TEACHER'S UNDERSTANDINGS OF IMPLEMENTING CURRICULUM: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN BOTSWANA AND SOUTH AFRICAN RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS EDUCATION SYSTEM.

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Abstract
This comparative paper is intended to promote discourse among professionals, policymakers and educators concerning current and future challenges faced by teachers in implementing the curriculum especially teachers working in rural areas in Botswana and South Africa primary schools. This study therefore intends to find out how best we can help rural educators in the implementation of the curriculum. Rural educators seem neglected and most of them are either moving to urban for greener pastures or resigning in big numbers because they are not given enough support, rural educators are still using an old approach and this frustrates learners when learners reach tertiary level as they cannot compete with those learners who got proper education in foundation phase. example, most rural learners and educators cannot express themselves properly in English while their counter parts excelled fluently in English, where lies the problem and how can we deal with it, are rural educators being supported enough?
In Botswana, six primary schools in rural areas were used and 12 teachers were interviewed and observed while in South Africa five rural primary schools were used and 10 teachers were interviewed. Findings revealed that most participants' understanding regarding issues of curriculum/curricula can be interpreted and located within the contested nature of curriculum. Their responses were varied and diverse and such variations reflected the challenges and problematic nature of defining curriculum in view of implementing it. Participants of this study were concerned about the nature of the curriculum. Based on such responses of conceptualising curriculum within the confines of time, teachers pointed out that the real tension for them is meeting the governments' testing requirements of the curriculum. They further indicated that this pressure perpetuates them to be more concerned with covering the curriculum breadth than understanding its depth. The study therefore proposes curbing the tensions that exist between covering the curriculum breadth and understanding its depth in order to effectively implement it and affording learners equal opportunities when they get to higher levels of education.

Key words: curriculum breath, rural educators, policy makers, implementation, curriculum product.

Background and rationale of the study

After Botswana gained its independence from colonial rule in 1966, the first National Commission on Education was appointed which was to look at enhancing access to universal basic education for all children. The Commission was charged with formulating the country's philosophy of education, setting goals for the development of education/training and recommending the best strategies for achieving these goals. The Commission came up with 134 main recommendations all of which were adopted by Parliament and have become the basis for the National Policy on Education now set forth in the Government White Paper No.2 of 1994 referred to as The Revised National Policy on Education (Matale, 2002). With reference to Botswana's Ten Year Basic Education Program's Curriculum Blueprint (1995:2), Botswana's education system aims at: promoting the all-round development of the individual; fostering intellectual growth and creativity, enabling every citizen to achieve his/her full potential, developing moral, ethical and social values, cultural identity, self-esteem and good citizenship. Like many other developing countries, Botswana has put education at the top of its priorities during the last two decades. To achieve this, the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD) has initiated several projects to achieve a sustainable and reliable educational system for all children. Botswana was a British 'Protectorate' for 81 years, from 1885 to 1966. During the pre-colonial era, Botswana had some form of education which was 'part of the whole system of belief, religion as well as a means of socialising children into the accepted norms of society' (Crowder, 1984:22). This form of education was referred to as traditional education. Parsons (1984) classifies traditional education into three categories: informal, formal and vocational education. There was informal education in the home, which was mainly parenting and it included relations among siblings with emphasis on the aged as repositories of wisdom. Formal education was characterized by bojale and bogwera (adolescent initiation schools for females and males respectively). In bojale young women were formally taught matters concerning womanhood, sex related issues, behaviour towards men, domestic and agricultural activities. Bogwera was formal instruction for young male adults where they were circumcised and taught skills such as sewing for shields and clothing and modelling clay cattle to reinforce practical knowledge of livestock. They were trained to be responsible men, warriors and fathers. Vocational education consisted of part-time individual apprenticeships in trades such as medicine, mining and smelting. Skills in agriculture and hunting were also imparted. No records exist as to how children with special needs were incorporated (or not) into these groups (Dart et al, 2003). Children who are deemed to have special needs within a modern system would probably have coped very well as the teachings focused on an oral method and the learning of practical skills. However, Mautle (2001) explains that this traditional form of schooling was highly discouraged by missionaries and the protectorate authorities.

The introduction of Western education in Botswana replaced this traditional pre-colonial system. Since churches financed education, they were in full control of the curriculum and its content (Molosiwa, 2004). When Botswana finally became independent in 1966, its education policy shifted from colonial education to the kind of education that would meet the needs of

the emerging society. Molosiwa (2004) further explains that education was seen as a crucial aspect of economic development and the development of human resources. Therefore post-primary education was emphasized and expanded during the early years of independence. In his speech in 2005, the then Minister of Education said that the general strategy of RNPE (1994) was to increase access to education at all levels and to close a chapter of restricting access to only a few privileged individuals, which was a legacy of Botswana's colonial past (News from Africa, 2005).

South African education system of apartheid was divided in terms of race and language, and was funded and resourced in ways that favoured white people and disadvantaged black people. Having combined this into a single, democratic system, the Department of Education is determined not to recognise "rural education" as a separate category. There are rural schools, and education does take place in rural areas. However, these schools are governed by the same curriculum, the same conditions of service, the same national legislation and the same policies as all other public schools in the country. It is only at provincial and district levels that realities on the ground, such as conditions in rural schools, can be addressed specifically (Michael: 2008). In both the Foundation and Intermediate Phases, system of education is regarded as the tool whereby the holistic learner is emphasized. The learner must progress at his or her own pace, achieve the relevant outcomes at the end of the process and be assessed continually throughout the year. Assessment should help the learners to make judgments about their own performance, set goals for progress and provoke further learning (Gee, 2010). In both phases, critical outcomes (the stress on problem solving, decision making and effective communication) and developmental outcomes (highlights entrepreneurial opportunities, explores educational and career opportunities and encourages cultural sensitivity) are taught (Gee, 2010). According to the researcher the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is not a new curriculum, but a streamlined and strengthened version of Curriculum 2005. The NCS became official government policy in May 2002. The NCS states clearly what each learner should achieve in terms of learning outcomes standards by the end of each grade (NDoE, 2011).

