

**THE EXTENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER INVOLVEMENT  
IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE  
SOUTH AND SOUTH CENTRAL EDUCATION REGIONS OF  
SOUTHERN BOTSWANA.**

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NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY



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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH AND  
SOUTH CENTRAL EDUCATION REGIONS OF SOUTHERN BOTSWANA**

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of a**

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**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**

**At the**

**NORTHWEST UNIVERSITY**

**BY**

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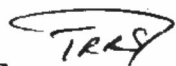
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## DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education at the North West University, has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university. It is my own work in design and execution. All the materials taken from other sources contained in the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

SIGNATURE -----



**Temba RRS Mmusi**

Date -----

27 September 2005

## **CERTIFICATE OF ACCEPTANCE**

This thesis entitled: “The extent of Primary School Teacher involvement in Curriculum Development: A Case Study of the South and South Central Education Regions of southern Botswana”, written by **Temba RRS Mmusi** of the Department of Teaching and Curriculum in the Faculty of Education is here recommended for acceptance for examination.

**Promoters:** -----

Professor M W Mwenesongole

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Dr M W Lumadi

**DEPARTMENT:** Teaching and Curriculum

**FACULTY:** Education

**INSTITUTION:** North West University

## **DEDICATION**

To Girlies, Doba and Ntiti who contributed unknowingly to this study. They urged me to study in South Africa even if it was not time yet to do so. Their covert motive, - **Joy Ride!**

I probably have every reason to dedicate this work to them.

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The Director of the Department of Primary Education **Mr Segomotso Basiamang** too deserves special mention. He has contributed immensely by allowing me permission to carry out research in the sampled primary schools.

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I wish **Sebeccoekgomo** and **Mosidi**, my dad and mum respectively were alive. They would be filled with joy that sooner, they would be having a son 'doctor' to attend to all their health needs. In African culture, especially among elders, a doctor is a '*medicine person*' whether traditional or modern.

The following were also of great help to me:

Drs Lekoko and Letshabo of the UB, Departments of Adult Education (DAE) and Centre for Academic Development (CAD) respectively provided material support. Material support also came from Ruth Monau of UB, Department of Primary Education.

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Dr SLT Moeng also of UB, Department of Statistics helped with some statistical calculation of the pilot study results.

My friend Dick helped to scan the Map of Botswana, which I used in the project. He also aligned some figures in the research project.

Ms K. Busang of the Department of Local Government Service Management (DLGSM) availed her printer facility to me when I needed it the most.

May the good Lord enrich their helping hand because they have heeded His call by going to all nations (Matthew Chapter 28). May He bless and make use of them.

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent of primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development in the South and South Central Education Regions of Southern Botswana. It also examined the teachers' contribution to curriculum development in Botswana.

The introduction of the study provides the aim, problem statements, limitations, and defines critical concepts used in the study among other things.

The methodology of the study employed IS survey research in its design. The population of the respondents in the two regions is five thousand five hundred and ninety (5590). The sample targeted was six hundred (600) teacher respondents. However, the actual number achieved was three hundred and fifty-three (353).

Data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire, which was piloted before the main study was undertaken. Twenty (20) teachers in one primary school were used in the pilot study, out of which fourteen (14) teachers responded.

The research findings indicated that primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development. With respect to this, the majority of the respondents indicated

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>BAC</b>	-	<b>Botswana Accountancy College</b>
<b>BCA</b>	-	<b>Botswana College of Agriculture</b>
<b>BOTUSA</b>	-	<b>Botswana/United States of America</b>
<b>CAD</b>	-	<b>Centre for Academic Development</b>
<b>CDPM</b>	-	<b>Curriculum Development Procedures Manual</b>
<b>CDOs</b>	-	<b>Curriculum Development Officers</b>
<b>CDU</b>	-	<b>Curriculum Development Unit</b>
<b>CJSS</b>	-	<b>Community Junior Secondary School</b>
<b>CSSU</b>	-	<b>Communication and Study Skills Unit</b>
<b>DAE</b>	-	<b>Department of Adult Education</b>
<b>DCAC</b>	-	<b>District Curriculum Advisory Council</b>
<b>DCDE</b>	-	<b>Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation</b>
<b>DLGSM</b>	-	<b>Department of Local Government Service Management</b>
<b>DPE</b>	-	<b>Department of Primary Education</b>
<b>EOs</b>	-	<b>Education Officers</b>
<b>ERA/Bill</b>	-	<b>Education Reform Act/Bill</b>
<b>HIV/AIDS</b>	-	<b>Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome</b>
<b>HoD</b>	-	<b>Head of Department</b>
<b>IHSs</b>	-	<b>Institutes of Health Science</b>

