer to the Vocational Education system problems, BTEP has failed to address many challenges that were encountered prior to its introduction particularly the problem of access to vocational education. The report on Rationalisation of Technical Colleges released in March 2010 indicates that most of the courses offered in the Government Technical Colleges from 2007-2009 do not follow the New Botswana Technical Education Programme (BTEP) curriculum. According to yet another report released by BOTA in 2010 much of the training in the Technical Colleges and Brigades still followed the old programmes, in fact up to 2007; the majority of learners in Government Technical Colleges were still following the non-BTEP courses. The non-BTEP courses follow the traditional mode of teaching.

The Technical Colleges’ curriculum Committee report released in 2010 also revealed that facilitators often cite problems that they encounter in implementing the new Botswana

Technical Education Program Policy. The same report indicated that facilitators had a negative attitude as well as lacked commitment to the new policy right from the start.

According to the same report the teaching and assessment reforms proposed by the new policy have presented the facilitators with difficulty of implementation. The report also explained that facilitators received their training in the traditional mode of teaching and hence they often implement new methods of teaching but their philosophies are still embedded in the traditional paradigm of facilitation. Even with new teaching and assessment policies in place, traditional assessment paradigms remain dominant and are difficult to change (Barr & Tagg, 1995). This research is trying to determine the constraints experienced by Technical College facilitators in implementing the Botswana Technical Education Programme policy hence policy implementation is central in this research project.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This study aims to explore the factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy in the Technical Colleges examining particularly how these factors affected implementation and as a result low access. The other important aspect of this research is to recommend strategies for consideration in the on-going and future implementation of Technical Education in Botswana and make recommendations to the Department of Technical, Vocational Education & Training to that effect.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were drafted to give direction and focus to the investigation:

- What are the factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education programme policy in the Technical Colleges?
- How did these factors constrain implementation of the policy?
- What are the strategies for consideration in the on-going and future implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Program?

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives are as follows:

- To identify the factors that constrained BTEP policy implementation by Technical College lecturers.
- To determine how these factors constrained implementation of the policy.
- To recommend strategies for implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Program Policy.

1.7 JUSTIFICATION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Though there is an increasing volume of literature from other countries that offer insight into problems associated with the implementation of outcomes-based education policy there is a gap that warrants research because implementation of the Botswana Technical education Programme Policy has not yet been researched in the Botswana context. Researchers are in general agreement that policy implementation is affected by the context in which policies are implemented (Brynard & De Coning, 2006; Berman, 1978; Maharaj, 2005; O'Toole, 1986; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975; Warwick, 1982). Policies that work on one context may fail in another. (Gornitzka et al.2005) also state that the socio-cultural, socio-economic and socio-political conditions of the implementing agency shape the outcomes of policy implementation.

This is supported by the fact that although the policy was directly transferred from Scotland, research studies from Scotland on the implementation of the same policy indicates that the educators in Scotland did not encounter the same problems prevalent in the implementation of BTEP by Technical College facilitators in Botswana.

1.8 LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Smit (1993-9), literature study is an integral part of the planning and execution of a research report. In this study, the literature study involved the systematic identification, location and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem (Gay, 1981:29). The major purpose of reviewing literature was to determine what had already been done that related to the problem under investigation. An intensive study of

primary and secondary sources will be carried out in order to determine what other authors have written about the research topic. Primary sources will include reports, discussions, government publications, policies and books. A primary source provides the most accurate source of information, since it publishes first-hand information, while secondary sources are citations picked from a primary source and used in a document (Niemann, Van Staden, Messerschmidt and Le Roux, 2005: 26).

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Mouton (2001:55-56), a research design is the plan of how you intend to conduct the research, with the point of departure being the observation of the research problem.

A qualitative research design is deemed most suitable for this study since it allows the researcher to gain insight into the perceptions of educators on realisation of the current implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme. This qualitative approach involves sampling which is explored in depth and described in detail under chapter 3.

1.10 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methods in social research are ways of proceeding in the gathering and collection of data. They consist of listening to the subjects, observing what human beings constructed (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

Using qualitative data will enable me as a researcher to learn first about the social world under investigation. (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Information will be gathered for the current implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme in four Technical Colleges in Botswana. This is done by means of involvement and participation through a focus upon what individual actors (lecturers) said or did. The other reason for following this research approach has been that, qualitative data is more amenable to teachers as it has an advantage of drawing both the researcher and the subjects closer together. (Booi, 2000:15). According to Kuiper (1997), there is a growing realization that educational research involving human beings does not really compare well with research into science concerned with phenomena. There is a move now towards an approach where actions, ideas, thoughts, priorities, problems etc, of people in education are described in a qualitative way (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

According to Eisner and Peskin (1990), the classic and pervasive purpose of qualitative research has been to adopt, create and use a variety of non-quantitative research methods to describe the rich interpersonal, social and cultural contexts of education more fully than can be done with a quantitative approach. This approach has been seen to be more appropriate in bringing about and documenting changes in the context where research is done. (Eisner & Peskin, 1990).

1.11 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

According to Leedy (1993), precise meaning of the terms should be given in relation to the research project. The terms should be defined operatively. The following concepts are dealt with in this investigation.

Curriculum

A curriculum is everything planned by educators which will help to develop learners as whole persons. This can be extra-mural sporting activity, debate, or even a visit to a library. A national curriculum is to be used in all schools (*Lifelong Learning for the 21st Century*,) 1997:10). To Stenhouse (cited in Carl, 1995:31) the curriculum is the way in which educational aims are realised in practice.

Facilitator

Means someone who makes a concept easy or less difficult to understand (Thompson, 1995:482). Hornby (2000:482). Hornby (2000:449) describes a facilitator as a person who helps somebody to do something more easily by discussing problems or giving advice rather than telling them what to do. Tullock (1996:529) concurs with this description when stating that a facilitator is someone who makes something easy or less difficult or more easily achieved. In this research report facilitator refers to the teacher. He/she is called a facilitator because his/her role has changed from giving learners information to guiding learners to seek for information themselves. The term *facilitator* is more appropriate within outcomes-based education because the role of the teacher is to make teaching and learning easy or less difficult or a pleasurable experience by learners. (Mokhaba, 2005).

Implementation

Implementation means performance of an obligation; put a decision or plan into effect (Thompson, 1995:861). In this research report implementation refers to putting a public policy, which is government decision into effect. In this regard it refers to implementing the Botswana Technical Education programme policy.

Learner

Means a person who is learning a subject or skills; a person who is learning to drive a motor vehicle and has not yet passed a driving test. (Thompson, 1975:774). Hornby (2000:731) explains a learner as someone who is finding out about a subject or to do something. Tullock (1996:868) concurs with the aforementioned explanation when stating that a learner is a person who is learning a subject or a skill. In this research report learner refers to someone who is learning both a subject and skills because in outcomes-based education learners learn knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Policy

Means a plan of action adopted or pursued by an individual, government, party or business, or public or other institution (Hanks, 1983:1133). In this research report policy means a plan of action, devised, adopted and pursued by government to address a real or perceived public problem. In this context policy refers to the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy.

Portfolio

A collection of summative assessment evidence generated by a candidate and used to accredit achievement of Learning Outcomes and Units. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

Educator

An educator is a person whose work involves educating others at all levels of education, in any type of education or training contact, including formal and informal, e.g. teacher, lecturer, parent, youth counsellor etc. (DoE), 1997:V1). According to the national Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1998, “educator” refers to any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons at any institution or assists in rendering educational services or education auxiliary or support services provided by or in an education department.

Outcomes-based Education (OBE)

This is an approach to teaching which focuses on “how” to teach. The OBE approach focuses not only on what one learns, but also how one learns. OBE encourages teachers to translate the learning programmes into something achievable. This is a shift away from content-based programmes where teachers aim to cover the curriculum in a predetermined amount of time (*Lifelong Learning for 21st century*, 1997:9). OBE’s aim to produce measurable outcomes testifies to its focus on objectification, which regards the world as an object detached from the self-understanding of people (Taylor, 1985:174).

Outcomes

Means results or visible effects (Thompson, 1995:968). Hornby (2000:899) explains outcomes as results or effects of an action or event. Tullock (1996:1078) concurs when she describes outcomes as results or visible effect. In this research report the original meaning of the word is retained because the emphasis on out-comes based education policy is on the results that this form of teaching produces.

Assessment

According to Hanks (1983:86), means the act of assessing, orally or in writing, the comprehension of learners about what they learnt on their own or what they were taught. Assessment may be done by the learner himself/herself, groups of learners as well as facilitators. Unlike in the past where assessment took place mainly at the end of a month, quarter, half-yearly or annually, outcomes-based education advocates continuous assessment as the lesson progresses. In addition, assessment may take various forms for different purposes.

Formative Assessment

Formative assessment is an ongoing process consisting of both formal and informal assessment by which information about a student’s learning is obtained and used to plan and guide subsequent learning (Harris & Bell, 1990; Sutton, 1991; Parkinson, 1994; Cotton, 1995; DOE, 2001d). This means the day-to-day decisions that the educator has to make, which have to be based on information gathered by the educator, no matter how informal this may have been (Cunningham, 1998). According to Beaty (1998) formative assessment is an essential feature of the learning environment. The information formative assessment should be available at a time and in a form which will enable the learners to develop (Sieborger, 1998). Formative assessment is part of the process of learning, not something separate.

Summative Assessment

A process of collecting evidence that will demonstrate achievement of the Learning Outcome, usually applied at the end of a learning block. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*). The purpose of summative assessment is to report or place on record what is known about the learners' abilities and attainments and this type of assessment is usually based on formal assessment procedures (Rowntree, 1990; Sutton, 1991; Parkinson, 1994; Cotton, 1995; Cunningham, 1998; 1998; DOE, 2001b). These assessment reports are usually of benefit to outside entities such as other educators, parents or employers (Harris & Bell, 1990; DoE, 2001d). The traditional example of summative assessment is the end of course examination. Here the main objective is to determine what the learners have achieved and not to give feedback that will aid learning. In a pure behaviourist approach learners would be assessed at the end of a programme to determine whether or not they have achieved the set standards (Melton, 1997).

Candidate centred Approach

An approach to teaching and learning which takes account of a learner's interests, ability and learning style. It is an approach that is not rigidly time bound and allows a degree of flexibility. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

Evidence Requirement

A description of the evidence that a candidate must produce to achieve a Learning Outcome. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2000*).

Elective

An optional Unit within a BTEP. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

External Verification

Is the process used by the QAA Unit to conform that each centre offering internally assess BTEP units has carried out the assessment in line with the requirements of the Unit Specifications. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

Internal verification

The process used by the Centre staff to verify internal assessment decisions. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

Work Experience

A short-term placement (minimum of 40 hours) in industry that supports the development of key skills and broadens the candidates' understanding of the world of work as part of a vocational programme). (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

Work Placement

A longer-term placement (3 or 6 months) in industry that allows the candidate to acquire and/or develop vocational and key skills and knowledge in an industrial setting as part of a vocational programme. (*BTEP guide to implementation, 2005*).

1.12 PLAN OF THE STUDY

Chapter One

This chapter serves as an introduction to the study. The chapter has introduced the topic and indicated the problem to be investigated, taking into consideration the research questions given. The chapter also consists of the aim and objectives of the study. The research design and the research method to be used throughout the study, the clarification of concepts and a plan of the whole study are explained in this chapter.

Chapter two

The chapter discusses literature review where the necessary information about the topic would be found. Policy implementation and outcomes-based education literature will be reviewed and a theoretical background and conceptual framework to the study is provided in this chapter.

Chapter three

The Chapter deals with the research design and the method to be used. A description of data collection procedures and triangulation will also be provided. The data will be collected using qualitative approach where semi-structured questions will be asked. The document analysis carried out shall also be explained in this chapter. The chapter shall further on indicate the research population, and the sampling used in the study. Issues of validity and reliability will also be discussed and a brief discussion of ethics presented.

Chapter four

The chapter presents the findings and the description of the data collected in the study, drawing together the perspectives of the different participants, as well as the findings from the documentary analysis.

Chapter five

The Chapter offers an in-depth analysis of the findings described in Chapter 4. The findings are discussed in relation to the literature review presented in chapter 2, the QAA supporting policies, BTEP reports studied during the study as well as the BTEP Policy constraints and successes as seen from the different perspectives and the participants' points of view.

Chapter six

This chapter presents the main findings of the study that is the constraints experienced by the Technical College lecturers in implementing the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy. Summary and recommendations of the whole study will be provided in this chapter. Recommendations will be directed to DTVET and Colleges to improve the on-going and future implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy by Technical college facilitators.

1.13 CONCLUSION

The first chapter has addressed the problem statement. Research questions regarding the topic are also addressed. The research questions are discussed. Concepts used in the study are clarified. The concepts are clarified in relation to how they are used in the investigation. The aims and objectives of the study are also addressed.

The next chapter is a literature review that covers policy implementation. The review of different implementation perspectives, policy implementation studies and outcomes-based education literature form the basis for understanding the complexities related to those engaged in the implementation. The literature serves to review the different theoretical perspectives that inform the investigation in the study. It reviews literature relating to factors that impact on policy implementation and insights derived from policy implementation studies. It also reviews literature derived from outcomes-based education policy studies from other countries.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As affirmed in the problem statement, factors that have constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Program Policy need to be investigated. The central aim of this study is to explore the factors perceived to have constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy in the Technical Colleges in Botswana. My intention is not to make a comparative assessment of the extent to which certain Technical Colleges have complied with policy imperatives. It would however be naive to pretend that analysis of this kind can be done without reference of this nature.

This study takes as its point of departure the assumption that policy implementation is a complex process that cannot be fully understood without an analysis of the complexities, tensions, conflicts, perceptions and dilemmas related to those engaged in the implementation. (Stofile, 2008:33). The review of different implementation perspectives and a review of policy implementation studies form the basis for understanding the complexities related to those engaged in the implementation. This chapter thus serves to review the different theoretical perspectives that inform the investigation in the study. It reviews literature relating to factors that impact on policy implementation and insights derived from policy implementation studies. Policy implementation is explored from two theoretical perspectives that are described later in the chapter.

2.2 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation inevitably takes different shapes and forms in different cultures and institutional settings. This point is particularly important in an era in which processes of ‘government’ have been seen as transformed into those of governance” (Hill and Hupe, 2002:1).

Implementation literally means carrying out, accomplishing, fulfilling, producing or completing a given task. The founding fathers of implementation, Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) define it in terms of a relationship to policy as laid down in official documents.

According to them, policy implementation may be viewed as a process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieve them (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1984: xxx-xxiii). Policy implementation encompasses those actions by public and private individuals or groups that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in policy decisions. This includes both one-time efforts to transform decisions into operational terms and continuing efforts to achieve large and small changes mandated by policy decisions (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975:447).

2.3 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION THEORIES

A review of literature on policy reveals that two schools of thought have evolved. Different scholars term them differently. Some talk about “forward and backward mapping” models (Fataar, 1999). The top-down and bottom-up schools of thought are seen as providing the most effective methods for studying and describing implementation (Dyer, 1999; Elmore, 1980; Gornitzka, Kyvik, & Stensaker, 2005; Lane, 1993; Maharaj, 2005; Matland, 1995; Sabatier, 2005; Sehoole, 2002; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975). Top down theories see policy makers as the central actors and concentrate on factors that can be controlled at a central level. Bottom-up theorists emphasise a focus on participants and service providers, arguing that policy is made at the local level (Gornitzka, et.al., 2005; Matland, 1995).

2.3.1 Top-down model

The essential features of a top-down approach were developed by Pressman and Wildavsky (1973). This model assumes that policy implementation is a linear process that is characterised by a hierarchically ordered set of events, which can be centrally controlled (Cerych & Sabatier, 1986; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981; 1983; 1989; Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973; Sabatier, 1986; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975). In this model, policy process is divided into sequential steps, each of which is treated as functionally distinct (Badat, 1991; Christie, 2008; Fatar, 1999; Maharaj, 2005; Sehoole, 2002; Sabatier, 2005). Policy implementation viewed through the lens of this perspective is regarded as the “rational administrative activity of a political neutral bureaucracy whose actions are directed at the achievement of the policy objectives or directives of the politicians” (De Clercq, 1997: 146). This view separates implementation from formulation, suggesting a separation between theory and practice (Badat, 1991; Fattar, 1999; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981; 1983; 1989; Sabatier, 1986). Supporters of this linear describe implementation as the execution of

objectives. One example of this interpretation can be found in Hayes' (2001) description of policy implementation. Hayes describes implementation as a composition of activities by government directed towards the achievement of goals and objectives stipulated in the policy (Stofile, 2008:38). Similar descriptions can be found in Sabatier and Mazmanian. These theorists define implementation as "the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually made in statute" (Sabatier & Mazmanian, 1980:153). With regard to methods of policy analysis, this framework provides a hierarchical model of policy analysis as well as the analytical tools for actors to use to regulate, measure, and control the policy processes. (Stofile, 2008:38).

The policy implementation that is planned in line with this model follows sequential steps such as:

- Establishing implementation structure
- Designing a programme that incorporates task sequences and clear statements of objectives
- Developing performance standards
- Building in monitoring and control devices to ensure that the programme proceeds as intended. (Stofile, 2008:38).

Implementation analysis that is located in this model tends to focus on factors that appear to centralise control and that are easily manipulated by policy makers. These factors include funding formulae, organisational structures, authority relationships among administrative units and administrative control (Elmore, 1980). An early study by Van meter and Van Horn (1975) provides an example of top-down thinking. In their model of how to analyse the implementation process, variables such as policy standards and objectives and policy resources are regarded as critical. Pressman and Wildasky (1973) were the first implementation analysts to indicate that the outcomes of even the best supported policy initiatives depend eventually on what happens when the individual implementers throughout the policy system interpret the policy (Mc Laughlin, 1987).