Michael (2008) further said that the Constitution, the South African Schools Act and various education policy documents say that all South African learners should have access to the same quality of learning and teaching, similar facilities and equal educational opportunities. However, this is not yet the case. Many people and their schools, particularly but not only in rural areas, struggle with real difficulties such as the lack of classrooms, poor access to services such as water and electricity, no landline telephones and hence no Internet, very few public or school libraries and the like. Many of these problems are linked to socio-economic factors, such as poverty and unemployment, and they also have a direct influence on the quality of education that is available to children. All of South Africa's provinces have rural areas, and all are different from each other (Michael: 2008). According to Tshiredo (2013), change can arouse emotions and despair; at the same time if taken positively it can raise hope, growth and progress. Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe (2004) point out that despite training that is meant to prepare rural teachers for changes in curriculum, teachers always show the sign of confusion, lack of support and struggle to apply change in their classrooms. The adoption of new approach, CAPS, has shifted the emphasis of learning and teaching away

from rote learning to concrete educational results called outcomes (Jacob, Vakalisa & Gawe: 2004) Furthermore, the roles of rural teachers as transmitters of knowledge changed to facilitators, to help learners achieve the desired goals, and the classroom activities mainly focused on learner-centred approach (Chisholm: 2005).

Botswana's general education system after independence
The education sector has expanded enormously since independence (1966), The RNPE did not only identify basic education as a fundamental human right but also established the goal of preparing Batswana for the transition from being a traditional agriculture-based economy to an industrial economy (RNPE,1994). The government further committed itself to the provision of a ten year basic education. This is seen as a strong basis upon which further levels of education and training would develop. The policy seeks to make education accessible to all including children with special educational needs. Primary education is the most important stage in the educational system and the government strives to make this level of education accessible to everyone. Botswana operates a 9 subject system and the subjects are: Mathematics, English, Setswana, Science, Social studies, Moral education, Creative and Performing Arts (CAPA), Physical education and Agriculture. A ten year basic education is available to all. Pupils attend primary school from the age of 6 to 13years [though some start later, particularly in the more remote areas] and work towards the Primary School Leaving Examinations (PLSE) for seven years. They then move to Junior Secondary Schools (JSS) for three years and sit for another examination referred to as the Junior Certificate Examination (JCE) a standardized examination according to internationally accepted criteria. Basic education ends here and those who proceed to Senior Secondary Schools should have passed the JCE examination as they are competing for fewer places. The examination is to produce results that are reliable for the selection of students into senior secondary education or other training programmes (Ministry of Education and Skills Training, 2008). Since 2006 school fees for secondary education have been introduced as a way of cost sharing and cost recovery as it was stated in the RNPE that it is 'necessary that educational financing in future must emphasize cost- effectiveness and cost sharing; the government will continue to provide basic education free but beyond this level beneficiaries will contribute in varying degrees the cost of their training' (RNPE, 1994 paragraphs 14.1 and 14.2). The official languages in Botswana are Setswana and English, presently the medium of instruction in schools is English which is used from Standard 2 as per the recommendation of the new Policy on Education (PE, 2002).
2.6 South Africa general education system after 1994 first democratic elections.

After 1994 in South Africa, the democratically elected African National Congress (ANC) led government started to introduce changes in education and training system in order to redress the inequality brought about by the previous apartheid led government. A new national curriculum known as CAPS (2009) was adopted in 2010.The curriculum was based on the principles of outcomes based education also known as OBE (NDoE, 2011).With the advent of a new democracy in South Africa there came a new curriculum CAPS under the auspices of RNCS. This curriculum embraced the concepts of CAPS that Spady helped to consolidate in South Africa, the emphasis on CAPS is on cooperative group learning and the outcomes that the learner will achieve at the end of the lessons (Denzin, 2014).

The policy document states that CAPS is not a new curriculum but affirms the commitment to Outcomes Based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 (C2005). It builds on the vision and values of the Constitution and CAPS in a streamlined manner. The National Education

Policy Act, 1996 No. 27 states that the learner should be numerate, literate and be a productive citizen of South Africa. Attention is given to co-operative group work, active discussion, learner paced and learner centered education, as well as the instilment of the correct skills, values and attitudes. The educator is envisaged to comply with the Norms and Standards for Educators of 2000 (National Education Policy Act, 1996). They are the mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of Learning Programmes, researchers, lifelong learners, community members, assessors and learning area / phase specialists (National Education Policy Act, 1996).

Details of the system

The average number of pupils per teacher is used to measure the level of human resource input in terms of the number of teachers in relation to pupil population size (UNESCO, EFA Technical Guidelines, 1998). On the whole, Botswana has experienced notable improvements in reducing class sizes from 40 to 30 in the mid-1990s. Class sizes are more favourable in rural areas particularly because of low population density as compared to urban areas where classes may have 46 or more students (National Development Plan 8, 2003). Boys and girls are educated in mixed ability classes from primary to tertiary level and the Education Statistics Report (1997) confirms, the participation of boys and girls at the primary level is about equal. For operation and management of schools, Botswana is divided into six primary education regions and all the regions in the country use the same national curriculum. Pre-school education is available only to those children whose parents can afford to send them to expensive day care centres and pre-schools. The overwhelming majority of parents do not have access to preschool programmes (Ministry of Education, 2001). Another form of accessing education in Botswana is through private English medium schools. These schools, although they are monitored by the Ministry of Education, have the autonomy to control their curriculum and as Molefe and Pansiri (2010) explain, they continue to be progressive and pragmatic in curriculum delivery and have maintained a sustained record of good performance in the national examination.

In South Africa curriculum system strongly influence what teachers learn from educational reform schemes, and that these system affects educators' curricular and instructional decision-making and teaching. Educators tend to adopt new classroom practices when the assumptions underlying new practices conform to their epistemological beliefs (Fetterman, 2001). It is as if beliefs form an intuitive screen, through which teaching reforms are *interpreted* (Ball, 2002). For example, educators with more traditional beliefs about teaching and learning tend to use didactic instructional methods, whereas teachers with more constructivist beliefs tend to use student-centred, inquiry-based methods (Brunner, 1999).Primary schools are divided into two divisions, they are Foundation phase and Intermediate phase. The Foundation Phase embraces grades one, two and three, with the learners ranging in age from five years old to ten years old. The three learning areas focused on are Numeracy, Literacy and Life skills. The latter term includes Arts & Culture, Technology, Economic and Management Sciences, Life Orientation, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences (National Education Policy Act, 1996). In the Phase, two or more educators are often involved with each grade so that there must be coordination and collaboration between the educators so that there is a similar learning experience for all learners in that grade (Jacobs, 2004).