<b>JSEIP</b>	-	<b>Junior Secondary Education Improvement Project</b>
<b>LDCs</b>	-	<b>Least Developed Countries</b>
<b>MLG</b>	-	<b>Ministry of Local Government</b>
<b>MoE</b>	-	<b>Ministry of Education</b>
<b>NCE</b>	-	<b>National Commission on Education</b>
<b>NDPs</b>	-	<b>National Development Plans</b>
<b>NPC</b>	-	<b>National Programmes Committee</b>
<b>PCDM</b>	-	<b>Participatory Curriculum Development Model</b>
<b>RNPE</b>	-	<b>Revised National Policy on Education</b>
<b>SAC</b>	-	<b>Subject Area Committee</b>
<b>SADC</b>	-	<b>Southern African Development Community</b>
<b>SBCD</b>	-	<b>School Based Curriculum Development</b>
<b>UB</b>	-	<b>University of Botswana</b>
<b>UCAS</b>	-	<b>Universities and Colleges Admissions Services</b>
<b>UK</b>	-	<b>United Kingdom</b>
<b>US</b>	-	<b>United States</b>
<b>USA</b>	-	<b>United States of America</b>
<b>VDCs</b>	-	<b>Village Development Committees</b>

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# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND BACKGROUND ORIENTATION**

### **1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

This chapter focuses on the background of the study. It also highlights the problem that is being investigated, namely the extent of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development.

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Since independence in 1966, Botswana has gone through a number of educational reforms. The National Development Plans (NDPs) are the major foundations for policy formulation and implementation in education and other sectors of the Botswana economy. The first National Commission on Education (NCE) policy report was published in 1977. Subsequent to this report was the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE), (1993). Then the National Council on Education (NCE) was established by the Government of Botswana through the Ministry of Education (MoE) as a standing body to monitor the implementation of policies on education (Revised National Policy on Education, 1993:423).

As a way of participation in educational development, teachers have been holding biennial conferences to look for mechanisms through which to implement successfully official policies like the RNPE. The following were the themes of such conferences:

1. The education of teachers: The proceedings of the first national teacher education conference (Evans, M. W., Mogami, H. S. and Reed, J. A., 1992).
2. Botswana's challenge for Quality Education into the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Future directions in teacher education (Charakupa, R., Odharo, J. and Rathedi, M., 1995)
3. Improving Education Quality for Effective Learning: The Teacher's Dilemma, (Yandila, C. D., Moanakwena, P., O'mara, F. R., Kakanda, A. M. and Mensah, J., 1997).
4. Advocating instructional improvement in the new millennium: Developing strategies for teacher education in Botswana (Letsholo, D., Mogotsi, T. D., Sebina, K. N., Molelo, C., Solomon, R., Kgwefane, T. A., Matenge, B., Yandila, C. D. and Motshidisi, P. J., 2001).
5. Translating Vision 2016 into reality through curriculum change (Letsholo, D., Mogotsi, T. D., Sebina, K. N., Molelo, C., Solomon, R., Kgwefane, and T. A., Matenge, B., Yandila, C. D. and Motshidisi, P. J., 2002).
6. Towards the realisation of a developed and informed nation: A challenge for Educators. The discussion of these conference proceedings took place in 2003 but it is still in press. All the five conferences, as indicated earlier on, focused on the development of education.

Both the national education policies and teacher conferences aimed at reviewing the education system in Botswana with a view to finding out if it addresses the felt needs of the country in a practical sense. The teacher conferences in particular, played a crucial role because they served to address areas of particular concern, which could have been left unnoticed by the commissions. Wherever it was felt that certain critical issues have been overlooked, these conferences addressed them immediately and made further recommendations on them. To ensure that every able bodied Motswana benefits from continuing and universal education, the Government has gone further and has come up with a national vision whose target year is 2016, - hence Vision 2016 (1997:5), which states:

*... Botswana will have a system of quality education that is able to adapt to the changing needs of the country as the world around us changes. Improvement in the relevance, the quality, and access to education lie at the core of the vision for the future. All Batswana will have the opportunity for continued and universal education, with options during and after secondary level to take up vocational or technical training as an alternative to purely academic study. The public and private sectors will develop education in partnership.*

The statements of intention as stipulated in the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) emanated from the nation wide consultations on issues

pertaining to the education of Batswana of all age groups. The colonial curriculum, which was inherited at independence, placed more emphasis on training for white-collar employment. This training ignored all other important sub-sectors such as vocational education and training. To rectify the mistakes of the past, the vision provides an option for either vocational or technical training alongside the academic curriculum. The government also embarked on a rigorous programme of instituting commissions to review the curricula as it has already been stated. One of the focuses here was to develop clear goals of education.

#### **1.1.1 Goals of education**

There are many goals of education for Botswana. These goals focus on improving education in general and making individual citizens to have access to it. Some of the goals, according to Chipeta (1999:26), include:

- a) to increase access and quality*
- b) to improve and maintain quality at all levels*
- c) to increase cost-effectiveness and cost-sharing in the financing of education.*

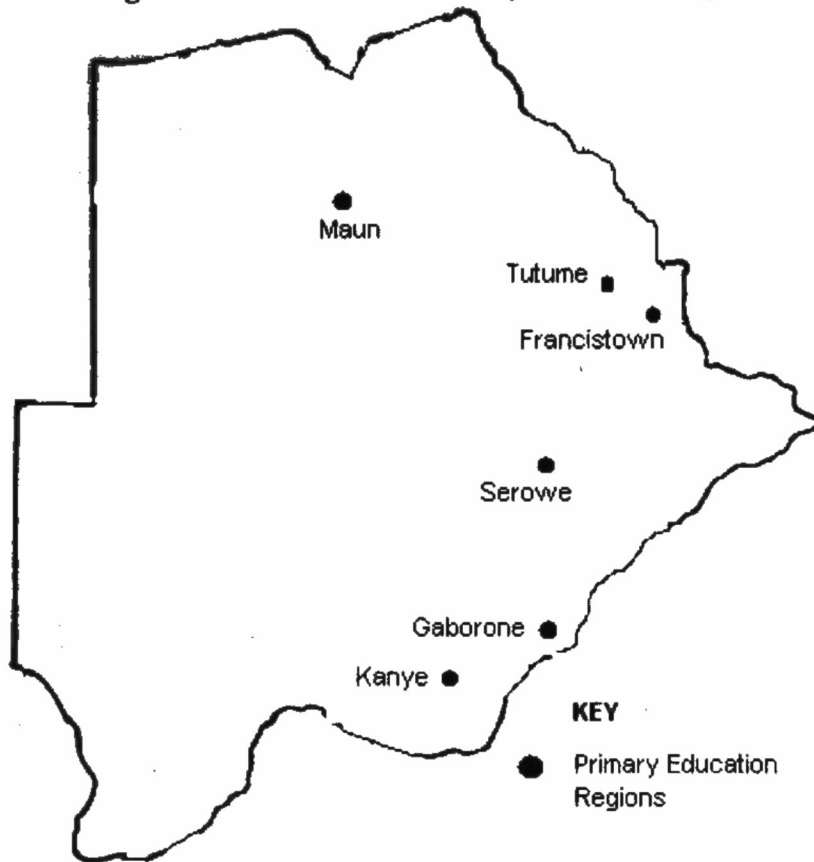
The goals of education have been categorised into levels by the education system, (for instance, primary, secondary and teacher education systems). All these systems, up to tertiary level, constitute the regular schools in Botswana.

In Botswana, curriculum development, its implementation and evaluation is coordinated by the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation (DCDE). The arrangement is a result of the recommendations of the Report of the National Commission on Education (1993:78), which aimed at strengthening the Department to enable it to perform the development and implementation exercises. The curriculum is developed together with teachers' guides and other support materials, which should guide the operations of curriculum implementation. The current systems of education have however been fashioned largely by the RNPE (1997). Each level of education has its own goals that were derived from the national goals of education.

## **1.2 LOCATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION REGIONS IN BOTSWANA**

As indicated in the map on page 4, there are six (6) education regions for the Department of Primary Education (DPE) in Botswana. They are South in Kanye, South Central in Gaborone, Central South in Serowe, North in Francistown, and Central North in Tutume and West in Maun. Each region is made up of districts, which are further sub-divided into inspectorial areas. The Ministry of Education runs these regions. The map, Figure 1, on page 6 indicates the distribution of all the primary education regions in Botswana.