There are several criticisms that are directed at top-down models. Firstly, top-down models take policy decisions as their starting point in the analysis and thus fail to consider the significance of actions taken during the other stages of the implementation process (Matland, 1995), Bowe, Ball and Gold (1992) contend that this linear conception of policy in which theory and practice are separated distorts the

policy process. They argue further that this top down model is not the best start for research into the practical effects of policy, as the policy process is simply not a matter of implementers following a fixed text and putting the policy into practice. Rather policy is contested. A similar argument was made by Elmore (1980: 603) when he contends that “the notion that policy makers exercise - ought to exercise - some kind of direct and determinant control over policy implementation might be called a noble lie of conventional public administration and policy analysis”. Lowry (1992:50) argues that “Policies are not simply created by national officials and then routinely implemented by state and local governments as if they were unquestioning automatons in some Weberian machine”.

Proponents of the top-down approach have been accused of seeing implementation as a purely administrative process, either ignoring political aspects or trying to eliminate them (Matland, 1995; Saetren, 1986). These authors argue that the call for clear, explicit and consistent goals distorts the reality of how legislation is passed. Finally, the top down model has been criticised for its emphasis on policy makers as key actors. It is argued that this approach has a tendency to neglect local implementing officials’ initiatives and to underestimate the strategies used by implementing actors to divert central policy for their own purposes.

2.3.2 Bottom-up model

In contrast to the top-down approach, those emphasising a bottom-up approach such as Berman (1980), Hjern and Porter (1981), Hjern and Hull (1982). Hull and Hjern (1987), Elmore (1980), and Lipsky (1978). Suggest a model that starts from the bottom of implementation. The bottom-up approach of Hanf, Hjern and Porter (1978) starts by mapping the network of actors in the actual field where implementation is to take place and asks them about their goals, strategies, activities, and contact persons. This according to Sabatier (2005) provides a vehicle for moving from the actors at the bottom to policy makers at the top.

One of the key proponents of the approach is Elmore (1980). He argues for “backward mapping” approach as an alternative to “forward mapping”. Elmore challenges the assumptions of the top-down approach on the grounds that they are an inappropriate way of describing real life policy implementation. Further illustrations of such an approach are found in the work of bottom-up scholars, such as Berman (1978;1980); Hjern and Porter (1981); Hjern (1982); Hjern and Hull (1982); Hull and Hjern (1987). Their point of departure is dismissive of illusions of central control.

They argue that a more realistic understanding of implementation can be gained by looking at the policy from the view of the target implementers and the service providers. These theorists argue that successful implementation depends more on the skills of local implementers than upon efforts of central government officials (Stofile, 2008:40). Matland (1995:148) notes: “At the macro-implementation level, centrally located actors devise a government programme, at the micro-implementation level; local organisations react to the macro-level plans, develop their own programs and implement them”. While a bottom-up approach is regarded as a useful starting point for identifying actors involved in a policy arena, Sabatier (2005:24) argues that “it needs to be related via an explicit theory to social, economic and legal factors which structure the perceptions, resources and participation of those actors.” Criticism has been levelled at the bottom-up approach for underestimating the role of the policy objectives (Gornitzka, 2005; Matland, 1995; Sabatier, 2005). It is argued that in a democratic system policy control should be exercised by central actors whose mandates come from their accountability to their voters (Matland, 1995).

The bottom-up approach views policy implementation as an integral part of the policy making process and regards policy formulation and implementation as iterative processes (Barret & Fudge, 1981; Bowe and Ball, 1992; Dyer, 1999; Elmore, 1980; Fataar, 2006; Fullan, 1982; Lowry 1992; McLaughlin, 1998). Policy implementation is thus regarded as all activities and interactions that are directly related to the achievement of the envisaged policy intentions.

2.3.3 Synthesis of bottom-up and top-down approaches

The coalition framework (Sabatier, 2005) combines the two approaches. It begins with a bottom up unit of analysis which includes the many participants who are involved with the policy problem, as well as understanding the perspectives and strategies of all major categories of actors (Sabatier, 2005). It combines with the top-down scholars’ concerns regarding the manner in which socio-economic conditions and administrative issues constrain implementation. (Stofile, 2008:6). The study has adopted the position that implementation implies both the execution of policy goals as well as “reformulation” and re-design of original intentions and plans” (Gornitznika et al, 2002:398).

In an effort to reconcile the two major schools of thought on policy implementation, different groups of researchers such as Matland (1995), Goggin, Bowman, Lester and O’Toole (1990), Sabatier (1986;1988;1991;1998;2005) and Elmore (1982;1985),

have proposed different ways of combining the two approaches. Elmore's concept of "forward" and "backward" mapping was an early attempt to combine top-down and bottom-up perspectives. Elmore argues that policy makers need to consider both the policy instruments and other sources at their disposal (forward mapping), as well as the incentive structure of target groups (backward mapping) because success in implementation depends on combining the two (Matland, 1995; Sabatier 2005). The second attempt at synthesis was made by Goggin et al. (1990). They developed a communication model of intergovernmental implementation in the United States of America. They view states as the critical actors. They claim that messages are received from the top (government) and the bottom (local actors) (Stofile, 2008:41).

In 1995, Matland sought a combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches that would identify the conditions under which policy recommendations would be effective (Matland, 1995). Matland proposes that these approaches should be used when appropriate and not simultaneously. He argues that they are applicable in the following four different situations:

- In situations of low-policy conflict and low policy ambiguity, 'administrative implementation' is the appropriate strategy – in other words a rational decision-making process (top-down perspective) is more appropriate;
- In situations of high-policy conflict and low-policy ambiguity, where actors have clearly defined objectives, a top-down approach is appropriate; Matland terms this "political implementation";
- In situations of high-policy ambiguity and low policy conflict, the emphasis should be on learning (bottom-up perspective); Matland terms this "experimental implementation";
- In situations of low-policy conflict and high-policy ambiguity, letting local actors find local solutions, "symbolic implementation" is the appropriate strategy; this suggests a bottom up perspective.

A fifth model was proposed by Colebatch (2002). This model also combines top-down and bottom-up approaches. Colebatch suggests that a policy process should be perceived as a product of two intersecting dimensions: vertical (top-down) and horizontal (bottom-down) sets of activities (Christie, 2008). The vertical dimensions in this model cover authorised decision-makers and their decisions. The horizontal

dimension covers the activities of many actors in the policy process, both inside government and in non-governmental organisations. This dimension emphasises the importance of negotiations and consensus. Colebatch's model, unlike Maitland's ambiguity-Conflict Model, involves both approaches simultaneously.

A sixth approach, the Advocacy Coalition Framework (Sabatier, 1998) was developed as an attempt to combine the best features of top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation (Sabatier, 1998; 2005). This framework draws from both top-down and bottom-up models. It starts from the premise that the most useful unit of analysis for understanding policy change is a policy subsystem - those actors from a variety of public and private organisations who are involved with the policy (Sabatier, 2005).

This framework assumes that these subsystems can be grouped into a number of coalitions, which consist of interest groups, politicians, agency officials and intellectuals who share common beliefs. It argues that "actors perceive the world through a set of beliefs that filters information consistent with pre-existing beliefs" (Sabatier, 2005:28). In an attempt to implement policy, these coalitions might use conflicting strategies which could create tensions. These tensions are then mediated by "policy brokers" to find compromise. The end product of this process would be policy outputs.

The Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACV) also assumes that there are stable and dynamic variables which affect the constraints and resources of subsystem actors. The stable variables include basic distribution of natural resources, the basic socio-cultural values and social structure (Sabatier, 2005). There are also dynamic factors, including changes in socio-economic conditions and systems which provide principal sources (funding and resources) for change. This is typical of a top-down model.

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.4.1 Introduction

This section is devoted primarily to a theoretical discussion of the elements of the conceptual framework and how these elements can be investigated. In this section the following would be discussed:

- The theoretical framework to guide the investigation.

- Literature on factors that affect the implementation of outcomes-based education internationally.
- The theory that informs the development of the conceptual framework to guide the investigation.
- The elements of this framework which was used to analyse the findings of the study.

This study has adopted a combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation in analysing the reasons for failure in the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy (OBE). The selection of literature to be reviewed and the factors to be extracted was informed by the combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation. While it is acknowledged that the context in which policy implementation takes place is unique, factors that affect the implementation in different contexts were synthesised in this study. These factors emerged from different scholars adhering to different perspectives, working with different policies, in different countries. The top-down approach emphasises central control as a means to secure successful implementation while a bottom-up emphasises is on the healthy relationship that exists between policy makers and policy deliverers to ensure successful implementation. (Stofile, 2008:69).

The central characteristic of both top-down and bottom-up studies is the assumption that if implementation processes can be controlled by relevant variables, implementation will be successful. (Stofile, 2008:69). For example, Sabatier (1986:23) proposed five requirements necessary to maximise successful implementation. Sabatier argues that efforts must be made to ensure that:

- The programme of action is based on sound theory, which relates changes in target group behaviour to the achievement of desired and stated objectives.
- The statute or other basic decision is composed of unambiguous policy directives of the implementation process.
- The programme being implemented is actively supported by organised constituency groups and by a few legislators or chief executives throughout the implementation process, with the courts being neutral or supportive.
- The relative priority of objectives of the programme is not significantly undermined over time by the emergence of conflicting policies or changes in relevant social conditions that undermine the technical theory or political support of the programme.

These factors are also cited in a study on policy implementation in higher education conducted by Cerych and Sabatier (1986). In analysing reasons for the success or failure of the higher education reforms, these two researchers (Cerych & Sabatier, in Gornitzka, 2005; 39 - 40) provided a list of factors affecting policy implementation:

- Legal (official) objectives a) Clarity and consistency b) Degree of system change envisaged;
- Adequacy of the causal theory underlying the reform;
- Adequacy of financial resources provided to implementing institutions;
- The degree of commitment to various program objectives among those charged with its implementation within the education ministry and the affected institutions of higher education;
- Degree of commitment to various programme objectives among legislative and executive officials and affected groups outside the implementing agencies;
- Changes in social and economic conditions affecting goal priorities or the program's causal assumptions.

Similar variables are cited by Sabatier (2005; 19);

- Clear and consistent objectives;
- Adequate causal theory
- Implementation process legally structured to enhance compliance by implementing officials and target groups;
- Committed and skilful implementing officials;
- Support of interest groups and sovereigns over time;
- Changes in socio-economic conditions which do not substantially undermine political support or causal theory.

The variables suggested by Sabatier (1986), and Cerych and Sabatier (1986) can be categorised under five variables, namely: policy content, commitment, context of implementation, support of client and coalitions, and capacity to implement policy. These variables are also cited by other proponents of top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation.

In addition to the variables suggested by Sabatier (1986), contributions from various social science disciplines on improving the effectiveness of implementation were

explored. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) use four approaches to explain variables that affect implementation. These are structural, managerial, behavioural and political approaches. The structural approach emphasises the need to establish organisational structures in the 'planning of change' and 'planning for change' (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). These structures are regarded as crucial for the success of implementation.

The managerial approach, on the other hand, views implementation as a managerial problem. This approach emphasises the development of appropriate processes and managerial procedures (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). These procedures and processes include clear statements of objectives, performance standards, funding and resources, and monitoring and control devices to ensure that the programme proceeds as intended. Lazarus (2001) has also pointed out the importance of legislative pressure, control and ownership, finances and sustainability, clear vision, principles and procedure, and intentional forward planning in the process of change.

The structural and managerial approach resonates with the top-down approach to implementation. The behavioural approach starts from the recognition that there is often resistance to change and argues that "human behaviour and attitudes must be influenced if policies are to be implemented" (Hogwood & Gunn 1984:212). In support of this view, Lazarus (2001) regards successful experiences and readiness to change as some of the crucial variables in the change process. McLaughlin (1987; 1988) asserts that the implementers 'will or motivation' is the most crucial variable for successful implementation. She argues that "local choices about how (or whether) to put the policy into practice have more significance for policy outcomes than do such policy features as technology. Program design, funding levels, or government requirements". McLaughlin asserts that the 'will' or motivation to embrace policy objectives is a necessary condition for effective implementation.

The political approach takes into account the realities of power. Implementation success in this approach is linked to the "willingness and ability of some dominant group or coalitions of groups to impose its will" (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984:216). To support this view, some researchers emphasise the importance of negotiations and the bargaining process during implementation (Ball, 1990; Barret & Fudge, 1981; Bowe & Ball, 1992; Christie, 2008; Fatar, 2006; Lowry, 1992; Maharaj, 2005; McLaughlin, 1987; Schoole, 2002). They argue that policy implementation is not about transmission but about bargaining and negotiation. Lazarus (2001) supports the importance of involving strategic people in the process of change. Both the

behavioural and political approaches mirror the bottom-up approach to policy implementation.

2.4.2 Conclusion

It is apparent from the discussion by the various scholars that there is a convergence on the critical variables relating to policy implementation. The literature revealed the following factors to be policy implementation constraints.

- The policy content
- The context through which the policy will be implemented
- The implementers commitment to the policy
- The implementers capacity to implement the policy
- Implementers' attitudes towards the policy
- Clients' support and coalitions whose interests are affected by the policy.

2.5 FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION

Since the purpose of this study is to investigate factors that constrain the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Program Policy which is a modularised, outcomes-based, or learner centred programme, this section explores the implementation trends of outcomes based education internationally.

According to Nsibande (2002:1) OBE is often described as a global educational curriculum reform phenomenon that many developed countries have adapted to suit local needs. It is formulated according to competency based debates mainly in New Zealand, Australia, Canada, Scotland and some other parts of the United States where it has been criticized. In Australia, OBE has been popular in Ontario. In Scotland especially in Glasgow, it is found on vocational programs. According to Hargreaves, et al. (2001:64), in the early 1990's, the outcomes curriculum emerged in the United States. They commented that from the beginning, the outcomes curriculum was fraught with controversy in countries where it was implemented. The outcomes that challenged the conventional subject's categories and contents were found to be perplexing to the public. (Maphalala, 2006:21).

2.5.1 Outcomes-based education in Australia

The evolution of an outcomes-based approach to education in Australia had its genesis in 1988, with the then federal Minister for Employment, Education and training, John Dawkins, pushing for states to articulate generic competencies that all students finishing school could arguably demonstrate. He called for such competencies against a backdrop of an economic recession and viewed education as a tool for economic revitalisation in a highly competitive global economy. The competencies were thus driven by an economic and political imperative to produce outcomes serving the national interest that is, to produce a more productive, literate, intelligent and technologically sophisticated workforce. (Berlach, & Neill, 2008:51).

In 1992 a set of seven generic skills, the Mayer Key Competencies were identified as the basic transferable competencies that underpin workforce participation, further education, and personal and community activities throughout an individual's life. Such competencies informed the work of the national profiles, which were early attempts to generate a nationally consistent curriculum. They did not achieve this but did leave a legacy of an outcomes-based approach to education in every state framework in Australia. This occurred as Spady's broad OBE principles were adopted as the interpretive lens for instigating future education and training. (Berlach, & O'Neill, 2008:51).

It needs to be made clear that due to the slippery nature of the concept of OBE (Berlach, 2004: Donnelly, 2004), it was never conceived of as a single unitary model for guiding the process of curriculum change. Each state developed its own interpretation of what OBE meant, how the model was to inform curriculum development and how consequent initiatives were to be implemented. (Berlach, & O'Neill, 2008: 51).

2.5.2 The Western Australian experience

One state that stood out from the others in terms of interpretation and implementation protocols was Western Australia. Western Australia was one of the last states to review its curriculum, and when it was finally produced, the Curriculum Framework (Curriculum Council of Western Australia, 1998) was arguably one of the more fundamentalist interpretations of OBE approaches in the country. Proponents adhered narrowly and rigidly to the fundamentalist principles of Spady's Paradigm Lost and, in doing so lost the wider common sense in his approach that had been so enthusiastically received when his work first appeared. Consequently, education in

Western Australia has been shrouded in controversy. For the first five years or so after the introduction of an OBE approach for students from kindergarten to year 10, teachers were genuinely dismayed with the processes but doggedly preserved. At this time the upper secondary courses were quarantined from the OBE agenda. (Berlach & O'Neill, 2008).

2.5.3 Outcomes-based Education in South Africa

In South Africa the new curriculum was modelled according to William Spady's version of OBE. Spady who is regarded as OBE's leading advocate, has defined OBE as a "comprehensive approach to organizing and operating an education system that is focused on and defined by the successful demonstrations of learning outcomes sought from each learner" (Spady, 1994:1). Curriculum 2005 was the first major curriculum statement of a democratic South Africa, deliberately intended to simultaneously overturn the legacy of apartheid education and take South Africa into the 21st century. The implementation problems started immediately and the Department of Education was unable to stick to its timetable. Teachers were not properly prepared and trained to cope with the new system. The philosophy behind outcomes based education and training was not fully understood in the education system and also by some of the provincial education departments responsible for the implementation. The implementation of Curriculum 2005 brought about some challenges and shortcomings that necessitated its revision. The then Minister of education Prof. Kader Asaf appointed the Review Committee to begin the process of curriculum revision. In May 2000 a ministerial Review Committee recommended modifications to the structure, design and aspects of implementation of Curriculum 2005, Van Rooyen and Prinsloo (2003:86) identify the following as major problems with Curriculum 2005:

- While many educators and officials endorsed the underlying principles of learner participation, activity based education, emphasis on relevance, flexibility, anti-bias, inclusion, holistic development, critical thinking and integration few understood the hugely complicated system.
- There were structure and design flaws in the Curriculum 2005;
 - Everyone was floored by complex language and confusing terminology, meaningless jargon, vague and ambiguous language.
 - The curriculum was overcrowded i.e. it tried to cover too much.

- Sequence, pace and progression were not well designed.
 - There was little conceptual coherence, mainly because curriculum designers had attempted to avoid prescribing content.
 - There was no alignment between the curriculum and assessment policy, as well as a lack of clarity regarding assessment policy and practise.
- Teacher training in the new curriculum has been inadequate. Most of the training time had gone into explaining the complex vocabulary; and too little into the substance of OBE. Educators did not apply the principles of OBE in their own methodology.
 - Textbooks varied wildly in quality and were often unavailable. The quality was variable as a result of design flaws in Curriculum 2005 and unreliability of the evaluation process. There was overall low use of the learning materials for a variety of reasons. A follow-up support of educators by departmental officials was not sufficient.