The Intermediate Phase includes grades four, five and six, with the learners ranging in age from eleven years of age to fourteen years of age. The eight learning areas covered are Literacy, Arts & Culture, Technology, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Life Orientation, Economic and Management Sciences and Social Sciences. The learning areas are more specialized so different educators teach different learning areas. This results in a variety of teaching styles and role models and will thus influence the learners' career paths (Babbie, 1998). Both Phases use the same terminology in the policy documents i.e. Learning Areas, Learning Programmes, Work Schedule, Learning Outcomes, Assessment Standards, Critical Outcomes and Developmental Outcomes, Multilingualism and Multiculturalism. Both Phases incorporate the seven critical and five developmental outcomes that were expounded by Spady (Babbie, 2013).

Literature Review
Defining curriculum
It is difficult to get wide public or professional consensus on the definition of curriculum because of the diversity of values and experience of authors and researchers. As Ornstein (1992:1) points out, 'curriculum as a field of study is elusive and fragmentary and what it is supposed to entail is open to a good deal of debate and even misunderstandings'. To understand more adequately the broad range of beliefs about curriculum it may be useful to adopt Tanner and Tanner's conflicting conceptions of curriculum.

Having seen the limitations of each view presented, Tanner and Tanner (1980:38) came up with their definition of curriculum as 'the construction of knowledge and experience systematically developed under auspices of the school to enable the learner to increase his/her control of knowledge and experience'. Thinking about curriculum planning may be different according to how it is defined, though generally the organisation of schooling has long been associated with the idea of a curriculum. Lovat and Smith, (2003:9) suggest that 'there is an underlying politico-economic philosophy which impact on education and curriculum', adding another dimension from which to view curriculum, that is, to look at trends in its definition. However, it must be noted that definitions of the word curriculum do not solve curricular problems, but they do suggest perspectives from which to view them (Stenhouse, 1975).

It is certain that curriculum has been a matter of intense debate in the twentieth century. According to Aoki (1998) curriculum was developed as a discipline in the United States, as an administrative category within education and was seen as a management tool. From its origins, in Latin, the word curriculum referred to a racing chariot and it is taken from the word 'currere' which means to run (Smith, 1996). Grundy (1987) cautions that curriculum is not a concept, but a cultural construction, that is, it is not an abstract concept which has some existence outside and prior to human experience rather it is a way of organising a set of human educational practices. She continues to explain that to understand the meaning of any set of curriculum practices, we need to know about the composition and organisation of the society and we also need to understand the fundamental premises upon which it is constructed. It is necessary to further explore what exactly curriculum is before even attempting to know its characteristics and its operations.

Following are some of the diverse views about curriculum, Kerr (as quoted by Kelly, 1983) defines curriculum as all the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school. This definition is based on the two concepts namely; planned and guided. What is sought to be achieved should be specified in advance. The definition also makes reference to school, it should be recognised that curriculum theory and practice emerged in the school and in relation to other schooling ideas such as subject and lesson (Smith, 2000). The Queensland Curriculum Assessment & Reporting document (2007) defines curriculum as everything a school does to support student learning including what is taught, and the knowledge and skills acquired by students. Coles (2003) argues that curriculum is more than a list of topics to be covered by an educational programme, for which the more commonly accepted word is a 'syllabus'. A curriculum is first of all a policy statement about a piece of education, and secondly an indication as to the ways in which that policy is to be realised through a program of action. Coles continues to explain that it is useful to think of a curriculum as being much wider; it can be further defined as the sum of all the activities, experiences and learning opportunities for which an institution, society, teacher takes responsibility. Kavale (1990) and Kelly & Vergason (1978) define it as the content of the school. Therefore the term 'curriculum' may be referred to as a blanket term that encompasses everything that influences the teaching and learning process.

Kelly (1999:3) argues, 'a definition of curriculum must offer much more than a statement about knowledge-content or merely the subjects which schooling is to 'teach', it must explain and justify the purposes of such transmission and an exploration of the effects that exposure to such knowledge and such subjects is likely to have, or intended to have, on its recipients'. In addition to the above explanation of curriculum, the Queensland Curriculum Assessment and Framework (2007) adds another dimension 'the hidden curriculum' and explains that the behaviours, knowledge and performances of the learner are inferred. Coles (2003) points out that in the hidden curriculum you decide what to do at the spur of the moment. This then implies that, in an inclusive education framework, the curriculum should consider its recipients more than the imposition of the values implicit in the selection of the content (Kelly, 1999).

Multiple interpretations of curriculum
There are other interpretations associated with curriculum; Beauchamp (1975), for instance, gives an example of how curriculum and instruction are frequently depicted as interchangeable terms. He further explains that at other times, instruction is conceived to be part of curriculum, or curriculum is thought to be subordinate to instruction. Though there are vast attempts in trying to make a distinction between the two, Sands et al (1995) subscribe to the view that curriculum is the 'what', while instruction is the 'how' part of the process. And another way of expressing the same idea as suggested by Macdonald & Leeper (cited by Marsh 1997:5) is that 'curriculum activity is the production of plans for further action while instruction is the putting of plans into action'. Despite the fact that it is important to separate the functions of what and how, Marsh (1997) argues that teachers do not separate out the two functions because they are constantly planning, implementing and monitoring in their respective classrooms. If this is the case, then it means separating intentions from actions becomes hard for them. To analyse and discuss all curriculum definitions and designs would

be a massive undertaking and beyond the scope of this research because each definition is contextually construed. However, it would be helpful if this study could have a working definition of curriculum which could be applicable.

Working definition of curriculum

Another way of looking at curriculum is through process. In this sense 'a curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that is open to scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice' (Stenhouse, 1978:4) in other words, curriculum is what actually happens in the classroom and what people do to prepare and evaluate. Nunan (1988) views curriculum in terms of 'what is' rather than 'what should be'. The definitions provided by Crowe, (2005) and Vaughn, Hughes, Moody & Elbaum, (2001) have both guided a working definition of curriculum for this particular study: Curriculum is a key component during instruction and a process that requires decision- making which includes identification of goals and objectives, articulation of the expectations for the learner´s performance, determination of the content to be taught and instructional strategies to be used. Defining the curriculum as a set of performance objectives to be achieved, as described by Marsh (1997), is a very practical orientation to curriculum, and this approach focuses upon specific skills or knowledge which are considered should be attained by students. Proponents of this approach argue that if the teacher knows the targets students should achieve, it becomes easier to organise other elements to achieve this. Such elements include appropriate content and teaching methods. Though content is considered to be what is selected for teaching and learning in regard to the learning needs of children, Marsh (1997) argues the fundamental concepts of curriculum include content, purpose and organisation. Tripp (1994) indicates that characteristics of curriculum factors to look for include intentions, planning, explication, harmony and relations. Basically, curriculum is not the aspirations but it is what happens to children in school as a result of what teachers do. It includes all of the experiences of children for which the school should accept responsibility.