**Figure 1: Distribution of Primary Education Regions in Botswana**



### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Primary school teachers are supposed to be the primary actors in curriculum development activities in the Botswana primary education system in general and specifically in their respective classrooms and schools. They are therefore, as a result, always expected to implement curriculum, which is developed for the system of education. Very often, problems develop between what is taught and the official curriculum. The primary school teachers tend to implement aspects of the curriculum with which they are familiar, more than those with which they are not. This could result from many things, one of which is primary school teachers'

lack of preparation and preparedness to perform curriculum development tasks. Lack of preparation and preparedness might pose a problem worth investigating, which relates to curriculum development. Curzon (2004:214) indicates that 'preparedness involves the teacher's explanation, in carefully contrived terms, of the significance and usefulness of the learning in relation to the learner's life style'. In general, teachers feel unprepared and incapable of providing adequately to meet the social, emotional and physical needs of all children (de Voogd, 1995, in Moyles and Hargreaves, 1998:144). De Voogd (1995) is supported by the recommendations of the Revised National Policy on Education (1994) that primary school teacher preparation should provide for specialisation at pre-primary, lower primary and upper primary levels with some subject specialisations at the upper primary as well.

The Report further recommends that the primary teacher training curriculum should prepare teachers to handle adequately some of the innovative methods and practices such as breakthrough to Setswana, continuous assessment, remedial teaching, guidance and counseling, and so on. It seems that the Report had taken note of lack of preparation by the primary school teachers to handle these innovative methods and practices, hence its recommendations.

The other problem could be that teacher education at the primary colleges of education does not adequately offer curriculum studies as a major component of pre-service teacher training education. If pre-service teacher education lacks or

has some deficiency in curriculum component, then, primary school teachers will not be equipped with the knowledge and the necessary skills to participate in developing the curriculum.

The question to ask is: “What is the involvement of the primary school teacher in curriculum development?” In curriculum development process, there seems to be a serious problem since the teachers who implement the curriculum do not do so with full confidence. This might make the involvement of the teacher in curriculum development very weak. It is against this background, therefore, that the study investigated the extent of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

- How are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?
- To what extent are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?
- What is the nature of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development?
- At what stages of the curriculum development processes are primary school teachers involved?

## **1.5 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the extent of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development in two education regions in Botswana namely the South and South Central education regions. Further, the study intends to make the Ministry of Education, Department of Primary Education aware of the need to involve primary school teachers fully in curriculum development since they are the implementers. The study also aims at creating interest among teachers and contribute to the debate about the need for teacher involvement in curriculum development.

## **1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study was confined to primary schools in two of the six primary education regions. The two education regions were chosen for economic reasons. The regions are very wide and it could be too expensive to study more than two regions. Also, the study was time bound; it had to be done and finished within a stipulated period of time. Obviously, studying more than two education regions would require more time.

As a result, generalisability of findings cannot be made to the entire teacher population, especially to the other levels of education like secondary schools. In

other words, the study only focused on primary school teachers who 'graduated' from teacher training institutions.

### **1.7 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

The study was confined to the sampled primary school teachers in the two (2) primary education regions in Botswana (see page 155 for more on sample size and sampling method). These regions are South and South Central. The study did not cover the other four (4) regions. In other words, the study focused mainly on government owned primary schools. The various city, district and town councils own all the schools. There are other organisations, which own primary schools, but their schools were not included among those covered by the study. These civic institutions are private institutions, which run their own private schools. There are also government aided or mission organisations which own some primary schools. Some Village Development Committees (VDCs) have also established their own primary schools (Department of Primary Education, 2004:iii). VDCs are institutions, which run the affairs of the various villages in the country. They are commonly referred to as 'village governments'.

Teachers in both junior and senior secondary schools were also not covered by the study. There are other learning institutions like the Institutes of Health Sciences (IHSs), University of Botswana (UB), Botswana College of Agriculture (BCA) and many others that the study did not cover. Others are the private institutions

## **1.9 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS**

The concepts, which were used, were defined within the context of this study and in accordance with the conceptual understanding of other writers. The following concepts were therefore defined:

### **Curriculum**

The concept curriculum is variously defined. For instance, according to this study, curriculum is an educational policy document, which contains the agreed learning activities to be taught in the primary schools.