2.6 ELEMENTS OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This framework was developed to guide the investigation of factors that affected the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy. These elements include policy content, context, commitment, capacity, and attitudes, support of clients and coalitions and curriculum.

2.6.1 Policy content

Policy content is one of the critical pillars on which policy implementation is based. It is generally regarded as a crucial factor in establishing the parameters and directives for implementation, although it does not determine the exact course of implementation (Brynard & De Coning, 2006). The content of policy includes what it sets out to do (objectives), how it relates to the problem to be solved (causal theory), and how it aims to solve the problem (methods) Brynard & De Coning, 2006). In top-down approaches to policy implementation, goal clarity is seen as an important variable that directly affects policy implementation. Matland (1995:175) states that “goal ambiguity is seen as leading to misunderstanding and uncertainty and often is culpable of implementing failure. Supporting this view, Gornitzka et al.

(2005) note that clear and unambiguous policy goals are easier to implement than a set of complex and contradictory goals.

Cerych and Sabatier (1986) begin with the premise that failure of policy is dependent on the extent of the changes required, and the clarity and consistency of policy goals. These authors argue that the more complex the changes required by policy are, the lower the degree of success of policy implementation. The emphasis on consistent policy objectives as a condition for effective implementation was criticized by scholars such as Elmore (1980) and McLaughlin (1998) who support a bottom-up approach to implementation. These scholars do not focus on policy objectives as prescribed by the government, but rather focus on policy objectives as constructed by local implementers through the bargaining and negotiation process, as well as the initiatives from these actors.

With regard to causal theory, several researchers argue that policies are sometimes ineffective, but not because they are badly implemented, but because they may be based upon an inadequate understanding of the problem, its causes and the possible solutions (Cerych & Sabatier, 1986; Hogwood and Gunn, 1984; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973; Sabatier, 1986; 2005). In other words if the theory underpinning the policy is fundamentally incorrect, the policy implementation will fail.

2.6.2 Commitment of implementers to the policy

Governments may have the most logical policy imaginable, the policy may pass cost/benefit analyses with honours, and it may have a bureaucratic structure that would do honour to Max Weber, but if those responsible for carrying it out are unable to do so, little will happen (Warwick, 1982:135. This sentiment, most often associated with bottom-up scholars, is in fact, also central to the top-down perspective- often under the title of ‘disposition’ (see Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Edwards, 1980; Mazmanian and Sabatier, 1983). While both consider the variable to be ‘critical’ to effective implementation a hard-line, top-down perspective would view implementer commitment being fashioned primarily by the content of the policy and its capacity (resource) provisions – both of which can supposedly be ‘controlled’ from the top. A fundamentalist bottom-up view, even while accepting the influence of content and capacity, would tend to view commitment as being influenced much more by the institutional context, and clients and coalitions (see especially Lipsky, 1980).

It is generally assumed that the most important factor in individual success is commitment. Commitment means pledging oneself to a certain purpose or line of action. Commitment, like all other abstract things, is subjective and very difficult to measure. However, there are indicators that show the level of commitment of an individual to a particular task. One indicator is fulfilling obligations and promises, especially when one knows what one's role and responsibilities are. (Stofile, 2008: 83).

Scholars who support both the top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation consider commitment to be crucial to effective implementation. These scholars argue that policy may be good, but if the implementers are unwilling to carry it out, implementation will not occur (Brynard & De Coning, 2006; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981; McLaughlin, 1987; 1998; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1974, Warwick, 1982). UNESCO's Global Monitoring Report (2005) also notes that government commitment and leadership is crucial for policy success. Brynard & De Coning (2006:199) reinforces the importance of the commitment factor in policy implementation and makes two propositions:

- First, commitment is important not only at the “street level” but all levels through which policy passes – in cases of international commitments, this includes the regime level, the street level, and all levels in between.
- Second, in keeping with a web-like conception of interlink ages between five variables, commitment will influence and be influenced by all four variables, content, capacity, context and clients and coalitions. Those interested in effective implementation cannot afford to ignore any of those linkages and are best advised to identify the ones most appropriate to “fix” particular implementation processes.

2.6.3 Support of clients and coalitions for implementation

As stated earlier, research highlights the importance of having coalitions of interest groups, leaders, and other actors outside the government, who support implementation. Elmore (1980), in particular, considers the formation of local coalitions of those affected by the policy to be one of the most crucial elements during implementation. The success or failure of policy depends on the support the policy generates among those who are affected (Brynard & De Coning, 2006; Maharaj, 2005). Christie (2008:149) states that though policy makers may prefer to

emphasise structural changes, they cannot side step human agency and its influence on policy outcomes.

Implementation scholarship, particularly of the bottom-up variety, has come to realize that the ultimate effectiveness of any implementation process depends equally on non state actors, particularly upon target groups to whom policy is being delivered-i.e., the clients. Stated most simply, clients can “speed, slow, stop or redirect implementation” (Warwick, 1982:163). However, clients are not the only nonstate actors who impact implementation. Coalitions of interest groups, opinion leaders, and other outside actors who actively support or oppose a particular implementation process can be equally influential. As Rein and Rabinovitz (1978:314) remind us, “a power shift among the different outside interest group produces a corresponding shift in the implementation process.” Taken together, the support of clients and outside coalitions is our final critical variable. In fact, Elmore (1979:610) considers the finding that implementation is affected, in some “critical sense”, by the formation of local coalitions of individuals affected by the policy as one of the most robust findings of implementation research.

2.6.4 Capacity to implement policy

On no other variable does the analytic literature on implementation seem as unanimous as on the issue of implementation capacity. It is, after all, intuitively obvious that a minimum condition for successful implementation is to have the requisite administrative ability....that is, the resources... that is, the capacity to implement it. (Najam, 1995:48-49). However, this simple articulation of the ‘capacity problem’ is deceptive. Indeed, administrative capacity is necessary for effective implementation. However, providing the necessary resources are nowhere a simple matter; in fact, merely knowing *what* the ‘necessary resources’ are can be non-trivial problem. (Najam, 1995:48-49). More importantly, it is a political, rather than a logistic, problem-like implementation itself. Resource provision deals with the question of ‘who gets what, when, how, where, and from whom’. The critical question then, in understanding how capacity may influence implementation effectiveness is not simply one of ‘what capacity is required, where?’ but also of ‘how this capacity can be created and operationalised?’(Najam, 1995:48-49).

Policy implementation studies have shown that the success of any public policy rests on the capacity to implement it (Fukuda-Parr, Lopez & Malik, 2002; Makoa, 2004; McLaughlin 1987). In the Botswana context, capacity is regarded as a strategic entry

point to the development and implementation of education policies. It is generally known that many development efforts have failed in many countries because they lack the ability to implement and sustain policies, and Botswana is no exception. One of the commonly cited reasons is lack of capacity to sustain development.

Capacity is generally defined as the ability to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve objectives (Fakuda-Parr, Lopez & Malik, 2002; McLaughlin, 1987; 1998). This concept is vague and means different things to different people. Some people assume a much narrower approach that does not go beyond individuals' abilities to perform certain functions, while others assume a broader and systematic approach. This systematic approach looks at the capacity of other subsystems as they interact with each other to produce outcomes. One such example is found in Brynard and De Coning (2006) who views capacity in terms of the general system's (structural, functional and cultural) ability to implement the policy objectives. Honadle (1981) views capacity as the ability to perform six tasks, namely; to anticipate and influence change, make informed decisions about policy, develop programmes, attract and absorb resources, manage resources and evaluate activities.

Willems and Baumert (2003), on the other hand pay attention to all the dimensions of institutional capacity. These dimensions include empowerment, social capital, an enabling environment, culture, values, and the way individuals and organisations interact in the public sector and within society as a whole. Willems and Baumert's capacity assessment frame work distinguishes between three levels of institutional capacity: micro level (individual); meso level (organisation) and macro level (broader context). The macro level is further divided into three distinct levels. These levels include: network of organisation, public governance and society, norms, values and practices.

Individual capacity

The capacity of individuals to perform their functions is the basis for the success of any action.

Organisational: management capacity

The performance of the organisation (the College in this instance) regarded as a key factor in the implementation of any policy. An individual's capacity can be undermined if the College as a collective does not have the capacity. However, performance of a College is dependent on setting of the country, represented by

national systems, while public governance and social norms, values and practices (Willems and Baumert, 2003). What makes an organisation to perform and function effectively therefore depends on its history and settings.

National System: Networking capacity

The ability to collaborate and network with many departments or directorates and organisations depends on the ability to manage issues horizontally across departments or directorates, and not just vertically within departments or directorates.

Public governance

The actions of individuals, organisations or networks of organisation are embedded in a wider institutional context, that is, the public sector setting as well as laws and regulations that exist in that country (Willems & Baumert, 2003). The overall effectiveness of the public sector in performing its function is the key to successful implementation of any policy, including the Botswana Technical Education Policy (Brynard & De Coning, 2006).

The way institutions take decisions on policy issues has major implications for governance. Political instability has been cited as one of the factors that make it difficult for sound policies to be implemented (Brynard & De Coning, 2006; Willems & Baumert, 2003). The second factor that is essential for good governance is the ability of groups and organisations to make their voice heard, monitor government's actions, and participate in the decision making process. The ability really depends on the availability of rights, media independence and the provision of transparent information regarding the reform.

2.6.5 Attitude of implementers towards the policy

Lessons from policy implementation research shows that the education system can provide good policy, education support and resources and build the capacity of participants to implement the policy, but if attitudes have not changed, the implementation will fail (McLaughlin, 1987; 1998). McLaughlin claims that success of any policy implementation depends on two broad factors: local capacity and will. She argues that training can be offered, consultants can be hired and funds can be made available, but if there is no willingness on the part of the implementers, implementation will not be successful.

Recent studies indicate that the success of outcomes-based education is dependent on teacher's attitudes towards the programme. Forlin, 2004 includes attitudes and beliefs of the school staff, students, parents and local community. She regards attitudes as one of the variables that impact on the school's effectiveness in implementing outcomes-based education practices. While the attitudes of the teachers, parents and learners are emphasised as critical in most research, it is argued that the attitudes and beliefs of principals towards a new programme is the key factor to successful implementation at school level (Hipp & Huffman, 2000; Praisner, 2003). According to Praisner, the leader of the school directly influences resource allocation, staffing, structures, information flows and the operating processes that determine what shall not be done by the organisation. Praisner (2003:3) further contends that leaders demonstrate their beliefs and priorities in the following way:

- How they make and honour commitments;
- What they say in formal and informal settings;
- What they express interest in and what questions they ask;
- Where they choose to go and with whom they spend time;
- How they organise their staff and their physical surrounding;

The question is: how can one determine whether the role players' attitudes are positive or not? It is generally accepted that the concept 'attitude' is a very complex phenomenon. It is complex in the sense that it is difficult to observe directly. One can only infer people's attitudes from their expressed view and from what they do. (Stofile, 2008). Attitudes are generally divided into three components: effective, cognitive and conative components. An attitude is therefore a combination of three conceptually distinguishable reactions to a certain object (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000).

Each of the above components would be examined in this study through listening to verbal statements of feelings, beliefs and intended behaviour of the Technical College lecturers.

2.6.6 Context of implementation

Researchers are in general agreement that policy implementation is affected by the context in which policies are implemented (Brynard & De Coning, 2006; Berman, 1978; Maharaj, 2005; O'Toole, 1986; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975; Warwick, 1982). Policies that work on one context may fail in another. (Gornitzka et al. 2005) also state that the socio-cultural, socio-economic and socio-political conditions of the implementing agency shape the outcomes of policy implementation.

Socio-economic factors affect policy initiatives in various ways. Communities in lesser developed countries are often characterised by poverty and development constraints. According to Cloete (2006), the development constraints influence public policy making negatively. A widespread lack of infrastructure and funds for development impedes the capacity of the system to achieve policy objectives. With regard to socio-political factors, Cloete (2006; 90) argues that:

Many of these policies are complex, requiring considerable changes in attitudes and behaviour. They are also aimed at depriving powerful interest groups of their privileges. As a result they are normally fiercely resisted by various vested interests and cannot be effectively implemented.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature that formed an integral part of the planning and execution of this research. In an attempt to understand the factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Educational Programme Policy two dominant approaches were explored, namely, top-down and bottom-up. Different frameworks that seek to synthesise these approaches were also examined. Information also reveals that failure of an education policy depends on those processes, structures, conditions and other mechanisms that need to be in place to promote the development of the policy. The conclusion that can be drawn is that policy implementation is a complex process and there are many factors that contribute or hinder effective implementation. The success or failure of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy depends on the interaction of both top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the research methodology used in this study. It begins with an introduction to the significance of research methodology. This is followed by a description of the research design, population, sampling and sample size and sampling process; it also involves a brief description of the research instruments used in this study. The validity and reliability of this investigation are described. Limitations of the study and ethical considerations are also discussed. The study employed the qualitative techniques. Though the study made use of documents it relied heavily on data from interviews with Technical College lecturers. The study is a process of reasoning which draws a general conclusion from a set of premises based on experience and empirical evidence (Strauss, 1989; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Cresswell, 1998).

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

By research methods, we mean the range of approaches used in educational research to gather data, which is to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation for explanation and prediction (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Mouly, 1978). Traditionally, the word refers to those techniques associated with the positivistic model of eliciting responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements, describing phenomena and performing experiments (Cohen & Manion, 1994:38). However, while the term methodology is sometimes applied to the methods and techniques used by social researchers, the methodological aspects of a study more accurately refers to the philosophy of science embedded both within these methods and within the researcher's approach to data collection and analysis (Pole and Lampard, 2002:290). To Kaplan (1973), research methodology, is used to describe and analyse the research processes, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentials twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. It is to venture generalizations from the success of particular techniques, suggesting new applications, unfolding the specific bearing of logical metaphysical principles on concrete problems, as well as suggesting new formulations.

Robertson (1987: 29-30) sees research methodology as a system of rules and principles that guide scientific investigation. Research methodology provides guidelines for collecting evidence about what takes place and for explaining why it takes place, and it does so in a way that enables other researchers to check the findings. In the words of Galtung (1977:13), research methodology is perceived as the organised method employed by a researcher towards the making and completion of a research goal. Generally, the method(s) used must be scientific and specific in relation to the questions and issues at hand, which should be straightforward and generalizable to the research, but relevant to other future researchers. The idea here is that research methodology establishes a form and relation towards making the research plan and contributing to the organized frame of a research goal. (Ololube, 2006:104).

On this basis, it might be inferred that the aim of the research methodology is to help us comprehend in the broadest term possible the process of a scientific inquiry as well as the product itself. Research methodology can be best perceived as the process of arriving at dependable solutions to the problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. It is the most important tool for advancing knowledge, promoting progress, and enabling man to relate more effectively to his environment, accomplish his purposes and resolve his conflicts. (Ololube, 2006:104)

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Most educational research methods are descriptive (Cohen & Manion, 1974). Descriptive research according to Best (1970) is the “conditions or relationship that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs, point of views, or attitudes that are held, processes that are going on; efforts that are felt; or trends that are developing. Sometimes, descriptive research is concerned with how what exists is related to some preceding event that has influenced or affected a present condition or event. The descriptive research method is primarily concerned with portraying the present. In fact, the descriptive research method in educational research is not exactly a method because many approaches of data collection are grouped together. However, they have one element in common - each endeavours to depict the present position of a given situation. The main difference between various types of descriptive research is in the process of description (Verma & Beard, 1981: 57).

Research design is often seen as a complex subject that only methodologists or statisticians can understand, according to Slavin (1984:4). Basically the research design should enable the researcher to state confidently that the hypothesis is true, or allow the researcher to arrive at

answers to the research question(s) as ambiguously as possible given limited resources. The selected design should also indicate that the answers were not limited to the particular group from whom the data were collected. A researcher should not allow the research methods to determine the questions, or follow research design formulas instead of thinking through what he or she is trying to learn. These factors impair the usefulness of research in informing us about the issues we want to understand. Slavin (1984:4) concludes by stating that “the best research design is one that will add to knowledge no matter what the results are”.

The key questions to be addressed when selecting the research design would be: “What type of study will be undertaken that will provide acceptable answers to the research problem or questions?” Or “What kind of evidence will be required to address the research question(s) adequately” (Babbie & Manion, 2001:75). The answers to these questions will indicate to the researcher the type of research design that should be selected.

The researcher wanted to determine the factors constraining the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy in the Technical Colleges in Botswana. For this study the researcher explored the way the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy is being implemented in the Technical Colleges to identify the constraints in implementing the policy. The selected research design had to provide answers to the research questions asked in Chapter 1.5 of this study.

3.4 METHODOLOGIES AND PROCESSES FOR DATA COLLECTION

Certain research strategies tend to be associated with the use of certain research methods. Sound theoretical reasons explain this tendency, according to Denscombe (1998:83). However, in practice the researcher always has a choice as to what methods are most appropriate for a particular study. The strategy itself influences the choice of method, but preferences about the kind of data that the researcher wishes to obtain and some practical considerations that relate to time, resources and access to the sources of data also play a role. Descombe (1998:83-84) argues that the four research methods - questionnaires, interviews, observation and documents – are often thought of as competing with each other. Although there are different in that each provides its own distinctive perspective and suits some situations better than others, they can be used to complement one another. Each of these methods approaches the collection of data with a certain set of assumptions and each produces a kind of data that has inherent strengths and weaknesses in relation to the aims of the particular research. Different methods can also be used to collect data on the same aspect, each looking at it from a different perspective. Descombe (1998: 84) refers to this as using a

multi-method approach, with the obvious benefit that it will involve more data, and in so doing improve the quality of the research. Furthermore, research findings can be corroborated by comparing the data produced by different methods. This will enhance the validity of the data and confirm that the findings are not specific to a particular method. The process is often referred to as triangulation. (Denzin, 1978 in Mouton, 1996:156).

For the purposes of this study the researcher adopted a multi-method approach to collect data. The methods used for data collection were semi-structured interviews and document analysis.