A curriculum is everything planned by educators that will help develop the learner and could include extramural activities, debates or outings (Republic of South Africa: National Education Policy investigation, 1992). Bogdan (1992) argues that curriculum is a broad concept which includes all planned activities and also subject courses which take place during the normal school day. He mentions that the curriculum includes after-school activities such as sports and societies. Rocco (2003) views the curriculum "as a selection from the culture of society: certain aspects of our way of life, certain kinds of knowledge, certain attitudes and values regarded as so important that their transmission to the next generation is not left to chance".

Contested Nature of Curriculum
Curriculum as Process
Looking at curriculum as process is supported by The Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit (FEU, 1980) by describing that process approaches to the curriculum are more open-ended, more concerned with continuous development and the outcome is

perceived in terms of development of certain desired processes and potentialities. Smith (1996) points out that the process approach looks at the curriculum as the interaction of teachers, students and knowledge. If we assert that curriculum belongs to the dominion of human interaction and in this logic between teacher and learners, and then Grundy (1987) concurs by pointing out that if curriculum is a practical matter, it entails that all participants in the curriculum event are to be regarded as subjects, not objects. This in turn raises issues concerning the participants' right and status within the event, which also has implications for decision-making regarding the purpose, the content and the conduct of curriculum. In other words curriculum is what happens in the classroom and what people do to prepare and evaluate. It is an active process. FEU (1980) further explains this by pointing out that 'while learners may acquire knowledge as a product, that is, the thinking of others, knowing is a process which involves them in developing their own useful strategies' for, in the words of Bruner (1996) "reducing the complexity and the clutter".

If curriculum is an active process linked with the practical form of action, then an obligation is placed upon educators to know the situations in which the curriculum texts are to be applied. Grundy (1987) points out that educators should also take seriously the status of the students as learning subjects and this means that learning, not teaching will be their central concern. The argument by Grundy is that curriculum is a particular form of specification about the practice of teaching and he continues to clarify that if learning is to be the main focus, it should involve the making of meaning. Being able to interpret the curriculum texts to understand what they prescribe is not sufficient, teachers are to reject as legitimate educational content that which does not have at its heart the making of meaning to the learner. This is clearly elaborated by Grundy (1987) by pointing out that 'when the practice of reading comprehension is informed by a technical interest, the exercise becomes one of decoding a piece of writing to arrive at pre-determined answers. When the same practice is informed by a practical interest the task will be regarded as an interaction between the author and the reader for the generation of meaning.'

Curriculum as Practice
Curriculum is more about the practice of teaching and a way of translating any educational idea into a hypothesis testable in practice. Many as already stated link curriculum to a package of materials of ground to be covered and this does not take us anywhere since it does not really explain as to what happens to the content and means which are to develop as teachers and students work together. Since learners are not objects to be acted upon, the practical approach as argued by Grundy (1987) tends towards making the process of learning central concern of the teacher, the reason being that, the way of thinking emphasizes interpretation and meaning making. As described by Smith (2006) this approach places meaning-making and thinking at its core it can lead to very different means being employed in classrooms and a high degree of variety of content.

When curriculum and teaching are both seen as practice, Reid explains that they will both be concerned with the interests of individuals and with how all components are to be reconciled, not treating each as a separate entity. If these two are brought together (practice of curriculum and practice of teaching) then they can be seen as a reflection of each other. Both teachers and learners will enter into what Reid refers to as curriculum deliberations where their intentions will be communicable to the settings and translated into action. Once these two are viewed as Reid suggests, then the classroom or the learning environment has to be re-defined as a curricular space and Barnett et al (2005) points in a curricular space, though participants (learners and teachers) are at various points, knowledge is co-produced as they engage in the practice. As members of the practice, learners exercise their agency in order to keep the practice going. In a way what the authors are pointing out here is that teachers, learners,

knowledge and curricular space all have a relationship and they share common forms and purposes to the realisation of curriculum practice. As this study has engaged constructivist theory as its framework, curriculum from a constructivist perspective views all learners as capable members of the learning environment who are continuously striving to make sense of new ideas. By doing that, constructivism places responsibility on educators to adjust standard teaching practices to accommodate the diverse needs of learners. In contrast to the hierarchical and authoritarian tendencies of transmission- oriented teaching, constructivist teaching promotes critical thinking, problem solving and recognition of multiple perspectives and also promotes preparing learners to become active participants in the classroom (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Curriculum as Product
Curriculum as 'product' has been explained as an attempt to achieve certain ends in students. Kelly (1999:60) argues, 'this is to reduce education to a scientific activity and to assume that it is legitimate to mould human beings, to modify their behaviour, according to certain clear-cut intentions'. If this is the case, the purpose of education becomes a technical exercise in that the curriculum is planned to produce a particular outcome. This way of thinking about curriculum can therefore be 'characterized as the instrumental pursuit of particular predetermined aims and objectives' (Peach, 2007: 23). With curriculum conceptualised as a product, then the focus of learning is on competition rather than cooperation as advocated for by inclusionists. In an inclusive school, 'the student competes only against herself/himself developing a process called self-knowledge or meta-evaluation of her/his own learning' (Glat, 2007:10). The curriculum as a product notion has been criticised as reducing education to a scientific activity and as such, as Kelly (1999:62) describes, it becomes 'indoctrination' rather than an education. Moreover, it is important to be aware of the fact that curriculum as a product often represents as Bloomer (1997:14) explains, the ideal rather than the actual curriculum and cautions that they may be well differences between the intended or 'ideal' curriculum as prescribed and what actually happens in practice.