Lumadi (2000:28) is of the opinion that a curriculum is a plan or programme for teaching and learning, which is conceptualised in the light of certain selected outcomes.

Tanner and Tanner (1980) in Armstrong (1989:2) describe curriculum as “that reconstruction of knowledge and experience, systematically developed under the auspices of the school (or university), to enable the learner to increase his or her control of knowledge and experience”.

Doll (1996:15) presents the following workable definition of the concept:

*The curriculum of a school is the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school.*

Ochs (1974:123) in Chipeta (1997:27) defines curriculum as follows:

*... a programme for a given subject matter and for a given grade, a programme for different subjects for the entire study circle or even the whole range of cycles. Further, the term 'curriculum' is sometimes used in a wider sense to cover the various educational activities through which the content is conveyed as well as materials used and methods employed.*

As Ochs (1974) indicated, curriculum should address all areas of endeavour by the teacher. These should include full participation in curriculum development processes, such as research on curriculum issues or needs assessment activities, workshops to try new programmes, relevant training, student assessment and so on. In fact curriculum should be all-inclusive in which all the important stakeholders like teachers take part.

Although the definitions, which are provided by the writers on curriculum, are relevant, the study defines curriculum, as a course of studies which learners study in learning institutions, must be in consonant with the cultural beliefs of the people whose children are learning the curriculum. Curriculum is a study programme, which should equip the learners with lifelong skills, which will enable them to fit well in the world of work.

Bell (2002), in Johnston, Chater and Bell (2002:226) defines curriculum as follows: 'the curriculum is more than a series of individual subjects. It should be a coherent series of effective learning experiences which enable the learner to develop skills, knowledge and understanding in a range of disciplines which have relevance to the learner'.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:88) look at curriculum from four perspectives:

- i. *The curriculum as planned:* Here they perceive curriculum as a body of knowledge codified by the academic disciplines and translated into course syllabi, textbooks, and demonstration materials.
- ii. *The curriculum as taught:* Here teachers take the curriculum as planned and adapt it to their own perspectives, supplement it with commercial or personal materials, emphasise some elements, and give less attention to others. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) suspect that teachers may have

developed clever ways to teach certain parts of the curriculum; other parts they teach with less creativity and verve.

- iii. *The curriculum as learned:* Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) argue that 'students encounter the curriculum as taught, misunderstand or misinterpret certain parts of it, relate other parts of it to their prior knowledge (which itself is limited and fallible), memorise certain parts to be repeated verbatim on exams, are absent from class on some days when crucial concepts are treated, and are oblivious to the significance or meaning of certain other parts. Some students find the material interesting, while others find it boring but tolerable in the short run. Still others have not learned the previous material well enough to build bridges to the new material'. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) further point out that the material will be different for every student in the class, even though the majority of students may have acquired a sufficient common vocabulary of the material to learn about it with the teacher.
  
- iv. *The curriculum as tested:* Students are then tested on what they have learned. The tests cover only selected parts of the curriculum thought to be representative of the material that should have been learned. Often tests are constructed with a view to measure simple recall of information and definitions. Other tests are constructed with some easy questions,

some moderately complicated questions, and some difficult questions that can only be understood by students functioning at the metacognitive level.

### **Curriculum development**

There are different conceptualisations of curriculum development. The study will however, provide the meaning of the concept and then select a few conceptualisations of the concept as understood by educational experts in the field of curriculum development.

In this study, curriculum development is defined as a process in which all the necessary activities, most of which being a result of experience, are documented as policy matters to be used in primary schools as components of learning the primary goal of which is to advance the societal belief systems.

‘... curriculum development is the process, the systematic structure, the interpersonal dynamics of decision making about instructional planning’ (Gay in Lewy, 1991:294).

Wiles and Bondi (1989:30-31) say this about curriculum development:

*We see curriculum development as a process of promoting desired change through purposeful activities, which produces a condition where environmental variables are controlled and behavior is directional.*

Gay in Lewy, A. (1991:294) defines curriculum development as the process, the syntactical structure, the interpersonal dynamics of decision making about instructional planning.

‘... curriculum development is a process involving numerous aspects and phases, the most important of which are the analyses of situations, establishment of objectives, assignment of priorities, action implementation, and curriculum evaluation (Lumsden 1983, in Griffin 1983:78).’

Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery and Taubman (2004:665) view curriculum development as a generic term, which includes policy, design, implementation, technology, supervision and evaluation.

They borrowed from Decker Walker (1979) and further postulated that:

*Curriculum development covers at least three distinguishable enterprises: curriculum policymaking, the establishment of limits, criteria, guidelines, and the like with which curricula must comply, without developing actual plans and materials for use by students and teachers; generic curriculum development, the preparation of curriculum plans and material for use potentially by any students or teachers of a given description, and specific curriculum development, the many measures taken in a particular school or district to bring about curriculum change there.*

According to Wiles and Bondi (1989:31) curriculum development is basically a plan of structuring the environment to coordinate in an orderly manner the elements of teaching, space, materials, equipment and personnel. They actually perceive it as a process that organises the learning act along the line of value preferences.

They further observe that curriculum development is a 'process of promoting desired change through purposeful activities, which produce a condition where environmental variables are controlled and behaviour is directional'.

Lumsden in Griffin (1983:78) views curriculum development as a 'process involving numerous aspects and phases, the most important of which are the

analyses of situations, identification of needs, establishment of objectives, assignment of priorities, action implementation, and curriculum evaluation’.

### **Curriculum implementation**

The researcher understands curriculum implementation to mean the process of putting to practice all the activities laid down in the curriculum by the classroom teacher together with other primary stakeholders.

Fullan in Lewy (1991:378) defines curriculum implementation as, "the process of putting a change into practice. It differs from the adoption of a change (the decision to use something now), in that the focus is on the extent to which actual change in practice occurs and on those factors which influence the extent of change".

Zais (1976:18) defines curriculum implementation as “simply putting into effect the curriculum that was produced by the construction and development processes”. Zais further explains that curriculum implementation provides evaluative feedback to the construction/development processes, in which the data are utilised for curriculum revision and improvement.

## **Education regions**

According to the researcher, education regions are geographical or administrative areas or divisions to which functions and responsibilities of primary education have been devolved so as to decentralise their management for purposes of efficient control and management.

Webster (1987:991) defines an education region as an administrative area, division, or district.

## **Primary school**

The researcher views primary schools as 'institutions of learning, where teachers offer instructions of universal education to children from their early to late years of primary schooling'. In Botswana, primary schooling starts from Standard I to Standard VII when children sit their primary school leaving examination.

Hoy and Miskel (1996:59) see schools as 'formal organisations with many of the same characteristics as bureaucratic organisations'.

Primary school is a 'school usually including the first three grades of elementary school but sometimes also including kindergarten' (Webster, 1987:934).

In an attempt to answer a question about what a school is, (Bigala, 1996:11), makes the following description of a school:

*A school must first have a piece of land and a building. The building has to be furnished and equipped. It must have a head teacher and teachers before the pupils are taught. Finally there must be pupils ... .*

### **Teacher**

The researcher defines 'teacher' as someone who has been trained at a teachers' training college or any other learning institution that provides teacher education and has successfully participated in this study.

Jackson (1989), in Anderson (1989:8) argues that teachers are knowledgeable decision makers. They understand their students, are able to restructure a subject matter to make it "educationally digestible" for them, and, when teaching, "know when to do what".

Webster's Contemporary Dictionary (1992:755) defines teacher as 'one who teaches, especially an occupation'.

Webster (1987:1210) says a teacher is the 'one that teaches, especially one whose occupation is to instruct'.

Phuthego (1997:5) understands teachers to mean educators in primary schools in Gaborone. Phuthego's definition is limited in its application in the country and beyond because it conceptualises 'teacher' only within a small geographic area, which is Gaborone.

Curzon (2004:175) sees the teacher as a 'communicator' and 'controller'. The teacher is considered as the manager of a situation in which effective teaching is expected to produce a desired standard of learning.

Griffin (1987:225) in Pinar and Reynolds (2004:770) theorises about the teacher:

*the ideal teacher is knowledgeable, well-organised, and consistent classroom leader who interacts with students, colleagues, and patrons purposefully and effectively.*

### **Teacher involvement**

The researcher uses the concept involvement interchangeably with participation. Teacher involvement denotes an active process where the primary school teachers themselves, guided by their own thinking, and using means and processes over which they can exert effective control take the initiatives.

According to Sykes (1982) in the Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1982:680), to involve is to include. So involvement means involving or being involved. It would also refer to collaborative efforts of the primary school teachers with other curriculum experts.