3.5 RESEARCH POPULATION

In a more general sense, a research population includes all the members or elements, be they human beings, animals, trees, objects, events, etc, of a well-defined group. It defines the limits within which research findings are applicable. In other words, it should be defined in such a way that the result of investigation is generalizable unto it. A research population is categorised into target and accessible population is looked at in terms of those elements in the target population within the reach of the researcher (Pole & Lampard, 2002).

The research population for this study is drawn from four Technical College lecturers in Botswana. These are Maun, Palapye, Selebi-Phikwe and Francistown Technical Colleges. Owing to vast distances between the various Technical Colleges in Botswana and financial impacts, the other four Technical Colleges were not considered as part of the study. Lecturers are programme implementers and therefore better placed to provide information about their experiences, requirements and failures with regard to implementation of the BTEP policy. Twelve (12) Technical College lecturers participated in the study.

3.5.1 Data Collection

There are two main sources of data collection in educational research; primary and secondary sources. This study used information from both primary and secondary sources. A primary source is an original document or account that is not about another document but stands on its own. For example, interviews which come straight from participants' replies. Primary sources enable a researcher to get as close as possible to what actually happened during a historical event or period. (Ololube, 2006:115). Secondary sources are those that do not have a direct physical relationship with the event being studied, which are made up of information that cannot be described as being an original source data. A secondary source data would thus be one in which the person describing the event was not actually present but who

obtained description from another person or source such as textbooks, quoted materials, and so on. Best (1970) pointed out that secondary sources of data are usually of limited worth because of the errors that result when information is passed on from one person to another. Nevertheless, secondary sources of data are still very relevant in educational research. Cohen and Manion (1994) opined that the value of secondary sources should not be minimised. There are numerous occasions where a secondary source can contribute significantly to more valid and reliable sources than would otherwise be the case because education is primarily concerned with the individual's physical, social, intellectual and emotional growth, in which developmental studies continue to occupy a central place in the methodologies used by educational researchers. Interviews and documents were the ways through which data was gathered for this study.

3.5.2 Interviews as qualitative data gathering

Conducting interviews has been important in order to determine educators' in-depth views regarding their experience in implementing the New Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy. Tuckman (1994:366) argues that events cannot be understood unless one understands how these events are perceived and interpreted by people who participate in them. The lecturers in Technical Colleges are busy with the new Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy implementation, thus it is important to gather information regarding their views in implementing the new BTEP policy particularly the constraints they have experienced in implementing the policy. Tuckman (1994:372) states that one way to find out about a phenomenon is to ask questions of the people who are involved in it in some particular way. This has led to semi-structured interviews as one of the data collection strategies to be followed during this study. Interviews were important because each educator's answers reflected his or her views about the implementation of the new Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy.

Patton (1990:270) writes, 'the purpose of interview is to find out what is in or on someone's mind.' Patton (1990) argues that people are interviewed in order to determine from them those things which cannot be directly observed as everything cannot be observed. In this study Technical College lecturers' opinions have been probed during the interviews. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:267) maintain that interviews enable participants (interviewer and interviewee) to discuss their view of the world in which they live and how they regard situations from their own point of

view. Whatever the lecturers think about the implementation of the new Botswana Technical education programme can be determined by the answers provided by the lecturers during interviews.

3.5.3 Semi-structured interviews

The study used an interview schedule that was semi-structured. Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to follow up ideas, to probe responses and investigate motives and feelings (Bell, 1987). According to Greef (2005), semi-structured interviewing is more appropriate when one is particularly interested in pursuing a specific issue. In this study, semi-structured interviews were considered to be appropriate in eliciting specific information about policy implementation. (See Appendix C) for the interview schedule. Informal interview would not have been appropriate as the study had pre-determined research questions. The structured interview would equally not have been appropriate because it has closed questions, which do not allow the interviewer to pursue issues that were not anticipated when the interview schedule was drawn (Patton, 2002).

The interview guide was divided into two parts. The first part of the interview was to obtain background profile of the participants, that is; their age, qualifications, where they obtained their vocational training qualifications, teaching experience and area of specialisation. The second part formed the core of the interview guided by questions that allowed probing and prompting.

Interviews were planned in such a way that they would not interfere with normal College activities. The interviews were scheduled to last forty-five minutes to one hour in a convenient and peaceful atmosphere in the respective Technical Colleges, the interviewer's hotel or interviewee's place of choice. However the interviews lasted longer than the planned schedule. After the interviewee had given consent to be interviewed, the researcher briefly introduced herself and gave the interviewees the aims of the investigation. In the introduction the interviewer encouraged the interviewees to give their opinions freely. They were also told that the information collected was strictly confidential and private. Prior to the visits, the researcher had sent letters to the sampled Technical Colleges and various participants as identified by the Deputy Principals. The letters detailed the researcher's reasons and the basis for the research as well the guidelines for conducting of the interviews. However despite the effort that the researcher took beforehand to inform the participants regarding the research purpose some participants were hesitant to participate in the

interview process as well as suspicious of the researcher's intentions. Some expressed their hesitancy and discomfort to participate in the study. They feared that the information might be used against them in future. The researcher eventually managed to convince them to participate in the study without fear of being prejudiced. She explained the importance and implications of the research effort as well as informed them about the importance of research to national development as well to their career development. Despite the effort that the researcher put in preparation for the research interviews she was however astonished at the difficulties and challenges that she encountered in the process. This did not however deter the researcher neither allow the challenges to discourage her and instead made every effort possible to explicitly discuss any doubt or questions expressed by the interviewees. The researcher tried tirelessly and reassured them of confidentiality. Despite the progress made by the researcher in this endeavour she still felt that she was being regarded as a stranger and that they observed her as much as she did them. Some interviewees even cross-examined the researcher to determine whether she was actually conversant with the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy which she however established and eventually managed to convince them.

A tape recorder was used during the interviews so that all the information that the educators supplied could be captured. After the information was captured through the tapes it was transcribed into text so that it could be analysed with ease. Prior to use of the tape recorder in the interviews permission was asked from participants. It was deemed important for the participants to know why a tape recorder was used. After the actual interviews, some of the interviewees made separate appointments with the researcher on her way out to discuss some personal and pressing issues regarding the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme. Overall the interviews lasted for two weeks.

3.5.4 Document Analysis

Document analysis is generally described as an analysis of written materials that contains information about the topic under investigation (Strydom & Delport, 2005). There are distinctions between different types of documents. Documents are classified into primary and secondary sources (Strydom & Delport, 2005). Primary sources are regarded as the original written materials, while secondary sources are those materials that are derived from someone else's interpretation of primary sources. These include personal documents, official documents, mass media and archival material.

The official documents that were relevant for the purpose of this study were selected and carefully studied. The documents provided a framework in which to understand the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education policy in the Technical Colleges. Research reports are also classified as secondary sources (Mouton, 2001; Neuman, 2003, Strydom & Delport, 2005). Secondary analysis is described as the re-analysis of the existing data by another researcher with a different aim from that of primary analysis (Babbie, 2001, Mouton, 2001; Neuman, 2003, Strydom & Delport, 2005). In this study both primary and secondary sources were used. The use of both primary and secondary sources enabled triangulation of findings. The QAA implementation policies provided background information relating to the Botswana Technical Education Programme policy and the implementation in the Technical Colleges. The Implementation of BTEP in Technical Colleges, realities and implications report was also studied to gain information about the implementation failures, as well as factors that affected implementation during the initial implementation stage.

Lastly the interviewees were asked to provide the researcher with the documents that they use to keep records of their classroom activities. A review of such documents helped the researcher to establish whether the lecturers follow the BTEP premises and principles during the lectures. Document analysis was further on used to determine how understanding of the premises and principles, and policies in BTEP has influenced the actual classroom practices. The way they record information could reveal whether they understand BTEP or not. These documents included teaching files, assessment files, evidence files and student portfolios.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1995:85), researcher supplement participant observation, interviewing and observation with gathering of documents produced in the course of everyday events.

3.5.5 Triangulation of data

In the final phase of the research process, the data that came from semi-structured interviews and document analysis were combined in order to present coherent findings. Various authors have advanced reasons for the need to triangulate sources of data in research. As Patton (1990:244) points out “multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective.” Gorard and Taylor (2004) state that triangulation enhances the trustworthiness of the analysis. According to Maharaj (2005), using a

combination of sources increases validity as the strength of one approach can compensate for the weakness of another approach. Merriam (1998) claims that using multiple sources of data or multiple methods to confirm emerging findings is important.

In this study, it was important to understand the perspectives of those involved in the Botswana Technical Education Policy implementation in their context, and present a holistic interpretation of what occurred, to construct a plausible explanation about factors that affected negatively on the implementation of the BTEP policy. The use of multiple sources of information was deemed necessary as it could serve to validate and cross-check findings.

3.6 SAMPLING

Sampling involves decisions about which people, settings, events, behaviours or social processes should be used as data sources (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 1999:45). This section aims to explain the decisions that were made during the sampling process.

Purposive sampling was used to select the lecturers because the interviewees were selected on the basis of some defining characteristic that made them holders of the data needed for the study. The most important reason for the preferred sample was that the lecturers in question had an opportunity to implement the BTEP policy and as a result were better placed to provide information about their experiences in regard to the challenges that they encountered during the policy implementation. Sampling decisions were therefore made for the explicit purpose of obtaining the richest possible source of information to cover the research questions. The other reason for inclusion was the experience with which the Technical College lecturers had in teaching the old teacher centred programmes. Lecturers with experience in teaching both the learner centred and teacher centred programmes are better placed to make a comparative assessment of the various policies. Twelve (12) lecturers from the different areas of BTEP programs were interviewed. In order to make the study manageable, the researcher decided to select three lecturers from each College. The researcher took a sample that is representative of all BTE programmes on offer in each College. The selected sample enabled me to make generalisations about the Technical Colleges' lecturer population in Botswana. The choice of lecturers for the interview was done in conjunction with the Deputy Principals of the Technical Colleges. A minimum sample size per College was decided upon with emphasis on having each college represented in each sample so that findings could be generalised.

An advantage of purposive sampling is that it is informative. It allows the researcher to focus on people who are knowledgeable regarding certain aspects of the research (Descombe, 1998:15). However, a researcher needs to be aware of assumptions that accompany non-probability sampling. For, instance, there is no indication that the participants who are included in the sample are representative of the overall population (Descombe, 1998:12) and therefore non-probability sampling often leads to non-representative samples (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:92). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:45) argues that instead of insisting on representative sampling, researchers should ensure that their findings are transferable to other contexts or groups similar to those being studied.

Because purposive sampling relies more heavily on the subjective judgements of the researcher regarding the sample than on objective criteria, sampling error and bias have to be addressed (Blaikie, 2000; 205; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:92). Yet thinking critically about the parameters of the population in which one is interested and choosing the sample carefully on this basis can address sampling error and bias. Silverman (2000:105) reiterates that sampling in qualitative research is neither statistical nor purely personal. It is, or should be, theoretically grounded.

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:381) assert that sampling has to take place until saturation has been reached. Saturation occurs when new information no longer challenges or adds to the emerging interpretative account, when no relevant new information emerges, when category development is dense and rich, when relations among categories are well established and validated and when there is a sense that the theoretical account is nearing a complete and adequate form. (Terre Blanche, 1999:381).

In support of purposive sampling Richards and Morse (2007:195) are of the opinion that rather than employing random sampling, qualitative researchers seek valid representation with sampling techniques such as purposive sampling, in which the researcher selects participants because of their characteristics". Good informants are those who know the information required, are willing to reflect on the phenomenon of interest, have the time, and are willing to participate (Henning, 2004). All the participants were "information-rich informants" as far as answering the research question was concerned (Mc Millan and Schumacher, 2001:433).

3.7 SAMPLING PROCESS

Since the study was aimed at investigating lecturers' views about the BTEP Policy constraints the lecturers were the principle sources of data. Brown and Dowling (1998) point out that, it is critical to have participants who are willing to participate so that they can give accurate responses. Thus on the 1th of June 2012 a letter was sent to the four Technical Colleges requesting permission to carry out the research at the respective Colleges. The letters were addressed for the attention of the Deputy Principal - Curriculum. (See Appendix A).

Lecturers were selected for the study based on the following criteria:

- Firstly they needed to have different qualification profiles, that is, the group comprised lecturers with a range of teaching qualifications, ranging from one year vocational teaching certificate, two-year vocational teaching diploma to bachelors' and honours' degrees in education.
- Secondly, they needed to have different levels of teaching experience, ranging from 2 to 3 years.
- Lastly the lecturers were required to have some experience in lecturing the new BTE programme as well as the old teacher centred programs.

It was important to attend to ethical issues as a way of ensuring rights to free involvement. It was very crucial to uphold the rights of the participants and the researcher had to avoid being caught up in "moral predicaments, which may appear quite irresolvable" (Cohen & Manion; 2000;49). After the researcher had met the Deputy Principals at all the four Technical Colleges, the researcher was immediately introduced to the Heads of Departments (Programme Team Leaders). The Heads of Departments then introduced the researcher to the lecturers that had been identified as suitable participants. The Heads of Departments worked with the lecturers and were thus best placed to select the lecturers with the required experience necessary for the research. The researcher also introduced herself in detail to the lecturers that is who she was, the purpose of her study and what would happen to the data. She further on explained that she wished to work with lecturers who have been implementing BTEP for at least two to three year cycle as well as had experience in implementing the old non-BTEP (teacher centred) programs. Lecturer participants had already been promised absolute confidentiality in writing prior to the researcher's visit. This was in regard to any information that they would provide. The participants were also informed of their right to decline; and the researcher further on explained that their participation was voluntary and based on professional trust. As practising lecturers, participants were informed that they would benefit from the study because it would help them reflect on their practice as well as

enhance their professional growth. Finally the consent of the lecturer participants was once again obtained verbally. The letters sent to the participants prior to the researcher's visit also explained that the anonymity of Colleges and lecturers was going to be ensured through the use of fictitious names.

3.8 VALIDITY

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:407), 'validity addresses the following questions: Do the researchers actually observe what they think they observe? Do the researchers actually observe what they observe? Do researchers actually hear the meaning that they think they hear?' They argue that validity of qualitative designs is the degree, to which the interpretation and concepts have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher, (ibid: 407). When designing the instrument for qualitative data collection, the researcher should ensure that what he/she wishes to observe is clearly understood. The researcher should also ensure that the questions prepared are clearly understood so that participants give him/her information that is relevant in the investigation. (Ramoroka, 2007: 65).

The instruments used in this research were valid because the researcher has taken time to comply with the formalities and procedures adopted in framing the research questions (see Nworgu, 1991.pp. 93-94). Firstly to validate the instrument the research questions were given to the researcher's supervisor who read through and advised appropriately. Secondly the research instrument was pretested and the responses from the respondents were used to improve on the items.

Lastly to ensure common understanding of words used in the instrument content validity had to be addressed in this study. Multi method strategies have been followed to enhance validity. McMillan and Schumacher (2001 :) argue that most interactive researchers employ several data collection techniques in a study, but usually select one as the central method. In this investigation semi-structured interviews has been the central technique used. Document analyses have been followed to supplement the interviews.

Time and venue had to be convenient for the interviewer and interviewees in order to avoid disturbances during the interview process as well as minimise the lecturers 'timetable schedules. The use of a tape recorder allowed the interview process to proceed without having to ask the respondents to repeat any information and to ensure that no information was lost.

3.9 RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY

The quality of a research is necessarily dependent on the consistency with which the observations are made. Consistency in turn is dependent on the precision with which an observable is specified (Keeve, 1997:281). Kerlinger (1973:442) is of the view that words that are synonyms for reliability are: dependability, stability, consistency, predictability and accuracy. He defines reliability in three different ways. One approach is epitomized by the question: If we measure the same set of objects repeatedly with the same or comparable measuring instrument, will we get the same or similar results? This question implies a definition of reliability in stability, dependability, and predictability terms. This is the definition most often given in elementary discussions of the subject. A second approach is epitomised by the research question: Are the measures obtained from a measuring instrument the “true” measures of property measured. This is an accurate definition compared to the first definition, it is removed from common sense intuition, but it is also more fundamental. These two approaches or definitions can be summarised in the words stability and accuracy. The third approach to the definition of reliability is that it is an approach that not only helps us better define and solve both theoretical and practical problems, but also implies other approaches and definitions like “errors of measurement”. Reliability by definition refers to the level of the internal consistency or stability of the measuring devices over time. It concerns the consistency with which an instrument measures whatever it measures. In addition, reliability can be defined as the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument. (Ololube, 2006:112). The strength of the instrument used in this study was reliable because it was able to elicit the required information in regard to the lecturers’ views on BTEP constraints in the Technical Colleges.

There is a close relationship as well as a certain tension, between reliability and validity. Often researchers face a trade-off between validity and reliability (Babbie, 1992:133). Unfortunately, reliability drops as validity increases (Silverman, 2000:10). Yet, the key validity criterion for data collection is reliability, which is a precondition for measurement validity (Mouton, 1996:144). An instrument with very high reliability is useless if it has poor validity (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:131).

In order to test the trustworthiness of the data in this study, the following questions were addressed throughout the study:

- Have the data been adequately checked with their own sources?

- Has there been sufficient triangulation or raw data leading to analytical statements?

3.10 ETHICAL MEASURES

Every research process includes an element of responsibility. The researcher has a responsibility towards the people participating in the research, and the people who will read and be influenced by the report of the results of the study. These individuals have a right to expect honesty and respect from the researcher, and the researcher must undertake to behave ethically throughout the research towards the people who may be affected by the research (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003:59).

Ethical issues related to research can arise and must be considered at every stage of the research activity, according to Thyer, in Gravetter and Forzano (2003:66). Some issues may emerge when the research question is formulated, others while the research is conducted (Gravetter & Farzano), while others may emerge at the conclusion of the study, particularly relating to data analysis and the reporting of the results. Thyer in Gravetter and Forzano (2003:66) argues that researchers should always be knowledgeable about the following:

- The formulation of research questions. Will the results generate information that will enhance the topic?
- Sample selection. The sample drawn must represent the entire population that the research is aimed at.
- Informed consent. The human participants must be given complete information about the research and their roles in it, and voluntarily decide to participate.
- Institutional review. The researcher should ensure that the authorities concerned with the institutions or individuals give consent for the research to be conducted.