In South Africa according to Themane and Mamabolo (2011), they maintain that curriculum has been ineffectively implemented in the schools because it reproduces social class divisions that have widened the gap between the historically advantaged and disadvantaged schools. Research shows that the new curriculum has a particular educator and school in mind that is mainly founded in former model c schools (Williamson & Payton, 2009).The disadvantaged communities were enthusiastic about curriculum due to its political significance but they were not well prepared to handle it. The educator had to give up space, corporal punishment, content and the text books (Jansen, 2002). Jansen questions why the problem of what policy claims and what practitioners experience remain dislocated from each. The "gap" persists in what the educator claims to do in the classroom and what they actually do in practice (Baxen and Soudin, 1999).The implementation of the effectiveness of CAPS is also hindered by the idealised image of the educator as having good attributes but they have been living in a society where poverty, racial oppression and pedagogical neglect exists (Williamson & Payton, 2009). Imemelman (2010) agrees that the view of teacher cannot be homogenised because they come from different views on the curriculum. Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that for a school to be effective they should use the action research model; satisfy the needs for the parents and learners. Let the educator be autonomous and innovative and make the work force feel important so that improvement can result (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998).The curriculum is a learner cantered with both multilingualism and multiculturalism being encouraged (Banks, 2001) prior to 1994 educator training and development was very prescriptive with educators being told how to behave, what to do and they were regularly suspended by the inspectors (Mudzeilwana: 2012). Today things have changed but not for the

better. There was no situational analysis made in the schools so that their unique circumstances and needs could be considered prior to their training and development resulted in the quality of training differing from place to place and from province to province (Carl, 1995). Jansen (1998) concurred that there was lack of support programmes and focus on writing the curriculum.

According to Moodley (2014) the educators were ignorant and uniformed with the under lying curriculum theory and this would cause inefficiency in the in the implementation of curriculum. Fleish (2002) found that grade one was regarded as a failure and that scheduling, location and (8) duration were problematic. In both foundation and intermediate phase there was misunderstanding and uncertainly after only a week of training. The department officials were trained for nine weeks and educators had forty hours of training (William & Payton, 2009). There seemed to be many unanswered questions that the facilitators would not answer and this would hinder the effective implementation of CAPS in schools. Bertels (2011) argue that if there are weak channels of communication and an absence of evaluation based on feedback then both the curriculum design and development programme will be doomed.

Statement of the problem
Educators do well in curriculum implementation where they are motivated, however, the atmosphere of the South African and Botswana education systems has not motivated educators to the level where they positively promote the quality of teaching and learning as required by the curriculum; both South African and Botswana educators feel that they are not supported by the department and community which has a negative effect on learner academic performance; their efforts are not recognized and incentives and rewards for outstanding achievements are limited.

While there are efforts to develop educators on the implementation of Curriculum in both South African and Botswana schools, educators and principals in rural schools remain neglected. The schools in these areas remain marginalized, and their educators have not been trained to deal with the wider implications (Imemelman, 2010) of the curriculum introduced. It can, therefore, be envisaged that the implementation of the curriculum would be fraught with challenges for teachers in schools in the rural areas which remain under resourced. It has been long since the colonisation policies in both South Africa and Botswana have been repealed, but the status quo in schools still remains. Schools in rural areas experience poor human and physical conditions which contribute negatively towards promotion of quality teaching and learning as dictated by the curriculum. Based on the background given above, one assumes that there are challenges facing teachers in rural schools and that there is, a low in-depth understanding and insight into what Botswana and South African teachers are expected to do in their classroom or schools to implement the curriculum.

Aim
The aim of this study was to gain an in-depth understanding and insight into what Botswana and South Africa teachers do in their classrooms or schools to implement the curricula. It was also aimed at examining how teachers understood curriculum and how their understanding impacted on its implementation.

Significance of study
The study has the potential to contribute to scholarly research, improving policy and practice of curriculum implementation as well as informing teacher trainers on the gaps that exist in teacher programmes with regard to curriculum implementation. The study also has the potential to bring new insights to policy makers and policy implementers in finding ways of closing the gap between policy and practice for the effective implementation of curricula in Botswana and South Africa schools.

Research Questions
The following research questions guided the study:
1. How best can both Botswana and South African teachers gain an in-depth understanding and insight towards implementation of the curriculum in their schools?

2. What are the challenges facing Botswana and South African school teachers in the rural areas in the implementation of Curriculum?

4. What is the impact of the challenges facing Botswana and South African teachers in rural schools in the implementation of Curriculum on learner academic performance?

5. How can Botswana and South African teachers in rural areas be supported while implementing the Curriculum in the primary schools for them to provide quality teaching and learning?

Contribution to the body of knowledge
This research would be the first academic study on this topic for both South Africa and Botswana in the southern region part of Africa. The research is envisaged to make an impact contribution to the field of education in both South Africa and Botswana. As indicated above, rural schools education has always been treated as a second option after farming in both Botswana and South Africa, which we intend showing through presentations in conferences and published papers.
The significance and the contribution of the present study is envisioned as follows:

- The study will reveal empirical evidence on Botswana and South African teachers in-depth understanding and insight of the implementing the Curriculum.

- The findings of the study will assist both South African and Botswana education department in deciding on the kind of immediate support as an intervention strategy to improve the implementation of the curriculum.

- The study will affirm that education systems in South African and Botswana can flourish if teachers get into support programmes for implementing a curriculum.

Furthermore, it is envisaged that the study will benefit stakeholders in education at various levels of operation in South African and Botswana in the following ways:

- Provide feedback to curriculum developers on the implementation of the curriculum and thus be in a position to effect improvements that address problems uncovered;

- To provide strategies for helping teachers for them to implement curriculum with a view to improving the quality of teaching and enhance educators' morale.

- In both South Africa and Botswana, learners are the direct beneficiaries of a quality learning experience. The probability of learners achieving intended learning outcomes will be improved.

- A foundation for further research on a similar topic covering a wider sample will be laid.

Methodology

According to Creswell, 2014 and Polit & Beck, 2010 methodology refers to 'how evidence is gathered and meaning derived from it'. Guba & Lincoln (1994) explains, the methodological question is answered by adherents of the constructivist paradigm by asserting that the inquiry must be carried out in a way that will expose the constructions of the variety of concerned parties. Since the interpretative paradigm aims at discovering the meanings from those involved in a particular study and from a particular context, the use of a qualitative approach and the collection of qualitative data helps in better understanding such constructions.

The aim of this study is to understand how the concept of curriculum is understood and enacted in Botswana and South African classrooms.

If the study is approached qualitatively, Henning (2004) explains, and then qualitative methods will be used. Researchers used observations, interviews and document analysis to gather information on teachers' understandings of curriculum. Since the aim of the research was to explore what teachers do in their classrooms, observing them helped us to see what they were doing, interviewing them helped us to understand the rationale behind their actions and document analysis helped us to understand the overview conceptualisation of the school and government regarding the implementation of curriculum.

Research field

In Botswana, the study was conducted in six primary schools in rural areas with a population ranging from 150 to 650 while in South Africa, the study was conducted in five primary schools in rural areas with a population ranging from 100 to 400. The reason for choosing schools in rural areas in both countries was to find out if teaching in such areas had any impact on teachers' ways of approaching and implementing curriculum. The schools were chosen by education officers based on the information they got from the researcher.

Classroom observations were carried out, teachers were interviewed and documents were obtained and analysed. Head-teachers and Head of departments were included in interviews to triangulate the data.

Participants

In Botswana the sample size of the study was 12, inclusive of teachers and head-teachers and in South Africa the sample size of the study was 10, teachers and Head of departments were included. In Botswana the choice of teacher participants in each school was made by head-teachers and in South Africa the choice of teacher participants in each school was made by head-teachers based on our discussions. In both South Africa and Botswana, each school teachers and head- teachers or Head of departments as they are called in South Africa (depending on their availability) were interviewed. Teachers in Botswana, who participated were purposively chosen from different sections: lower (STD 1-3), middle (STD 4-5) and upper (STD 6-7). For example: each section had two or four classes and only one teacher was selected (by the head-teacher) from a section. In one school, one teacher would be from upper whereas the other teacher would be from lower section, or it could be lower and middle

section depending on how the school found it fit. Teachers in South Africa, who participated were purposively chosen from different phases: Foundation phase (Grade R-3), Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6). For example: Foundation phase had four classes and only one teacher was selected (by the Head of department) from a phase. In one school, one teacher would be from Intermediate whereas the other teacher would be from the Foundation phase. The reason using participants teaching different standards in Botswana and different grades in South Africa were to gather balanced information on whether or not teaching a particular standard or grades have an impact on how teachers implement the curriculum. The reason for using 'purposive sampling' (Burgess, 1984) was driven by the availability and willingness of the researched to participate in the study.

Procedures prior to data collection

In Botswana, a series of steps were followed to collect data for this study. Prior to data collection the researcher obtained a certificate of research approval from the University of Botswana. The researcher then proceeded by completing the Ministry of Education (Research Unit) forms which is a requirement when seeking permission to do research in Botswana schools. After receiving the research permit the researcher sought and obtained other permits from the Regional Offices for rural areas. Telephone appointments were then made with head-teachers of all six schools to be involved in the study. At the schools, the researcher produced all research permits which clearly outlined the purpose of the study and further explained the study to both the head-teachers and teachers, assuring them it was not an evaluative but an explorative process. Before the actual observation and interviews, the researcher had the opportunity to conference with the teachers and each teacher was asked to provide a schedule for class visits which was agreed upon by both parties.

In South Africa, the researcher obtained a certificate of research approval from the University of South African schools from the District manager. After receiving the research permit the researcher sought and obtained other permits from the Circuit offices offices for rural areas. Telephone appointments were then made with school principals of all five schools to be involved in the study. At the schools, the researcher produced all research permits which clearly Zululand. The researcher then proceeded by applying to seek permission to do research in outlined the purpose of the study and further explained the study to both school principals and teachers, assuring them it was only meant for an explorative process. Like in Botswana, before the actual observation and interviews, the researcher in South Africa had the opportunity to conference with teachers and each teacher was asked to provide a schedule for class visits which was agreed upon by both parties.

Data collection methods

For Both Botswana and South Africa, multiple data collection methods were employed to obtain information intended to answer the questions of this study. The main methods were observations and interviews while document analysis was used as a supplementary data collection method. These methods allowed us to obtain a good indication of teachers' understanding of what they were doing in their classroom as the data collected related specifically to the 'real life', day-to-day experiences of the teachers (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Data were collected over a period of two and a half months with one week in each school and weekends used for preliminary data analysis. The seventh and eighth week were used for data verification i.e. for any missing information and any further clarification on some issues.

Data management and analysis

Merriam (1998:192) explains that data analysis is 'a process of making sense out of raw data'. Maykut & Morehouse (1994:121) further explain that the 'process of qualitative data analysis takes many forms, but it is fundamentally a non-mathematical analytic procedure that involves examining the meaning of people's words and actions'. After collecting data from the first school, I immediately began my analysis by reading observational notes and documents and listening to interview tapes. This was a way of finding out what alterations to make or what to add before going into other schools. Having collected all the data from all schools, it was organised and interpreted guided by levels of coding (Creswell, 2014; Henning et al, 2004): 1) open coding- the data were divided into segments then scrutinised for commonalities that could reflect categories or themes; 2) axial coding- the codes (categories and concepts) were related to each other, via a combination of inductive and deductive thinking, into coding families; and 3) selective coding- core (or main) categories were selected and then systematically related to other categories. At the same time, this involved the validation of these relationships, and then filling in any categories that perhaps required further refining and/or developing and leading to themes.

Level 1: I transcribed the audio-recorded interviews manually and I filed them in a notebook leaving space for coding, memos and notes. Field notes were revised and documents reviewed. Each page of transcriptions and field notes were coded in the upper right-hand corner for easy identification of various sources. I then re- read transcripts several times in order to get a sense of the whole data before breaking it into parts. The next stage was to write memos in the margins of the text which were key phrases, ideas and concepts occurring to me. Through this process, I started sorting the data according to unique information for each school, 'developing tentative ideas about categories and relationships' (Maxwell, 1996:78). This was an initial process which helped me to explore the database (Creswell, 2005). I read and re-read the data in order to develop categories and themes, and as Miles & Huberman (1994) explain, such coding allowed me to fracture the data thereby reaching higher levels of abstraction by seeing the data in different groupings. Following is a table showing examples of raw data from interviews with level 1 coding.

Findings, interpretations and discussion
This chapter presents the findings from the data analysis and includes direct quotations from participants, observation and document analysis data. After analysing each theme, interpretation and discussion will follow in this chapter. Interpretation is required to bring order and understanding and Patton (2002:503-504) explains 'interpretation represents your personal and theoretical understanding of the phenomenon under study and it provides sufficient description to allow the reader to understand the basis for an interpretation, and sufficient interpretation to allow the reader to understand the description'. The interpretation and discussion of the findings starts by summarising and reviewing the findings of the study obtained from data analysis and giving responses to the research questions. The study was guided by the following research questions:
1. How best can both Botswana and South African teachers gain an in-depth understanding and insight towards implementation of the curriculum in their schools?