Ethical concerns have long revolved around informed consent, right to privacy and protection from harm, according to Fontana and Frey (in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000:662). These are still the major considerations, but the particular method used to collect data has introduced further concerns.

The researcher has to take extreme care to protect the interviewees. It is important that issues that will be observed and reported on should be discussed with the respondents in advance.

Reports should be truthful and reveal the data that was actually observed. Targeted persons should receive drafts revealing how they are presented, quoted and interpreted.

Ethical issues were considered from the start to the end of this study. The principles guiding the study were namely: voluntary participation, an informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity.

Voluntary participation and informed consent

It is an ethical norm in social research that no one be forced to participate in any research attempt. Before the interview I sought consent from the College Principal (see appendix A) and asked the lecturers from all the four Technical Colleges knowledgeable on the topic to participate. The letters requested their assistance with the research. This was done through the Deputy Principals of the respective Colleges. The lecturers were not coerced to participate in the study. Each participant was informed of the purpose of the study, the time required for participation, and was assured of anonymity and confidentiality. This manner of informing participants was done to encourage the participants to participate in the study freely.

Anonymity

A respondent may be considered anonymous when the research report does not reveal the identity of the respondent. The participants were duly assured that their views and opinions regarding the constraints in implementation of the BTEP policy as given freely in interviews would not be identified by anyone else (see appendix A and B), neither would their names and the College names be mentioned in the research report. This was in keeping with a strong feeling among field workers that settings and participants should not be identifiable in print (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:339). I thus used code names for all the participants, the lecturers and the Colleges in this regard.

Confidentiality

The researcher assured the participants that their views, responses and opinions would be treated in the strictest confidence, which would not be violated and the names of the participants who gave their views or opinions would not be mentioned.

3.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher had initially intended to involve all the eight Technical Colleges since they all participated in the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education policy. However owing to time and financial constraints this was not possible. The vast distance between the various Technical Colleges was another impediment. It was also impossible to interview the students who had gone through the Botswana Technical Education Programme because most of them no longer attended the Colleges and it would have been expensive to trace them. This is considered to be a limitation because learners' experiences of BTEP could therefore not be obtained. Further on the researcher could not observe classroom settings due to time and financial constraints. Thus data mostly relied on information sourced from the interviews with lecturers but this does not reflect what actually happens in the class rooms because observations of the real classroom settings was not be possible. Also, parents (caregivers) were unable to participate because of work-related problems as well as the researcher's problem of time and financial constraints. These parents could have shed light on issues pertaining to the problems associated with the implementation of BTEP.

Unavailability of literature review on BTEP policy implementation on the Botswana context was another limitation. Literature based on studies from other countries, might not reflect a true picture of what is happening in the Technical Colleges in Botswana because success in policy implementation depends on conditions of the country and various circumstances.

3.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter has described the research design, the research methodology, population, and sampling used in the study. A description of data collection procedures and triangulation was then provided. Issues of validity and reliability were also discussed and a brief discussion of ethics was presented. Chapter four presents analysis of the data.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND DESCRIPTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study explored the perspectives of various participants on factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy. Qualitative methodology was used to explore such perspectives. This chapter presents the findings as well as the description of the data collected in the study, drawing together the perspectives of the different participants as well as findings from the documentary analysis. The data are presented in two sections: The documentary analysis and the interview analysis.

4.2 BTEP DOCUMENTATION AND RECORD KEEPING

The documentation reveals that efficient record keeping is essential for the effective delivering of BTEP. A centre, as the Colleges are referred to in BTEP terms receive and generate a lot of documentary evidence related to candidates and the various roles and responsibilities of officers involved in BTEP. For accountability it is therefore essential that a centre keeps up -to- date records for verification and auditing purposes. Centres (Colleges) need to ensure that agreed, comprehensive and manageable record systems in their centres promote transparency for users, enable learners to track their progress and give status to relevant documentation in the eyes of the users.

Though there are prescribed and recommended documents that a centre should maintain for effective implementation of BTEP a centre is not limited to such documents. A centre may identify other documents to solve particular problems depending on their contextual situations. However such documents should only be implemented if agreed as necessary, unique, useful and above all manageable.

BTEP entails a rigorous assessment system with three layers of checks namely: assessment, internal verification and external verification which are intended to ensure that standards are applied consistently and maintained. The assessment and internal verification processes are carried out by the centre while the external verification process is carried out by the Quality Assurance and Assessment Unit.

Currently, BTEP qualifications use both internal and external modes of assessment. Centres carry out internal assessment of component units, and external assessment and grading are based on projects, which require candidates to integrate knowledge, understanding and skills from a number of key skills and vocational units. Completion of a project is a mandatory requirement for all qualifications. The projects are designed to prepare candidates for future employment and more advanced study and are based on realistic problem-solving situations.

BTEP Document analysis also reveals that there are important stakeholders which have enabled the implementation of the BTEP policy. The important stakeholders and their functions shall be briefly explained below:

4.3 QUALITY ASSURANCE AUTHORITY (QAA)

The Quality Assurance and Assessment Unit is a unit of the Ministry of Education. It is mandated to manage the quality assurance and assessment and certification of all BTEP qualifications and to carry out other awarding body functions of the Ministry of Education. The functions of the QAA Unit are to: Carry out validation of BTEP qualifications, approve centres to offer BTEP qualifications, register and enrol candidates, arrange for and administer external assessment of candidates, monitor internal assessment through external verification, certificate candidates, and support centres in all aspects of assessment and monitor quality assurance elements.

4.4 PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY UNIT (PDD)

The Programme Development and delivery unit (PDD) is responsible for development of the various BTEP units in accordance with market demands. It is a unit in the Department of Vocational Education and Training which employs subject specialists whose mandate is to develop the units and the assessment instruments for the various BTEP programmes. In addition to BTEP curriculum development the unit is also responsible for BTEP curriculum evaluation, reform and review.

4.5 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

The introduction of BTEP necessitated the drafting of new policies to guide the implementation process. It is important to view implementation in the context of these policies in order for BTEP implementation to be effective. In that regard six Quality Assurance Policies were carefully studied with the research questions guiding the analysis. The importance of studying these policies was to determine the strategic objectives of the BTEP and to gain a better understanding of the context of its implementation.

The quality assurance policies that were used for analysing the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy were as follows: the validation of BTEP qualification policy, which ensures that BTEP qualifications are fit for the purpose for which they were designed. Approval of BTEP qualification policy, which ensures that centres have management structures, quality assurance systems and resources to support both staff and candidates. Internal verification and assessment policy, which ensures that internal assessment in the Colleges, is valid, reliable, practicable and cost effective. External verification policy which details the external verification process of BTEP by the QAA Unit. It also ensures that assessment is in line with the national standards. Monitoring of quality assurance policy which relates to the processes used by QAA Unit to periodically measure the success of the other elements in supporting the application of national standards regarding BTEP.

4.5.1 The Lecturers' documents

In addition to the above documentation, the lecturers' records were also analysed. All the lecturers who deliver the BTE programme keep candidates evidence files. The following documents should be completed and placed at the beginning of each evidence file: Result 1, Assessment record sheet, Blank Instruments of assessment used, Marking guidelines, Assessor sample guidelines (if any) and Candidates evidence arranged in candidate number order. The following documents are also kept, attendance registers, schemes of work, lesson plans/learning session plan, teaching material and/or facilitator packs, programme tracking sheets, assessment record sheets. On-going records indicating achievement should be maintained by the assessor for purposes of recording the final assessment decision on Result 1 at the end of the Unit.

Evidence to meet the BTEP evidence requirements may involve a combination of portfolios and NABS. A portfolio is a collection of evidence that demonstrates that a candidate meets the evidence requirements in the unit specification. For the portfolios evidence is generated mainly through assignments and activities designed

by the programme team. Candidates are required to present their evidence in the form of a clearly indexed portfolio for assessment and verification. Candidates will also be able to use the portfolio to demonstrate the quality of their work to employees and higher education providers.

The quality assurance policies and the lecturers' documentation indicates that measures were put in place to support the efficient implementation of the BTEP policy in the Technical Colleges by offering support to both lecturers and candidates. On the other hand the Implementation of BTEP in Technical Colleges realities and Implications report reveals that some Colleges had difficulties in meeting the requirements of BTEP approval. The report further claims that Colleges had difficulties in preparing proposals especially because there was very little support from the subject specialists from the Programme Development Division (PDD) at DTVET. According to the report there was no clarity of approval requirements detailing what the Colleges needed to put in place before they could be approved as a BTEP centre. The report also revealed that induction training that was done was limited to administrative matters and assessment processes.

It seems therefore that though the document analysis indicates that the policy developers and policy implementers had the same objective of making the policy a success there was disparity between the policy theory and what happens in practice. The data also shows that the colleges' objectives were framed by their contextual factors and were geared towards responding to Colleges' priorities.

4.6 INTERVIEW FINDINGS

4.6.1 Background Information

The populace of the sampled Colleges have different socio-economic background. These Colleges though in different socio-economic contexts were typical of public Technical Colleges in the country in their setting, structure, staffing and student intake. They were not "markedly dissimilar" from other government Technical Colleges in the country in terms of student culture considering that the students in the various Technical Colleges come from different socio-economic contexts. Wolcott (1973) argues that in a study, the typicality of the phenomenon under study or the extent to which it may be compared and contrasted along relevant dimensions with other phenomena in the same class increases the external validity of findings.

Based on the information obtained from the interviews, all participants are qualified to deliver BTEP subjects in their various programmes. Most of the participants noted that they have a minimum professional qualification of diploma in their respective fields as well as vocational training qualifications. Most lecturers that were interviewed received their teacher training at either Botswana Polytechnic or Francistown College of Technical & Vocational Education (FCTVE). The research revealed that most of the Colleges' pioneers who were interviewed were trained at the Botswana Polytechnic in contrast to the lecturers who had joined the Colleges in recent years and did their vocational teacher training at FCTVE. The lecturers who did their teacher training at The Botswana Polytechnic received their training in the traditional mode of teaching (teacher centred). On the other hand, the lecturers who obtained their teacher training at FCTVE received their training in the outcomes-based mode of teaching (learner centred). Vocational Teacher training has long been phased out at the Botswana Polytechnic and FCTVE is now the only Vocational Teacher Training College in the country. Polytechnic offered a one year Vocational Teacher training certificate course and FCTVE also offers a one year certificate course and an eighteen months diploma in Vocational education and training. There are however a few lecturers in the Technical Colleges who hold Bachelor of Education degrees obtained from other local and foreign institutions. Five participants registered that they have been teaching at the Technical Colleges for less than four years while the rest have been teaching at the Technical Colleges for more than five years.

Technical Colleges are government owned institutions. These colleges admit students who have completed (successfully or unsuccessfully) a three year junior certificate in secondary education or a five year Botswana Government Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE). All Technical Colleges are co-educational (males and female students are taught together).

BTEP comprises four levels; foundation, Certificate, advanced certificate and diploma. The foundation level which admits candidates with a pass at Junior Certificate or equivalent focuses on development of basic knowledge and skills to prepare the candidates for certificate level training. The certificate programme admits candidates with a pass at Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE) or an equivalent qualification, in relevant subject areas. The candidates should meet the assessment and verification requirements of the certificate programme to progress to the advanced certificate level. Successful completion of the advanced certificate programme will allow progression to the diploma level. The

age range of students is eighteen (18) to thirty (30) years of age. Apart from the new BTE programmes the Colleges still offer the old teacher centred programs. These are National Craft Certificate (apprenticeship programs) and the Accounting, Business and Computing programs.

Each BTE programme at Foundation and Certificate level must have a total of 22 credits; with a total of 12 Vocational Unit Credits at each level as follows:

Credits	Foundation	Certificate
Key Skills	7	7
Mandatory Vocational	Min:6/Max: 8	Min:6/Max:8
Elective Vocational	Min:4/Max:6	Mn:4/Max:6
Work Experience	1	1
Integrated Assessment	2	2
TOTAL	22	22

Adapted from the qualifications Blue Print (2004)

Each BTE programme at Advanced Certificate and Diploma must have a total of 25 and 41 credits respectively according to the following Credit Profile.

Credits	Advanced Certificate	Diploma
Key Skills	8	8
Mandatory Vocational	Min:6	Min:12
Elective Vocational	Max:6	Max:12
Integrated Assessment – Externally Marked and Graded	2	4
Work Experience	1	1
Work Placement – Project Based Integrated Assessment	2 Credits – 3 months	4 Credits – 6 months
TOTAL	25	41

Adapted from the qualifications blue print (2004)

Colleges Profiles

College Name (pseudonym)	Total number of students	Number of Lecturers including the College Principal	Vocational Teaching Qualifications		
			Botswana Polytechnic	FCTVE	Teaching Qualifications Other institutions
A	600	84	47	24	13
B	558	81	44	21	16
C	500	82	53	17	12
D	450	79	43	26	9

The study has however revealed that some lecturers delivering BTEP need to develop themselves within their professions. This was particularly noted by Information and Technology lecturer participants as follows:

“Information Technology is dynamic, and changes every day hence we should try to keep pace with the change. We are however never sent for refresher courses to keep up with changing technology; hence we are always left behind. We end up failing to deliver the programme as prescribed by the unit specifications”. (College D).

The majority of ICT lecturers further on noted that due to the dynamic nature of ICT the BTEP ICT programme is validated after every three years to keep up with changing Technology and this calls for regular refresher courses on the part of the ICT lecturers. Such refresher courses can equip them to deal with issues of the ever changing unit specifications.

4.7 PERCEIVED SUCCESSES OF BTEP POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

4.7.1 Commitment of participants

Findings indicate that commitment was a central factor in implementing BTEP policy in the Technical Colleges. At the different Colleges the lecturers explained that their participation in implementing the BTEP policy was enabled by the College Management teams who were committed to the implementation of the policy.

College management teams were convinced that the policy was the answer to the problem of underutilisation in the Technical Colleges. The underutilization which was as a result of the uptake of the Apprenticeship scheme. Technical Colleges were under pressure to deliver because there were expected to meet the Ministry of Education and key Skills Development objective of increasing access in their respective Institutions.

It came out strongly in the findings that institutions were ill resources for the effective implementation of the policy. Staff mentioned issues such as shortage of textbooks, internet access, and notional time for the individual units as well as training materials as some of the pertinent issues. These problems were further compounded by the complicated government procurement procedures. Though these conditions could have forced them to abandon the policy Colleges felt that they owed it to their local communities and students not to give up at that point. Some participants explained that they were also discouraged by the fact that the Colleges which were initially earmarked to pilot the policy never released a report detailing the successes or failures that they had encountered during the pilot project. The programme was rolled out to the other Colleges before the pilot report was released. As one lecturer noted:

“We had already worked very hard preparing the learning units and the materials. We were not just about to give up everything; we really wanted to prove ourselves. I think each College wanted to make a mark as the College that implemented BTEP better than the other Colleges” but hey those people at DTNET, it seems as if they lost interest soon after they had imposed the policy on us. Maybe they realised too soon too late that BTEP was not going to work after all but had no option but to abandon it with us”. (College B)

4.7.2 Teamwork

The research revealed that team work was a very important factor in the implementation of BTEP. Most participants claimed that during BTEP implementation there was teamwork in the Colleges. They indicated that the nature of the policy compelled them to work as teams. Teamwork was essential in the implementation of BTEP because it was vital in problem-solving, sharing ideas, experiences and knowledge pertaining to BTEP. The participants also registered that team work relieved them of the anxiety they experienced during the implementation of the new policy. As one participant noted:

“Teamwork was a must; BTEP prescribes teamwork because there is no way that you can complete a learning unit without other people’s input. As an assessor, you are going to need an internal verifier to verify your work and before you submit your file for external verification you will further on need other people to audit the file. As you can see it’s a network of people and you need to forge good working relationships with such people.”(College A).

Interestingly there were a few participants who revealed that despite BTEP prescribing team work as the key lever it was still difficult to work in teams in certain departments. This resulted in such departments taking longer to implement the policy or completely abandoning it in favour of the older educational policies. Two participants made the following claims:

“It was difficult to work in teams with the kind of people we have here. We would meet for programme team meetings and I tell you we would never agree on anything, from who will facilitate and assess a particular unit to who will internal verify it. So and so did not want to work with so and so for various reasons. I even remember some people walking out of the programme Team meetings and vowing that they would never embark on something that compels them to work with the calibre of people in their departments. Some even declared that they preferred to work as individually which of course wasn’t possible with BTEP.” (College C).

“I think the problem was because there were certain people who thought they knew more than others. They did not want to share their experience regarding what they knew with the other team members. They were however a lot of emotions because even those who tried to share ideas were perceived as imposing their ideas on others. Some people claimed that such individuals came across as trying to teach rather than sharing ideas.” (College B).

4.7.3 Capacity to implement BTEP policy

Most of the participants reported that they went through the BTEP phases training workshops, and indicated that the workshops raised some degree of awareness in as far as policy implementation is concerned. Some of the lecturers were even involved in the development of unit standards, learning materials and assessment instruments which involvement they considered beneficial. An example of such a claim can be found in the following statement:

“I think I was among the lucky ones who were involved right from the beginning. I attended the learning specifications workshops, then I was also involved in the learning materials writing and later on I also participated in writing the assessment instruments. I learnt a lot from such involvement and when I did the BTEP phases training I was already fully equipped to implement BTEP”. (College C).

However, the majority of participants perceived the training as inadequate.

4.7.4 Leadership capacity

Most participants indicated that their Principals were actively involved in the BTEP implementation. Such Principals reportedly went out of their way to establish conducive conditions for the implementation of BTEP. Some of the conditions included: requesting for more funding to employ additional part-time lecturers and acquisition of vital equipment. They even established industry institute partnerships. Such partnerships benefitted the Colleges in a lot of ways most importantly they helped by securing work attachment places for their candidates as well as received staff development sponsorships from the companies they established partnerships with. The views expressed included the following:

“My Principal really inspired us to push on because of his positive attitude. Despite the little funding that we got from DTVET to implement the policy, we often found ways to go around such challenges. My Principal called regular meetings to brainstorm on ways to improvise so as to continue with the implementation of the policy”. (College A).