2. What are the challenges facing Botswana and South African school teachers in the rural areas in the implementation of Curriculum?

4. What is the impact of the challenges facing Botswana and South African teachers in rural schools in the implementation of Curriculum on learner academic performance?

5. How can Botswana and South African teachers in rural areas be supported while implementing the Curriculum in the primary schools for them to provide quality teaching and learning?

Participants' responses have been collated across schools in Botswana and South Africa. Where there are specific differences between teachers (for example, qualification level, standard taught, role) or schools (for example, urban) these are elaborated upon. While each theme will be discussed separately, it should be noted that there are strong interrelations between themes and how they relate to the research questions of this study. For example, how teachers understood curriculum impacted on how they delivered the curriculum to learners. Furthermore, their understanding of the concepts under study was shaped by their personal, contextual and political factors. Having explained that, it is worth mentioning that these themes provided a framework that was useful to structure the discussion of the emergent themes. Findings will be presented, interpreted and discussed.

Curriculum a) Curriculum concept b) translation of curriculum c) curriculum delivery
Participants' understanding regarding issues of curriculum/curricula can be interpreted and located within the contested nature of curriculum. Their responses were varied and diverse and such variations reflected the challenges and problematic nature of defining curriculum which is evident within the literature. Data revealed that most teachers viewed curriculum as a guide and their task as educators was to deliver that which it prescribed. The following extracts are illustrative: 'Curriculum is a guide that is used to guide teachers' (Head-teacher A- Botswana). *'The curriculum stipulates that you have to teach 1, 2, 3 and I followed it'* (Teacher A- Botswana). *'It is a policy document which guides our day to day activities more especially in a classroom situation'* (Teacher A South Africa Teachers' responses about what curriculum is revealed that there was a general feeling that curriculum is a government edict since it [curriculum] prescribes what to teach while their duty as educators is nothing but to deliver it as it is.

When asked to make recommendations, teachers and head-teachers who participated in this study indicated that they were concerned that they are not involved in the curriculum development and their views can be summed up as follows: '*since we are expected to teach this curriculum, we want to be involved during its formation not just to be involved in implementing it'* (Teacher A South Africa). Additionally, regarding other curricula issues, teachers indicated that even if they wanted to include some other things in their plans they could not do so 'because we are following the Ministry's guideline of lesson planning which is limiting and there is no room to expand' (Teacher B -Botswana). Regarding the nature of the curriculum in Botswana, teachers' responses included: '*I have 9 months to prepare these pupils for examinations', 'time is limited', 'I have to finish the syllabus'* and 'rushing through the syllabus to finish objectives'. As these quotes demonstrate, participants saw the 'curriculum as product' because they described it as oriented towards examinations, for this reason forcing them to base their teaching on set objectives. If the curriculum is defined in

terms of declared aims and pre-specified objectives, the purpose of education becomes very instrumental in that the curriculum is planned to produce a particular outcome (curriculum as outcome/product). Those who do not fit within the intended outcomes are left out.

In South Africa our analysis revealed that none of the ten participants had proper planning for the lessons. One participant reflected as follows;

> *"I teach according to what is indicated in the CAPS document. Everything is prescribed; the content, knowledge, skills are all outlined per term and per grade. In this document, the curriculum designers already did other planning levels for us."*

Another participant responded to "planning" as follows;

> *"Really…I see no need for lesson plans because the activities, resources, and assessment tasks for the term are indicated in CAPS document."*

It is apparent from the above reflections that some teachers rely solely on what is prescribed, without even attempting to adapt activities according to their different contexts. The CAPS (2012) document requires that teachers examine suitability of themes and topics based on their contexts.

Based on such responses of conceptualizing curriculum within the confines of time, teachers pointed out that the real tension for them is meeting the governments' testing requirements of the curriculum. They also indicated that they have pressure to cover the curriculum, which compels them to be more concerned with covering the curriculum breadth than understanding its depth

Data showed clearly that teachers felt powerless in not having a voice in curriculum development. The argument arising from this finding is that the notion of power resides in those involved in making decisions about the curriculum (Clough, 2000) while teachers, who are the key players, are the recipients of other peoples' ideas. If successful curriculum implementation is to take place, it is necessary to bring about a feeling of ownership amongst teachers because they are the ones involved in putting ideas into classroom practice.

Policy practice
Based on their views about government policies, teachers were aware that much is expected of them particularly in light of the fact that they are responsible for delivering the curriculum. This was reflected in the following extract: *'include teachers in curriculum formation rather than implementation stage'* (Teacher A School B). Additionally, they reported that since they lack a voice in the education processes regarding the development of the curriculum, they follow what is prescribed. '*I teach the subjects in the curriculum as they are because they [subjects] are being tested so if I divert from what the curriculum is saying, the kids will not know what they are supposed to write at the end of the year'* (Teacher E – Botswana) It could be concluded that from teachers' views, issues of power arose. In South Africa research has established that the majority of rural teachers are not clear on how curriculum policies are

applied (Harber & Mncube, 2010). This study revealed evidence that some teachers were unfamiliar with curriculum policies in practice and experienced a challenge of infusing these curriculum policies in planning. Lesson observations and document analysis revealed that some teachers did not comply with curriculum policies, as they were unable to carry out assessment forms to the prescribed standard of National Protocol for Assessment (DoE: 2011) to enhance higher order knowledge and skills. Not all participants had intensive knowledge and understanding of the purpose of curriculum policies for curriculum implementation. The implication here was that teachers felt powerless when it comes to what policy documents impose on them. Their responses regarding curriculum as a policy showed that there was some sort of disassociation from this policy as it is exemplified by the following extract: '*I believe I understand it as a policy document*'(Teacher C- Botswana).

Lack of communication between policy developers and policy implementers might lead to diverse interpretation of the content which might not necessarily be what the policy developers intended. Additionally, We are of the view that it is necessary to generate a feeling of ownership among teachers to play a part in the curriculum policy, but given a situation (like Botswana) where decisions are highly centralised this might lead to what Morris (1998) refers to as very limited teacher participation. As teachers are the ones to put innovatory ideas into classroom practice, they ought to play a significant role in the curriculum development process (Carless, 1997).

Support

One of the themes that emerged from the data was support to teachers in the implementation of curriculum. Teachers felt that having such as teacher aides or teaching assistants could help them in successfully implementing the curriculum. *if it was like in urban areas or English medium schools whereby a class has an assistant teacher, I think that way it could be better …*'.(School B- Botswana).

Teachers believed that having teaching assistants would help to support access to learning for many learners and provide general support to the teacher in the management of these learners and the classroom.

In South Africa the results of this study confirmed the research findings from other scholars, indicating that participants received little training when a curriculum was introduced (Moalosi & Molwane, 2010: 33). Participants expressed the view that the training they received was inadequate for them to implement the curriculum effectively. In their responses, they indicated that the training they received was just providing a basic knowledge and understanding of the amendment to the curriculum, as one participant shared her experience:

> "*I thought that facilitators' knowledge and understanding on training teachers had been influenced by the fact that CAPS is built on NCS. Therefore, they took for granted that they should not go deep into training teachers because they already know more about NCS content. It was just to orientate teachers with the new additions and omissions.*"

On the other hand, there were teachers who benefited on CAPS training through the knowledge they gained from NCS previous workshops. Another participant responded as follows:

> *"CAPS training advanced me more because of the knowledge and understanding I received from NCS previous workshops."*

Regarding the quality of training teachers received, the above responses reveal that teachers have different perceptions of the training they received. The findings further suggest that workshops have been provided before the curriculum implementation process could begin.

Furthermore, some teachers felt that they did not get any support from the Ministry which has been mandated to ensure that the implementation of curriculum in schools takes place. *'No, no one has [work-shopped us] except our head-teacher, even bone ba [those from] Ministry gaba nke batla [they never come] but they expect us to do miracles'* (School F- Botswana)

To further authenticate this, in Botswana, an officer at Curriculum Development and Evaluation (CDE) [a department charged with the responsibility to support curriculum modification and adaptation] was interviewed. He informed the researcher that they source out technical support from Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD) to support the implementation of curriculum. Another officer from MoESD was also interviewed and her responses were similar to those of the CDE officer. She pointed out that MoESD works in partnership with other stakeholders to support the implementation of the curriculum in Botswana by holding workshops in schools. When the views of the two officers were cross checked with those of teachers, it emerged from the data that none of the teachers had attended any implementation workshop on inclusive education organised by the Ministry except within school or regional workshops *'sometimes we are invited by our regional officer for workshops, and she workshops us and gives us some skills to share with other teachers'* (School F- Botswana). If schools are to give every learner the opportunity to become successful, an effective support system should be made available for teachers, they need the opportunity to develop a clear understanding of the innovation, and they need to be given time to become convinced of its value and of its potential to make a difference in terms of pupil learning. 'The quality of the working relationships of teachers is strongly related to implementation of any innovation or change of practice,' (Fullan, 1991:132). Teacher buy in is more likely when they feel supported in their endeavours if they are to make an effort and change the practice (Cole, 2005; Bourke et al, 2004).

Conclusion
The major conclusions of this study are that participants in both countries had a contextual understanding of curriculum but there was a wide gap between the understanding of the concept and implementing it based on the context of how it is defined by the guidelines on in both countries. Teachers' actions and their understanding of doing what they did established that their understanding seemed not to address the problems of access to curriculum for learners. Offering learning experiences and providing opportunities which require learners to actively participate in their learning seemed minimal. This seemed to lead to these children lacking the curiosity and intrinsic motivation to learn as suggested by Montgomery (1990: 60).
As much as policy makers believe that teachers are to implement the curriculum in schools, this study hopes to make some suggestions that it is not about what teachers have to do it is about everybody getting involved to drive this implementation. We need to understand all the

different circumstances and all the different contextual factors within a certain context to understand why teachers respond in a certain way. Therefore, there is need for both governments to close the gap between policy and this gap may be closed if factors like politics, resources and organisational structures can change. This change may lead to outcomes of teaching and learning becoming qualitatively different for all learners. The aim of such change should be an ongoing reflective process to all involved. Having good policies and not supporting teachers to implement them could lead to those policies positioning themselves in opposition to this process. The current study showed that both structural and ideological changes are necessary if teachers in rural areas are to positively contribute to achieving aims of education in both countries. The gap between policy and practice is evident when teachers attempt to merge the implementation of curriculum with the pressure of preparing learners for examinations. In the light of this overwhelming tension, the need to redefine education in Botswana and South Africa becomes imperative.

During the investigation of rural teachers' on curriculum implementation, factors emerged that impede their curriculum implementation. This study highlighted the basic training teachers received, lack of support programme, inadequate resources, poor infrastructure and overcrowding. According to the research findings, the basic training affected rural teachers' knowledge and understanding of curriculum principles, instructional planning, teaching and learning, and support programmes in that some teachers were unable to meet the requirements of curriculum implementation. The study confirmed that rural teachers' knowledge and programme of support of curriculum implementation are not on the same level with their counter parts in urban areas. The challenges highlighted above seemed likely to bring about curriculum implementation to an ultimate low level of success in rural areas. We conclude that some participants saw the development of support programme as the core root in helping rural teachers towards implementation of the curriculum in rural areas.

Recommendations

We recommend that curriculum designers in both South Africa and Botswana should consider the context in which the curriculum is to be implemented before the initial stage of curriculum implementation begins. More importantly, implementers of curriculum need to be evaluated by exploring their views through official from the district and provincial Teacher Curriculum Development Forums in South African case, to ensure that they are ready to implement the curriculum changes. This will attempt to bridge the gap that may exist between theory and practice.

Decision-making in the process of curriculum implementation in both South Africa and Botswana should be participatory to avoid resistance and to develop a sense of belonging among the staff members. The outlined learning areas should be adequately covered. The management and administration system should be effective enough to implement the curriculum successfully and respond to the needs and interests of trainees. A comprehensive CAPS training programme for teachers and other education curriculum officers as part of their professional preparation and in-service training should be compulsory. Core modules for curriculum change programmes should be created so that educators can receive credits towards further qualifications. Training of teachers and an awareness of problems facing educators, such as that implementation was not well thought through, should receive priority. Schools should also link up with the community to participate in school governance. There should be enough teaching and learning resource support materials. The number of projects

required from learners must be reduced. Good positive support from the Department of Education is essential. There should be adequate infrastructure for accommodating learners.

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