“DTVET abandoned us along the way and one would think that they had lost confidence and interest in the policy, but our College Management team was amazing and went out of their way to defend the policy even when DTVET seemed to have lost faith in the policy”. (College C).

It is thus evident that the majority of participants perceived their management capacity to implement BTEP as one of the important factors that facilitated the implementation of the policy.

4.8 PERCEIVED FAILURES OF POLICY IMPLEMENTATION IN THE TECHNICAL COLLEGES

The semi-structured interviews sought to determine what the participants perceived as factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education programme policy. The interviews probed to further determine the constraints that affected the implementation of the policy. Factors that emerged from the interviews were divided into five categories as follows:

- Lack of capacity to implement the policy
- Lack of support for the policy implementation
- Lack of commitment to policy
- Diverse Interpretation of the policy
- Negative attitudes towards the policy by some staff members

4.8.1 Lack of capacity to implement BTEP

Most participants reported that the implementation of BTEP in the Colleges was negatively affected by lack of resources. It came out strongly in the findings that the Colleges were ill resourced for the effective delivery of the programme. Lecturers mentioned issues such as shortage of textbooks, internet access, and notional time for the individual units as some of the pertinent problems. These problems were further compounded by the complicated government procurement procedures. Some Colleges could not start due to lack of equipment and /or loss of academic staff.

Lecturers indicated that though the Colleges were expected to meet certain requirements before they could be approved to run the policy, most Colleges were nevertheless approved despite the lack of such vital resources. Participants claimed that the requirements to offer BTE programmes were unrealistic and noted that QAA required too much information. They were particularly concerned about the challenges associated with compilation of the information required. It is essential for the colleges to be required to provide necessary information to prove that they are ready to offer the programmes for quality assurance purposes. Such concerns were supported by comments raised by the participants as follows:

“It is difficult to meet the QAA approval requirements; we are just improvising so that we can be seen to be implementing the much publicised policy. DTNET did not want to be seen as having failed after they had already wasted so much on the programme thus far. They have already spent a lot on consultants from Scotland,

who were brought here to conduct weeklong BTEP workshops. They also bought a lot of useless equipment and even attempted to design some workshops in some Colleges specifically for BTEP utilisation hence their determination to dump the policy on us despite realisation that the policy was not going to work for them”

“Time was another resource that we did not have. The assessment policy even emphasised that learners can only be assessed once they are ready. How can this be possible when you are limited to complete a unit within 40 hours? I tried it once and then I put my foot down and told my class that I will be the one responsible for planning the test dates and not the students. The fact that candidates could not be failed and had to be assessed three times before they could repeat the unit made the work even more swamping”

The majority of respondents indicated that the lack of physical and material resources was due to inadequate funding by DTVET. They claimed that DTVET could not keep up with the requests placed upon it for more funding by the Colleges in order to meet the BTEP requirements. Shortage of funding affected physical upgrading of the colleges, procurement of learning support materials, stationery and equipment. Different participants made the following claims:

“Every year we were requested to submit our procurement plans for the financial year to the College Management so that they could request for the funds from DTVET but unfortunately the Colleges never got the funds that we requested to enable us to implement the policy effectively”

A lot of the physical structures in the Colleges had to be upgraded in order to meet the requirements of the BTEP policy but this was not possible due of shortage of funding. A majority of respondents revealed that the colleges relied heavily on temporary staff as permanent staff tended to leave for better opportunities. This resulted in lack of continuity in the delivery process and delays in the completion of units. It also had cost implications as the new staff needed training in order to deliver and assess the units. Heavy reliance on temporary or part-time staff created problems of lack of continuity and programmes or units not being completed by set dates due to attrition issues.

There was also concern about lack of expertise in some areas of the programme. The lecturers were specialists in particular areas and limited in others. For example in clothing and Textile, some staff members are fashion designers and, as such, do not

have the knowledge and skills to deliver textile technology. The recruitment process does not provide for the range of skills and expertise required for effective implementation of BTEP.

The respondents also indicated that there were delays in the development of programmes and as such there are no certificate and advanced certificate programmes to allow students to progress. Delays in developing and validating higher level programmes were also mentioned. The participants further on said BTEP made lecturers feel disempowered as they could not deliver the quality of education programmes which they felt was appropriate for their candidates.

4.8.2. Lack of support during policy implementation

The majority of participants reported that there was lack of support for policy implementation at all levels of the Technical and Vocational Education Department.

While support committees were established in all Colleges, the majority of participants indicated that most of these committees were dysfunctional. Lecturers and candidates did not receive adequate support to interpret and fully engage with the policy. Some lecturers expressed concern that delivering BTEP needed some training in learner centred methods. However the participants noted that it took long before new lecturers who were recruited were trained to deliver BTEP. One vital committee that was put in place to support BTEP implementation was The Trainer of Trainers Committee responsible for training lecturers on BTEP and learner centred methods. The issue of dysfunctional Colleges support committees made the implementation of BTEP almost impossible because new lecturers were expected to develop schedules for the candidates prepare candidates evidence files and all other important documentation before they could be expected to deliver the learning units. All these required someone with BTEP training background. Without the necessary guidance and support the new lecturers could not develop the learning materials and other requirements necessary to implement BTEP in classes. Some of the reasons for this lack of support were due to the fact that members of the College Trainer of Trainers Committees did not fully understand their roles; they lacked knowledge and the relevant skills to perform their functions. The committee members were also full time lecturers who did not have time to hold meetings after hours and hold training sessions for new lecturers. The participants also indicated that the Committee members in question also complained that they never received adequate training for the task to be performed and also felt overloaded. The following are some of the participants' views:

“The College Committees could not support their new colleagues because they did not have sufficient information and clarity regarding their roles. They conveyed some of their concerns to DTVET but never received any response. In the end they had to do whatever they could to support the new lecturers even if it meant pulling a sub-standard job.”

“Some new lecturers never received any training at all and were expected to go straight into class. They managed with the support that they got from their colleagues from the respective departments but this always created problems, which resulted in some evidence files failing to go through the external verification process”.

The participants indicated that due to the lack of support some lecturers who never got trained did not make enough effort towards the use of learner centred approaches. Persistence in the use of teacher-centred methods could be attributed to lack of familiarity with learner centred approaches on the part of the lecturers or lack of monitoring of classroom practice and encouragement of staff on the part of the College Management Teams. As reflected by the responses obtained from the lecturers, there was very little effort made to observe facilitation of sessions, though the College management Teams claimed that they observed sessions on a regular basis. In general, there appears to be inadequate observation of sessions in the Colleges. The majority of respondents indicated that the PDD unit at DTVET had never convened meetings with the Colleges to review the implementation of the new policy which they deemed as one of the factors that had constrained the implementation of the policy.

4.8.3 Lack of commitment to policy

The majority of the participants interviewed indicated that other BTEP stakeholders were not fully committed to the implementation of BTEP. These participants felt that the priority of DTVET was still with Gaborone Technical College. Most participants reported that QAA and PDD had not convened review meetings with their Colleges. The responses point to the fact that more meetings were convened at Gaborone Technical College, probably due to the fact that Gaborone Technical College had more BTE programmes than the other Colleges. They expected similar effort in the form of support meetings with other colleges especially that they were behind in the implementation process. Though QAA often cited shortage of resources as some of the reasons why they could not convene meetings with other Colleges regularly, the

participants felt that manpower and time constraints could be dealt with by convening cluster meetings where, for example, a particular officer could meet staff from other Colleges at the same venue to discuss matters of common interest or proposals and related requirements. Most of the participants also indicated that QAA and PDD never visited the Colleges to observe lessons, however where lesson observations were done, the officers sampled lessons such that, inevitably some departments within the same Colleges were not visited. The situation which can also be attributed to shortage of manpower at DTVET had implications with regard to the quality of outcomes of visits and related follow-up action. Participants also reported that a number of assessment instruments came with errors and these took time to be rectified, causing unnecessary confusion. Lecturers expressed concern about the delays in getting feedback on queries relating to assessments.

The majority of participants registered concern at the slow pace at which the implementation was progressing. Some of the participants said:

“Those people at DTVET didn’t seem to have grasped BTEP as well and a lot of them were not committed to the policy implementation but were however involved because of their positions at DTVET. BTEP almost got lost because of their positions in the hierarchy at DTVET. Save for the Colleges persevering BTEP could have perished by now. We at the Colleges had already put in a lot of effort as well as promised our candidates an education and hence were committed to honouring our promise. At one point BTEP remained in paper only particularly after the Director who was instrumental for BTEP implementation had left”.

There was also a perception that nobody at DTVET wanted to take responsibility for BTEP hence nobody could be held accountable for non-implementation of BTEP at DTVET. According to the participants long after the Colleges had made progress towards the adoption of BTEP. DTVET was still dragging its feet. This undermined the efforts already made by the Colleges. Lack of DTVET commitment to policy implementation was cited as the main reason for the policy failure.

At the Colleges, the responses from some participants left the impression that although some of the lecturers were determined to see BTEP working some lecturers were not committed to the process either. The same impression was conveyed regarding some Principals and Deputy Principals who supported BTEP but were unwilling to lead the process.

Since DTVET was leading the implementation of BTEP, the majority of participants felt that it should have provided financial as well as emotional support to the affected lecturers. In addition to that there was also need for DTVET to provide clear guidelines explaining why there was need for change and how the change was going to affect individual lecturers. The participants indicated that DTVET made the mistake of believing that lecturers understood BTEP, felt the need to change and could see the process as clearly as DTVET did. The majority of participants felt that DTVET could have clearly indicated what needed to be done, by when, by whom and how, as was often the case with other policies. They claimed that support was not given even when concerns were raised, and that resistance for implementing the policy from certain departments at DTVET was also evident as they refused to offer any kind of support concerning BTEP issues.

The majority of participants also expressed concern regarding the requirements for BTEP programmes approval which they described as unrealistic. As a result some colleges had difficulties in preparing proposals and this was not helped by the fact that there seemed to be very little support from subject specialists from the PDD division at DTVET. Lack of support from the PDD officers as observed by Colleges was due to the fact that the officers themselves were also not clear about some of the requirements for programme approval. The lack of confidence and delays in the preparation of applications, as has been observed, can be attributed to the fact that there has been inadequate specialist support and coordination of the implementation process.

In summary, different participants at College level perceived lack of support for BTEP implementation as one of the major constraints during the implementation of the policy. The lack of support manifested itself during the initial policy implementation stages and thereafter.

4.8.4 Diverse interpretation of BTEP Policy

Most participants identified the lack of a common understanding of BTEP as one of the major constraints in the implementation of the BTEP policy. The participants felt that the various interpretations and ambiguities were as a result of BTEP training workshops. The participants described the training as inadequate and ineffective. The BTEP trainers were described as ill-equipped and projecting a very poor image. Most participants also blamed the rushed pace at which they were forced to implement the policy before they were well prepared to implement it as one of the reasons for diverse interpretations of the policy. Some described the training as

limited to administrative issues and described the training workshops as too short and did not include any in-depth knowledge on content.

The BTE programme was regarded as a very complex programme that lacked clarity about subject content. The participants particularly indicated that while the administrative issues and assessment processes were thoroughly explained during the two weeks training workshops before the policy was implemented the content was intentionally omitted. Lecturers were provided with the unit standards and expected to write their own learning materials to use during delivery of units in order for learners to achieve the stipulated assessment standards. The above arguments were put forth as the reasons why Technical College lecturers did not have a common understanding of the BTEP. The following comments were made to support the participant's claims regarding the diverse interpretation of BTEP:

"Even up to this day and date I don't know what my role in class is exactly. When my Programme Team leader comes to my classes for lesson observation she expects me to do more than facilitate. This is usually indicated by the comments that she writes in her observation sheet and this often leaves me wondering exactly what it is that I am required to do. Sometimes I feel as if I am expected to prepare a full lesson plan. I thus often wonder where the issue of student centeredness features in if I am expected to spoon feed the candidates just like we did with the old teacher centred programmes." (College, C)

"I joined the Technical Colleges three years after the Colleges had already started implementing BTEP. By then BTEP training workshops were being offered in the Colleges. They had in place the Trainer of Trainers committees who were responsible for BTEP training. I however feel that the training that we received from the Trainer of Trainers Committee in the Technical College did not equip us efficiently. They were not confident about their facts and often contradicted each other. I wish we had been trained by the same people from DTVET who trained the Trainer of Trainers Colleges' committees but then even the colleagues that we found in the system were not very competent on the subject. You know what they say about second hand information, it usually gets distorted". (College, C)

According to these lecturers, this lack of clarity regarding what should be taught had rendered the lecturers helpless. It has also resulted in disastrous outcomes for the learners. Some participants asserted that the challenges of implementing the BTEP

were so enormous that they resorted to using the traditional methods of teaching. An impression was also created that as a result of the challenges, some lecturers tried to teach content of their own choice.

Furthermore, there is evidence that there is not enough effort made towards the use of learner centred approaches. The use of learner centred and cooperative learning approaches could provide opportunities for peer support, development of social skills, communication skills and a sense of interdependence. Persistence in the use of teacher-centred methods can be attributed to lack of familiarity with learner centred approaches on the part of the College Management Teams and the PDD unit at DTVET.

One participant said:

“It is not flexible – well maybe in name only. It is outcomes-based but delivered within very rigid structures. When we try to deliver more flexibly then other people in the College want to do it in the traditional way”. (College, C).

4.8.5 Attitudinal issues towards BTEP

The majority of participants in this study reported that the negative attitudes of some of their colleagues constrained the implementation of BTEP and impacted negatively on the performance of the individual lecturers. Some lecturers perceived the programmes to be of low standard in terms of content depth and the level of skill development. The participants claimed that such attitudes were linked to the lack of knowledge about how the programme would benefit the candidates and contribute towards the economic development of the country. The interviewed lecturers in particular, reported that when they were first informed about BTEP, they were extremely excited. However a lot of lecturers reportedly felt overwhelmed when they first learnt of their BTEP roles and responsibilities. The different participants gave the following views:

“We had been delivering programmes according to the old system for more than fifteen years and we were comfortable with the way things were going. We had trained a lot of successful graduates who even landed good jobs in big and reputable companies. They had all gone through the same system, had their assignments marked and wrote exams. So we wondered why we suddenly had to change”.

“I already had a bad experience from the time we were writing BTEP learning units and learning materials at the various workshops that we attended in preparation for BTEP implementation. Whenever we sought clarification from the workshop facilitators we were made to believe that we were stupid and due to our incompetency the new policy would never see the light of the day. Our heads of departments constantly reminded us that a lot of us lecturers were going to lose our jobs since we did not have what it takes to implement BTEP. This was something new to us and all we needed was clarity, but no! Someone just had to rub the salt on the wound by proving that they were more informed. We also felt threatened at the thought that we might be judged for the policy’s failures”.

The majority of participants explained that the new roles and responsibilities brought about by the implementation of BTEP required new ways of thinking. Lecturers were further on required to do extensive planning and more work than before. However the lecturers’ conditions of work did not change to accommodate BTEP. BTEP was thus regarded as an extra load of work to the already over loaded lecturing staff. This led to negativity and such feelings were intensified by the fact that DTVET did not want to listen to the lecturers’ concerns regarding the non-conducive working conditions. Lecturers needed to be assured whether their individual needs would be addressed to accommodate the new policy. The majority of participants also reported that it was difficult to get clarity on certain issues regarding implementation of the new policy from DTVET.

The participants also acknowledged that their fears, lack of knowledge about BTEP and their bad experiences with the implementation of other policy initiatives in the past contributed to their negative attitude towards BTEP. Some were of the view that BTEP was introduced at a time when the education system was seen to be taking the biggest share of the country’s budget. The policy tried to fit everything into the available budget and ignored the fact that BTEP was very expensive to implement and needed a lot of expertise, skills and development of lecturers as well as physical resources. According to the participants the policy assumed that all the Colleges had adequate resources. Implementation of BTEP without adequate and appropriate resources and funding was perceived to be the main reason for implementation failures or non-implementation as was the case in some Technical Colleges.

The participants also revealed that the students were also affected by attitudinal issues and were not adequately motivated to learn and thus did not take their studies

seriously. This was also as a result of the students perceiving the programmes to be of low standard in terms of depth of content and the level of skill development.

The majority of participants also identified unrealistic workloads as one of the major constraints that contributed to lecturers' negative attitudes towards the policy. The participants felt that the BTEP entailed a lot of work which consumed a lot of the time which could otherwise be used for other aspects of work. They particularly complained about the time-consuming administration and paperwork that accompanied the assessment process. They indicated that BTEP has unrealistic assessment requirements. As observed by the participants candidates are required to meet all the requirements; there are no minimum standards and as such difference of ability is not provided for. Evidence is required by the Quality Assurance Authority for every aspect of the assessment process: the candidates have to be notified in writing about the intention to assess as well as the date of assessment. The assessment itself has to be presented as evidence as well as the feedback and results. Everything regarding assessment had to be in writing in order for the process to be more transparent to the candidate. This increased the load of paperwork which was also dependent on the number of candidates that one had per class. A respondent explained that this was due to the fact that learners were allowed to be assessed more than once if the first time was not successful. The QAA assessment policy guidelines state that a learner should be assessed a maximum of three times, after which he or she has to repeat the subject. For each round of assessment the candidate had to be given a different assessment, it had to be marked, the learner had to sign all the paperwork, feedback had to be given and the process had to be repeated. This also includes the overwhelming administrative work that had to be done in the classrooms. Too many programme team meetings were also reported as aspects which negatively impacted on the implementation of BTEP as a lot of time was spent on meetings.

4.9 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presented a descriptive analysis of the data collected in the study. It synthesised the perspectives of different participants with the findings for the documentary analyses.

The findings indicate that they were successes and failures in the BTEP policy in the Technical Colleges. Successes were attributed to commitment of participants, teamwork, capacity to implement policy and leadership capacity. Policy implementation failure in this study was attributed to the lack of a common understanding of BTEP policy, the lack of capacity and support in implementing the policy, negative attitudes towards BTEP, heavy workloads and lack/shortage of resources. In-depth analysis of these factors shall be done in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

As outlined in chapter 1 of the study, this study seeks to explore factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy in the Technical Colleges examining particularly how the factors affected implementation. The research was mostly determined by the information discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 4 provided the analysis and interpretation of the data that was collected in the study. This Chapter thus aims to offer an in-depth analysis of the findings described in Chapter 4. These findings are discussed in relation to the QAA supporting policies, the BTEP reports studied during the study as well as the BTEP policy constraints and successes as seen from the different perspectives and the participants' points of view.

The transformation of Colleges offering BTEP has been directed by various QAA policies and the various stakeholders. The implementation of BTEP has been slow because of its complicated nature and many Colleges are currently implementing the old policies more than BTEP. The implementation process has not been easy and many problems have been experienced or anticipated during the course of the implementation process.

The literature review presented in Chapter 2 of the study is used to discuss the findings. The top-down and bottom-up theories are used to determine the findings. Top-down theory is used to determine the findings in relation to the original intentions of the BTEP policy. This is based on what the policy formulators intended to take down to the lecturers who are the policy implementers. The bottom up theory is used to determine the findings in relation to the lecturers' experiences taking into consideration the conditions under which the BTEP was implemented. (from the lecturers upwards to the BTEP policy original intent). In other words, the bottom-up theory is used to determine if the implementers (lecturers) understood the way that they were supposed to implement the policy as well as the reasons for success or failure in the implementation of the BTEP in the Technical Colleges.

5.2 IMPLEMENTATION CONTEXT

The BTEP Implementation in Technical Colleges' realities and Implications report, (2005) and the participants interviewed in this study indicated that BTEP was implemented under unfavourable conditions. The participants were critical of the policy which they alleged was prescribed by the state. The unfavourable conditions were attributed to the following factors: Lack of poor or inadequate resources, poor infrastructures; poor provision of teaching and learning materials, lack of equipment and shortage of expertise. The participants interviewed during the study also complained about the BTEP terminology which they described as complex, confusing and inaccessible, needing lecturers who have gone through extensive training to make sense of it. The reliability of BTEP assessment practices and quality assurance of passes have been called into question particularly the fact that there are no grades awarded to the assessments. According to BTEP assessment practices candidates either achieve the assessment or do not achieve. In addition to the above the lecturers mentioned the increasing workload and frustration of lecturers who have not been adequately consulted neither involved during the policy formulation. They further on noted that lecturers were not properly trained to implement the policy effectively but were however responsible for its success in the long run. Lack of support from BTEP stakeholders as well as unclear and ambiguous QAA policies were also mentioned as some of the factors that constrained the implementation of the policy. Despite success stories based on best practices by certain Colleges on the implementation of BTEP most participants expressed strongly held views that such an educational policy will neither improve the economy nor transform the society of any country in which it is implemented.

The above description of the study context provides a useful background against which to interpret participants' perceptions of factors that facilitated or constrained the implementation of BTEP in the Technical Colleges.

5.3 FACTORS THAT CONSTRAINED THE IMPLEMENTATION OF BTEP

The research findings show that while the BTEP policy was successful in certain policy implementation areas there were also enormous constraints. The constraints prevented participants from implementing the policy successfully. The policy constraints were attributed to the following factors:

- Diverse interpretation of BTEP by the lecturers
- Lack of capacity at Colleges to implement BTEP
- Lack of support for the BTEP implementation processes

- Negative attitudes towards BTEP by the implementers
- Lack of Commitment to BTEP policy implementation by stakeholders.

These factors will be discussed in detail and wherever appropriate shall be linked to relevant literature and theoretical perspective.

5.3.1 Diverse interpretation of BTEP policy

The findings of this study indicated that they were different interpretations of what BTEP means and how it should be implemented. When asked to indicate whether they understood certain aspects and principles of BTEP, most of them were unsure or had incorrect conceptions of what BTEP entailed. During the semi-structured interviews, it also became evident that there was more diversity than uniformity in the way participants understood the BTEP policy.

Despite the training that the lecturers had attended to become BTEP facilitators and assessors there was an impression from the findings that a common vision and the meaning of BTEP had never been established by all the implementers at the Colleges. Different interpretations and ambiguities regarding BTEP implementation were common at all the Technical Colleges involved in the research study. Some lecturers resorted to using multi delivery methods while other lecturers decided not to participate in the implementation of the policy completely.

A lot of these findings are unique to studies in other countries where outcomes-based policies similar to BTEP have been introduced. A study of the international literature suggests that the policy is elusive and had different meanings in different contexts. Theorists of change also argue that implementers are not passive recipients of policy: individuals construct their own meaning of what constitutes desirable change (Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992; Clark, Dyson, Millward & Robson, 1999). Bowe, Ball & Gold (1992) argue that policy is not just received and implemented in any context but is subject to interpretation and recreation.

While it is not unusual for different policy recipients to construct different meanings for any policy, in the case of BTEP implementation it was a challenge because of an absence of a common understanding of BTEP in different Colleges and even within the same Colleges. The lack of common understanding regarding BTEP implementation thus created a lot of confusion, tensions which subsequently led to feelings of uncertainty hopelessness and loss of confidence among participants. The findings also revealed that the lecturers felt overwhelmed due to all the changes, complexities and insufficient information regarding BTEP. The lack of uncertainty

even resulted in some Colleges implementing the policy partially and non-implementation in some Colleges was registered. Partial implementation and the non-implementation of the policy in some Colleges was a clear indication that the participants did not have a clear sense of what needs to be done. This perception supports the view of a top-down approach that claims that clear and unambiguous policy directives results in more effective implementation of policies.

The findings also revealed that when BTEP was introduced there were other vocational education policies enforce at the Colleges. The findings indicated that such policies were competing against each other and as a result created uncertainty among lecturers. This put a lot of pressure on the lecturers who preferred the more familiar policies because according to them such policies had already been tested, tried and proved successful. The research also found out that there were no clear directives from DTVET which could have helped to facilitate a more coherent understanding of the envisaged changes. This view seems to assume that a top-down approach could have resulted in successful implementation of BTEP.

In support of the participants' views regarding the implementation of multiple competing policies at once, a clear directive detailing the chain of events towards implementation could prevent the confusion, uncertainty and anxiety experienced by the participants. A similar suggestion had been made by Maitland (1995). This author argues that in situations of high policy conflict and low-policy ambiguity, a top-down approach to policy implementation is more appropriate.

The conclusion that can be drawn here is that a lack of direction and order on the part of DTVET resulted in a situation where many lecturers did not feel compelled to implement the new policies.

5.3.2 Lack of Capacity to implement policy

The findings revealed that the participants did not have the capacity to perform duties placed upon them by the new policy. This was attributed to lack of expertise and adequate training, lack of resources and funding to implement the policy as well as unrealistic workloads and roles.

Policy implementation studies have shown that the success of any public policy rests on the capacity to implement it. (Makoa, 2004, Mc Laughlin 1987; Fukuda - Parr, Lopez & Malik, 2002). The findings reveal that though the participants had adequate teaching experience and ample knowledge on tackling teaching difficulties they

however had limitations in meeting the multifaceted roles placed on them by the new policy. The BTEP policy positions the lecturer as someone who plays multiple roles. The BTEP lecturer is expected to change his/her role from what they were trained to do and used to do. The lecturers' new roles among others included writing, facilitating and assessing learning materials. The research revealed that the additional roles placed a lot of pressure on the lecturers.

5.3.3 Lack of expertise and training

The study reveals that the BTEP lecturers had not been adequately trained and so were not ready to implement the policy. There were also too many new lecturers who had not been trained to implement the policy. The findings also indicate that there was a mismatch between the training that the lecturers received from DTVET and the actual demands of the BTEP policy. Furthermore the training was inadequate and not up to standard and thus could not address the challenges that the lecturers encountered in implementing the BTEP policy. The two weeks training sessions that the lecturers received from DTVET only provided a theoretical framework, but however failed to emphasize the difference between the old and new policies in existence at the Colleges. The College lecturers questioned the quality and relevance of the training that they received in preparation for implementation of the policy.

Moreno (2007) notes that generally teachers are taken for granted in reform efforts. Assumptions are often made that teachers have the capacity or relevant competencies to assume the new responsibilities demanded by the reform – Moreno (2007:172). Contends that “Teaching challenging content to learners who bring very different experiences and conceptions depends on the capacity of practitioners to create diverse learning experiences that connect to what students know and how they must effectively learn”.

5.3.4 Unrealistic Workloads

The research reveals that with the introduction of the BTEP policy the lecturers' roles became more multifaceted. This was not helped by the fact that the lecturers also lacked expertise which was further aggravated by the unrealistic workloads. The findings further on show that most of the lecturers were already implementing the old educational policies and hence perceived BTEP as an added responsibility. The introduction of BTEP increased pressure on the lecturers to perform a wider set of roles than before and they were also expected to perform their new BTEP roles well. The new roles among others included writing, facilitating and assessing learning

material. However they were others who argued that BTEP does not add new responsibilities but rather requires teachers to think differently and creatively.

Literature study from other countries however explains that it is expected for lecturers to be unsure about their new roles. My findings are in keeping with those of Swartz and Cavener (1994:335) who also found outcomes-based education to drastically increase an educator's workload. The policy insisted on a tall order of characteristics of its educators, including a good qualification, as Jansen (1999:149) pointed out, but also a high degree of proficiency in all the expected roles, as well as other aspects such as having a broad general knowledge to teach an integrated curriculum, being hardworking, willing to learn and to embrace change. The lecturers had to achieve all the aspects as mentioned by Jansen (1999: 149). This is regardless of the shortage and lack of resources, unfavourable climate as well as inadequate training.

5.3.5 Lack of resources and funding

The research reveals that the policy was rushed and wasn't thoroughly thought through because of the challenges that the Colleges encountered due to the lack of funding. The findings show that the policy aimed at confining everything into the available budget, while simultaneously dismissing the fact that BTEP is resource heavy. The findings also reveal that the policy assumed that all the Colleges had adequate resources and can implement the policy successfully. It can thus be concluded that a lot of aspects in regard to resources and funding were not taken into consideration before implementation of the policy.

5.3.6 Lack of support/commitment for BTEP Implementation

The findings indicated that the training of teachers was arranged, developed and delivered by DTVET to all the Technical Colleges' lecturers. The research could not however establish the success of the training delivered to the Technical Colleges' lecturers by DTVET. The lecturers' concerns were mainly centred on the poor and inadequate training provided and the lack of support and feedback from the DTVET. The trainers from DTVET were regarded as incompetent and projected a very poor image. Furthermore DTVET did not monitor whether the lecturers were implementing BTEP according to the way they had been trained. This became the task of the College management who did not receive adequate training either. It can thus be concluded that the training provided by DTVET was rushed and inadequate with little or no follow-up support given to the implementers. It can further on be concluded that DTVET was not committed to policy implementation.

5.3.7 Attitudes towards BTEP

The findings reveal that most of the lecturers in the Technical Colleges did not have a positive attitude towards BTEP. The negative attitude by the lecturers was not conducive to successful implementation of the policy and impacted negatively on the Colleges attempts to implement the policy effectively. Such attitudes also affected members of the Trainer of Trainers College Committees and staff development committees. Some lecturers did not even bother to consult the QAA policies which they considered a lot of work as well as a waste of time. There was no way that a lecturer would ever be able to implement BTEP effectively without consulting some of the policies because they contain important information about delivery and assessment. As a result of their negative attitude towards the policy they could not emphasise the importance of the policy to the learners. The negativity was attributed to the working condition in the Colleges, past negative experiences with other educational policies, lack of capacity and uncertainty about what the lecturers needed to do in order to implement the policy effectively. The study revealed that as a result of such negativity some participants even distanced themselves from any involvement in the BTEP activities.

Theories of change regard emotion and change as aspects that are closely linked (Hargreaves, 1994). Swart and Pettipher (2007:111) argue that the change process raises uncomfortable feels of panic, fear, inadequacy, and incompetence. It is therefore not surprising that some lecturers perceived the new policy as a threat considering that the change challenged their belief systems. However, some people may view change differently, some even with excitement and enthusiasm. Van Veen in (Zembylas & Barker 2007) show that even when teachers align themselves with the reform, the working conditions under which change has to be implemented triggers more negative emotions that one would expect.

5.4 FACTORS THAT FACILITATED THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BTEP POLICY

Despite the absence of enabling factors such as lack of capacity to implement the policy, lack of support for policy implementation, lack of commitment to policy, diverse interpretation of the policy and negative attitudes towards the policy implementation by some lecturers and vital stakeholders some participants in this study claimed to have succeeded in achieving some of their set goals in implementing the BTEP policy. These successes were attributed to the following factors:

5.4.1 Teamwork

The research findings show that there was notable teamwork in the Colleges. The notion of teamwork in this policy constructs a vision of active participation in which everyone benefits. Team work was an important factor in the implementation of BTEP. The most important key lever of the BTEP policy is the establishment of the Trainer of Trainers Committee and the BTEP audit committees at collegiate level. The Trainer of Trainers committee mandate is to provide orientation to new lecturers as well as provide appropriate support for all the lecturers responsible for implementing the policy. The audit committee is responsible for auditing the candidates files before there are sent for external verification. The BTEP structure by its nature encouraged lecturers to work as teams. Facilitators/assessors had to work with internal verifiers and the College audit teams. Through this practice, lecturers gained a better understanding of the way that they could competently implement the policy. As a result, the Colleges that applied team work in implementing BTEP benefited from the principle of collaboration. This finding supports the assumption of the BTEP policy.

5.4.2 Leadership Capacity

The research findings revealed that most of the College Principals provided leadership support during the implementation of the policy. The findings found out that the College Management teams stimulated the BTEP implementing lecturers quite often by encouraging them to attend workshops and often reminded them that the workshops would equip them with skills and ideas to help them implement the policy effectively. They proved to be the kind of leaders who walked ahead in times of change, developing new skills, capabilities and understandings. The College Principals called upon DTVET to create the right environment for the lecturers to implement BTEP effectively, be it administratively or the development of BTEP implementing lecturers. This was to enable the lecturers to challenge unrealistic expectations placed upon them by the policy. The Principals were after all in a better position to know the developmental needs of their lecturers than the DTVET officials. This finding also supported the assumption of BTEP policy.

5.4.3 Commitment to implement the policy

The findings revealed that they were some lecturers in the Technical Colleges who were committed and enthusiastic to implement the policy. There was evidence from the statements made by the participants that some lecturers did everything in their power to ensure that the policy is implemented effectively despite the challenges they

encountered along the way. Such lecturers even went an extra mile to improve their knowledge regarding BTEP policy.

5.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study revealed that though there were notable factors that facilitated the implementation of the BTEP policy there were however a lot of factors that constrained its implementation. What emerges strongly in the study is the lack of capacity to implement BTEP. The BTEP Lecturers struggled, for various reasons to implement the policy successfully as they faced challenges beyond their control as well as attitudinal issues within themselves. Hence it can be concluded that the contextual situation within which the policy was implemented was not conducive to successful implementation. The research findings thus reveal the disparities between theory on paper and the reality of practice. Though in theory BTEP was regarded as the best policy for providing access in the Technical Colleges, in practice the policy had to operate in an environment of realities which determines its outcomes. These realities include inadequate training and orientation of BTEP lecturers, lack of resources, different experiential backgrounds, different perceptions of the policy and diverse interpretations of the policy. For example, a lack of resources incapacitates successful implementation of a policy as this factor determines how teaching happens, how learning occurs and what skills can be developed. In a nutshell, the situation is likely to hamper the lecturer's efforts in implementing the policy effectively. The next chapter makes recommendations on more effective implementation.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present the summary of findings and make recommendations based on the findings. It also aims to make recommendations for future implementation of BTEP in similar contexts. Firstly, this chapter presents a summary of findings and secondly it makes recommendations based on these findings. A brief description of the study limitations shall follow and finally future research recommendations shall be identified.

The research focuses on the factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme in the Technical Colleges and how these factors affected effective implementation of the policy. Qualitative data was obtained through semi-structured interviews and document analysis. Policy implementation and outcomes-based education literature was reviewed, and a conceptual framework was developed to guide the investigation and analysis. The study participants were selected from four Technical Colleges in Botswana, namely Maun Technical College, Selebi Phikwe Technical College, Palapye Technical Colleges and Francistown College of Technical and Vocational Education. The study participants are lecturers who have played a role in the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme policy. Top-down and bottom-up theories were used to investigate the topic, and to analyse the data. A top-down approach was used to determine the findings in relation to the policy as originally intended by DTVET while a bottom-up approach was used to determine the experiences of the lecturers (local implementers). Such findings were analysed in the context in which the policy was implemented. The findings were described in detail in Chapters four and five.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Twelve Technical College lecturers participated in the study, three from each Technical College. The researcher took a sample that is representative of all BTE programmes on offer at the Technical Colleges. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with lecturers who have been implementing BTEP for at least two to three years as well as participants with experience in implementing the old vocational programmes. Participants were interviewed from the following BTE programmes on offer at the Technical Colleges: Information and Communications Technology, Clothing Design and Textiles, Business, Electrical and

Mechanical Engineering and Building Construction. The official documents that were relevant for the purpose of this study were selected and studied. The documents provided a framework in which to understand the implementation BTEP. The following QAA documents were studied: The validation of BTEP qualifications policy, Approval of BTEP qualification policy, internal verification and assessment policy, External verification policy and Monitoring of quality assurance policy. The Implementation of BTEP in Technical Colleges, realities and implications report was also studied to gain information about the implementation challenges.

The findings show that DTVET and the Technical Colleges shared the common objective of increasing access in the Technical Colleges through BTEP. However they had different views on how they would set about achieving the objective.

6.3 PERCEIVED POLICY SUCCESSES

The findings indicate that there were perceptions of notable successes in the BTEP policy implementation. Amongst such gains was increased teamwork in the Technical Colleges which factor helped by increasing the lecturers' understanding of BTEP. This factor also helped to reduce anxiety and fear associated with the implementation of a new policy. Some participants however registered the fact that teamwork did not function well in some Colleges because of the interpersonal dynamics that played in such Colleges.

Commitment at College level was also registered as one of the positive gains during policy implementation. Colleges had already invested a lot towards the implementation of the policy and thus did not want to be seen as having failed their local communities and the country in general. Contrary to such gains some participants however revealed that some Colleges were not committed to the implementation of the policy.

The majority of participants also registered Leadership support as one of the positive gains during the policy implementation. The College Management teams reportedly played a pivotal role by encouraging and inspiring the lecturers when it seemed almost impossible to continue with the implementation of the policy.

6.4 PERCEIVED POLICY FAILURES

As stated in Chapter four and five, different participants experienced different challenges which prevented them from implementing the policy effectively and consequently failed to achieve their set objectives particularly that of increasing access in the Technical Colleges. Most Colleges implemented the policy partially while some Colleges decided against implementing the policy completely. These challenges were attributed to various factors as summarised below.

The study reveals that there were perceptions that the policy has limitations that constrained participants understanding of how it should be implemented. Consequently the lecturers in the Technical Colleges experienced enormous challenges during the implementation of the policy. As a result they failed to achieve their set objectives particularly increasing of access in the Technical Colleges. This was evidenced by the fact that most Colleges ended up implementing the policy partially and non-implementation was recorded in certain programmes at some Colleges. One of the perceived failures in the implementation of BTEP included the inability to establish the Trainer of Trainers College level support teams. In instances where the committees were established they were almost dysfunctional. These were considered vital committees in all the BTEP implementing Colleges.

Chapter two indicates that DTVET used a combination of both top-down and bottom-up approaches in the implementation of the BTEP policy. The top-down approach was used to advocate BTEP philosophy to justify its monitoring and evaluation. The bottom-up approach allowed the implementers (lecturers) to make their own discretion depending on their contextual situations. There were perceptions among the participants that DTVET did not provide clear guidelines articulating the meaning of the policy and how it should be implemented. Partial implementation and the non-implementation of the policy at the Colleges in certain programmes was a clear indication that the lecturers did not have a clear sense of what needs to be done.

As a result of the above situations there were tensions and resistance in most Colleges. Furthermore there were perceptions that DTVET did not take the implementers (lecturers) views seriously which suggests that although the bottom-up approach was encouraged, its outcomes were undermined. The research also reveals that BTEP demands new ways of delivery and assessment. The participants indicated that the policy was rushed and forced on them and hence did not give them time and space to explore different ways of implementing it. The findings also show that Technical College lecturers felt that their capacity to implement the policy was lacking. This lack of capacity included a lack expertise in interpreting and implementing the policy, staffing constraints, unrealistic workloads and

insufficient resources. The perception is collaborated in the Implementation of BTEP in Technical Colleges Realities and Implications report of 2005. The report also revealed that the training that the lecturers received from DTVET was inadequate and of substandard. Lecturers felt that they were not yet adequately equipped to implement the policy effectively and this had a significant negative impact on lecturers' attempts to implement BTEP.

The research findings registered the fact that lecturers were not happy about the manner in which changes were conveyed to them. They were against a top-down management style that was imposed and wanted to participate in the transformation process right from the beginning. DTVET provided these lecturers with various policies to guide the implementation of BTEP. The policies were written by DTVET through QAA to direct the lecturers but the lecturers were of a view that they should have been involved in writing the BTEP guiding policies.

These findings indicated that the lecturers were not able to implement BTEP as prescribed or recommended by DTVET due to various reasons beyond their control. Although there has been a lot of progress in the implementation of the policy since its inception a great deal still has to be done on the part of both the Colleges and DTVET. The next section looks at the recommendations to make the implementation process more effective.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study takes into consideration that BTEP policy depends on the interaction of different agents in order to be effective. In other words, the success or failure of policy implementation is a product of an interaction between and among several stakeholders such as policy, central policy making bodies, learners, parents, (caregivers), context, local communities, DTVET officials and the industry. This section therefore makes recommendations to the Department of Vocational Education and Training (DTVET) (custodian of the policy) and the local implementers, in this instance lecturers (recipients of the policy). The recommendations are based on the constraints that were discussed in chapters four and five.

Given the successes and challenges discussed in this study, it is clear that improvements need to be made to ensure the effective implementation of BTEP in Technical Colleges. These recommendations do not only relate to further implementation of outcomes-based vocational education policy in Botswana. Most of them refer to strategies that could be pursued in Africa and internationally. While some of these recommendations are not new, all emerged from the findings of this study. One could therefore, argue, that many of them serve as

reinforcement on the recommendations that have already been raised by other researchers who have conducted research studies in outcomes-based education policy implementation in Africa and internationally.

6.5.1 Approaches to policy implementation

From the participants responses it came out strongly that clear policy directives could have facilitated a coherent understanding of the policy and the manner in which it was to be implemented. The respondents also registered concern that DTVET who were the custodians of the policy abandoned the policy before it was fully implemented in the Colleges which was perceived as a lack of commitment to policy. Most participants revealed that the policy implementation monitoring was left to the Colleges' management. In addition to that the participants felt that the lecturers (policy implementers) initiatives concerning the policy implementation were not valued by DTVET since such initiatives were never taken up. Regarding the above findings it is recommended that:

- DTVET should take up the local implementers' initiatives and incorporate them in the review report for future development of the policy as well as in its implementation strategies.
- DTVET should be fully involved in the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of BTEP rather than relying on the Management teams at the Colleges. Monitoring the implementation process should become a regular feature in the implementation of the policy.
- DTVET should change the way in which it engages with top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation in an attempt to ascertain that lecturers' views do in fact influence on-going and future policy development.

6.5.2 Lack of commitment to policy

The respondents in this study expressed concern that commitment to the implementation of BTEP policy was lacking. They registered the fact that the BTEP policy was not prioritised at DTVET level. This was also attributed to the fact that no one in particular was held accountable for the implementation of BTEP at DTVET level.

- DTVET should ensure that there are officers who are held accountable for the progress of the implementation of BTEP at DTVET level.

6.5.3 Lack of Support for the BTEP Policy

It came out strongly in the research that support for the implementation of BTEP was lacking from DTVET. This included inadequate support for the lecturers who wished to implement the policy but were not adequately empowered to do so. DTVET officials did not make a follow up to ascertain whether lecturers in the Technical Colleges were implementing what they had learnt at the BTEP workshops. This could have been done effectively through session observations by PDD officials from DTVET. Though the majority of participants registered that College Management teams were supportive towards implementation of BTEP they were a few cases who registered that their College Management Teams were not supportive towards the implementation of the policy. If Colleges are to implement BTEP successfully, it is recommended that:

- PDD officials from DTVET should observe sessions to identify areas of concern and make arrangements for provision of training support to the lecturers. Efforts could entail sampling of sessions in each department at least twice per term.
- DTVET should develop strategies to guide and support lecturers to implement the BTEP effectively.
- College Management teams should also be more proactive and supportive towards the implementation of BTEP policy in the Technical College. Although DTVET is usually prescriptive regarding its policies, BTEP policy clearly state that Technical Colleges should take the responsibility of BTEP implementation in their own Colleges.

6.5.4 Diverse interpretation of the policy

It came out strongly in the research that Technical College lecturers had diverse and conflicting ideas regarding what BTEP means and how it should be implemented. This research clearly indicated that there were major gaps in the Lecturers' knowledge and understanding of the BTEP. Based on the findings of this study, it is therefore, recommended that:

- DTVET should ensure that messages communicated to all stakeholders as well as feedback about the BTEP policy are clear and consistent.
- DTVET should stipulate a clear chain of events for the implementation of BTEP including the plans and time frames and furthermore collaborate with the lecturers in an attempt to keep up with its deadlines.
- Lecturers (implementers) should be given sufficient knowledge regarding BTEP so that they can implement it effectively.
- To minimise confusion BTEP lecturers should be kept up-to-date with developments surrounding the implementation process. DTVET should be transparent and honest about problems that it experiences and warn lecturers in advance about possible obstacles.

6.5.5 Negative attitudes towards BTEP

Although the lecturers did not explicitly state that they were negative towards the new system the findings reveal that the majority of participants held underlying feelings of negativity towards BTEP. This was attributed to the lack of sufficient knowledge about BTEP, negative experiences with other education policies, new roles required by the BTEP policy, and inability to cope with the roles as well as the changes prescribed by the new policy. In order to change such negative perception about BTEP policy, it is recommended that:

- DTVET ensures that communication channels are created where BTEP stakeholders can raise their views and concerns about the policy and bring forward suggestions on how it should be implemented.
- A more vigorous marketing strategy with regular consultations and review meetings to ensure that all stakeholders are abreast with developments and aware of the significance of the policy. It would help to intensify cooperation and partnerships with industry, joint projects, attachments of lecturers, and regular visits to the industry, etc.
- The creation of an informal and formal feedback channels to show that implementers' views are acknowledged.

- DTVET should introduce strategies to encourage the Colleges to adopt the policy, mitigate resistance and manage the implementation of BTEP.
- It is recommended that incentives be given to encourage lecturers to implement the policy.
- They indicated that the setting of minimum standards needed to be considered with emphasis on coverage and achievement of critical aspects, exercising some flexibility on those aspects which are considered insignificant, depending on the nature of evidence required and the related level of competency.

6.5.6 Lack of Capacity to implement BTEP Policy

BTEP policy requires an investment in those resources that enable lecturers to cope with complexities that come with the implementation of the policy. The findings of this study have revealed that the majority of lecturers were overwhelmed by their numerous new roles because they were not adequately prepared and hence not ready to implement BTEP. Their knowledge and understanding of BTEP was basic. DTVET had wrongly perceived it as a policy that can be implemented by any available lecturer. It is not reasonable to ask lecturers who are the implementers of BTEP to accept new responsibilities and roles without empowering them to do so first. To address the challenge of lack of capacity it is recommended that:

- DTVET simplifies strategies for implementing BTEP policy and avoid complex initiatives.
- Before a new vocational educational policy is extended to the rest of the Technical Colleges it should be piloted and evaluated at two or three Technical Colleges first.
- DTVET should conduct an analysis of lecturers' training needs in the Technical Colleges particularly in the context of an analysis of the requirements of BTEP policy.
- College management Teams organise on-going College based training and regular meetings to discuss the progress, the challenges, as well as the needs of the lecturers.

- The Colleges will have to address the problems such as the workload of lecturers by adding internal verification to the individual lecturers' timetables.
- Lecturers' training programmes should be developed that will ensure that BTEP is recognised as a fully-fledged subject at pre-training level, ensuring that prospective and in-service lecturers obtain the knowledge they need on content and delivering approaches.
- The development of implementation guidelines should be an ongoing process. This process should involve all the role players in the delivery process, so that lecturers, QAA and PDD can discuss and give input on the realities of BTEP implementation when developing such guidelines.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Merriam (1998) argues that a researcher as a human instrument is limited by being human because personal biases interfere during research. The study was conducted in my backyard. The researcher was known to many of the study participants as she has worked with the Technical College lecturers in various forums in her capacity as a DTVET official. The researcher might thus have brought certain experiences, expectations and beliefs to the research. There is a possibility that this could have impacted on how the research was conducted and how the participants responded to the research questions. In order to avoid the bias the researcher went to great lengths to constantly involve the participants in the verification of the data as well as its interpretation. To eliminate biasness the researcher made several drafts of the participant's stories until they were satisfied that it is indeed what they meant in reply to the researcher's questions.

6.7 FURTHER RESEARCH

A comprehensive study should be undertaken in order to ascertain the developmental level of the lecturers in the Technical Colleges as well as the costs for doing so. The research could focus specifically on the qualifications and experiences of the lecturers in terms of the various programmes within the BTEP. The research could be conducted in the Colleges aimed at gathering the information directly from the lecturers and the College management. This will serve to establish what needs to be done in terms of lecturers' training before implementation of any educational policy. The research would also serve to determine the exact role and

obligation of DTVET with regard to training of lecturers to implement BTEP. This is necessary because before lecturers can be assisted in the transformation process it is necessary to determine whether their training was in accordance with the requirements of the new policy.

6.8 CONCLUSION

There are some final conclusions that can be drawn from this study. The research reveals that there were certain areas where the policy was successful. Some of the policy assumptions however needed to be revisited. The assumption that BTEP would assist in increasing access in the Technical Colleges was a misconception. The assumption could have been underpinned by the notion that the implementation process would be linear and context-free. The study shows that DTVET failed to articulate the practicality of the different roles of BTEP lecturers in their context. Hence, this led to disparity between what DTVET put on paper and what happened in reality.

DTVET failed to consider the complexities associated with BTEP implementation. These included the changing of physical structures in the Technical Colleges, acquisition of both human and physical resources as well as the preparations for the changing roles of the Technical College lecturers. The Technical College lecturers had been implementing the old programmes for more than fifteen years and identified themselves with such policies. Therefore, any process that was perceived as threatening that status quo was likely to create tensions and resistance in the implementation of the new policy.

The rhetoric surrounding BTEP suggested that the BTEP would increase access in the Technical Colleges but in reality it limited access because of the context in which it was implemented. It can be concluded that policy implementation that takes place in a context in which the guidelines are not clearly articulated impacts negatively on the implementation process.

It is thus apparent that no single model of policy implementation guarantees total success. Clear guidelines, control and a clear chain of events from the top can help the implementers understand the need for change and the reason for urgency. It is however important to allow the local needs to inform the policy implementation processes. Both top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation is therefore essential for effective policy implementation.

In conclusion, the following statement by Pratt (2003:55) captures the complexities of policy implementation, but we cannot wait:

“Policy is formulated in the real world of messy problems and complex interactions of uncontrollable variables. There are few mono-causal explanations of complex phenomena. What research can do is identify limitations and circumstances within which policies work. Deep seated social or environmental factors that inhibit learning may not be remedial within time-scales in which the teacher has to operate. It is may be better, on occasion to attempt different solutions and see which ones work. We cannot wait for complete theoretical understanding of a social ill before acting to diminish it.”

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APPENDIX A

University of Witwatersrand
Graduate School of Public Development and
Management
Academic Delivery Unit
P.O. Box 601 WITS
2050, Johannesburg, South Africa

Tel: 2610045

1 June 2012

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.....
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Attention: Deputy Principal Curriculum

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY IN YOUR COLLEGE

I am a masters Degree student in the School of Public Development and Management at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I am currently busy with a dissertation on the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy. The aim of the research is to investigate the factors that constrain the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme Policy (BTEP) and how these factors affect implementation.

The study is in two parts, interviews and document analysis. Only lecturers with experience in delivering the new BTEP programmes as well as the old teacher centred programs will be interviewed. I intend to carry out this research between the 8th and 22nd June 2012 at your College.

The interviews and document analysis shall be arranged at your school's convenience. To maintain confidentiality the Colleges' and individual Lecturers' identities shall be concealed. The identified Colleges are not compelled to participate in the research. The information gathered in this study, will remain confidential and will be used for educational purposes only.

Please could you complete the consent form at the end of the letter and return it to me.

I look forward to your school's participation in this study.

Kind Regards

B.M. Mhizha

-----Cut along this line -----

Consent Form

I agree that my College will participate in your study. I realize that no harm will come to my College and that this information will be used for educational purposes only.

Name of College:

Signed:

Date:

APPENDIX B

University of Witwatersrand
Graduate School of Public Development and
Management
Academic Delivery Unit
P.O. Box 601 WITS
2050, Johannesburg, South Africa

Tel:2610045/Cell No. 71711666

1 June 2012

Dear Lecturer.

RE: REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

My name is Bose Mhizha. I am a Masters student at the University of Witwatersrand under the supervision of Doctor J. M. Matshabaphala and am in the process of writing my Masters dissertation. The focus of my dissertation is the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Program Policy in the Technical Colleges.

The aims of the research are to investigate factors that constrained the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education Policy and to examine how these factors affected implementation.

With this letter I therefore seek permission to interview you as an important role player in the implementation of the Botswana Technical Education policy.

I will strive to conduct the interview with minimal disruption to your schedule. I intend to use the substance of the interview comments, opinions, views, etc. in my dissertation but I hereby assure each participant that the following shall be observed in regard to anonymity and confidentiality.

- **Your name will NOT be mentioned in my discussion**
- **Your comment may be reported but anonymously. A fictitious name may be used.**
- **The name of the college at which you are a lecturer will also not be mentioned**

Participating lecturers are kindly requested to sign the consent form below before the interview commences.

I look forward to your participation in this study.

Yours faithfully

Bose M Mhizha (Ms)

.....

CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned give consent to participate in the research undertaken by B.M. Mhizha, a Masters student at the University of Witwatersrand.

I understand everything that is stipulated in the covering letter. I have not been coerced to participate in the research.

Full name of participant

Signature of participant:

Signed on this day: of2012

APPENDIX C

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

- 1 What is your area of specialization?**
- 2 What is your highest qualification?**
- 3 Where did you obtain your vocational training qualification?**
- 4 How long have you been teaching in the Government Technical Colleges?**
- 5 Which courses do you offer in your department and what subjects do you teach?**
- 6 Which method of facilitation do you use in delivering the specific subjects? (teacher centred or learner centred)**
- 7 Do you facilitate the Botswana Technical Education Programs and if so how long have you been facilitating BTEP.**
- 8 Did you receive training prior to delivering BTEP?**
- 9 How does BTEP differ from the traditional method of facilitation?**
- 10 Do you follow the BTEP implementation guidelines during facilitation?**
- 11 What kind of difficulties and obstacles do you encounter when delivering BTEP courses?**
- 12 Do you keep any BTEP students records and if so which documents do you keep?**
- 13 What do you think has contributed to the difficulties that you have experienced in facilitating BTEP?**
- 14 What aspects of policy implementation do you think your school could have done differently and why?**
- 15 What type of support would you need for more effective implementation of the BTEP policy?**
- 16 Do you have any other comments that you would like to raise regarding the Botswana Technical Education Program Policy?**