### **Involvement**

In contextualising the concept involvement, the researcher uses it to refer to the full participation of teachers in the curriculum processes. Teachers should be regarded by the system of education as the necessary part of the curriculum development process.

Webster (1987:637) says involvement is 'to engage as a participant'.

Involvement is used interchangeably with participation, and participation in its broad sense refers to the involvement of communities and individuals in the various stages of development activities, including formulations, planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation (Mooka, 1994 quoted in Lekoko, 2002:49).

Involvement should produce the commitment to goals on which a sense of achievement depends. To this end, Everard, Morris and Wilson, (2004:31)

indicate that 'By involving people we show them recognition and increase their sense of responsibility'.

In view of the interchangeable use of the two words, 'involvement' and 'participation', Oakley and Marsden, (1984:19) apply participation in the context of rural development to 'include people's involvement in decision-making processes, in implementing programmes ... their sharing in the benefits of development programmes, and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes'.

### **Inspectoral areas**

These are further divisions of geographical regions into units so as to make supervision in the regions easier.

### **Nature**

The researcher in this sense uses 'nature' interchangeably with 'type', to indicate the types of curricular activities or aspects that teachers participate or are involved in.

The British National Corpus (1995:944) defines 'nature' in a singular sense to mean a particular kind of thing: of a personal/political/difficult nature. For instance, of that nature (= of that kind).

### **Standard**

The researcher uses 'standard' to mean a level of academic progression in primary schools. For instance in Botswana, the lowest level is Standard I and the highest is Standard VII after which students sit their primary school leaving examinations. The Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation (DCDE) usually develops syllabus for each standard.

Pearsall (1999:1399) uses 'standard' as a noun to mean, 'a level of quality or attainment, a required or agreed level of quality or attainment. She explains further that historically in Britain, it has been used in elementary schools as a grade of proficiency tested by examination. In South Africa, it means 'a class or grade' in a school, - hence Grade II or Standard X, or any other such class grading system.

### **1.9.10 ORGANISATION OF THE REPORT**

The report is planned and organised as follows:

- ▶ *Chapter One* discusses the study background. Primary education regions in which primary schools are located are illustrated by the use of the map. Other important elements of the chapter, which are discussed, include, research questions, study purpose, limitations, delimitations and significance of the study. The chapter also thoroughly defines concepts used in the study.

The introductory part of this report served to provide a framework for the problem that this study investigated. The primary purpose of this part of the report was to orient the reader to the importance of the problem, which was investigated by providing some material background. It actually sets the stage for literature review, which follows, in the next chapter.

- ▶ *Chapter Two* which deals with literature review assesses the relevance of literature to the problem area investigated. It explores the views of writers in curriculum development as regards teacher involvement in curriculum development. The chapter seeks to provide an insight into how other writers approached the study from the perspective of literature review.

- ▶ *Chapter Three* discusses the research procedures or methods such as research design (for instance, methodological approach), study population, sampling techniques, methods of data collection and analysis. Also discussed in this chapter, are the following: validity, reliability, objectivity and usability of the questionnaire, as well as piloting.
  
- ▶ *Chapter Four* discusses data analysis and interpretation.
  
- ▶ *Chapter Five* presents summary of findings, makes recommendations, suggestions for further research and conclusions.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2. INTRODUCTION**

When investigating how the primary school teacher is involved in curriculum development, the researcher explored the following questions, which would hopefully help to develop a clear framework for the literature search:

Should the teacher play an active involvement in curriculum development activities? If so, what kind of involvement and to what extent? Should s/he make the decisions as to what should be taught, and how to teach it? Further, a key question to ask in trying to understand the dynamics of curriculum development could be, 'who controls the decision making process, and how is this control exerted'? Gay in Lewy (1991), citing Phillips and Hawthorne (1978:365), indicates that the answer to the question is that, "nearly any organisation, at any level that has a concern" determines school curriculum. Gay quotes Saylor (1991), again in Lewy (1991:365) who answers the same question in the following way; curriculum development involves 'a cast of thousands'. Saylor (1991) in fact refers to a host of stake-holders like professionals, legislature

groups, and resources for the planners like authors, publishers, testers, and so on (p.296).

The review of the related literature focuses on issues of curriculum nature as is indicated by the literature that the study investigated. It gives a brief analysis of curriculum development in some countries in Europe, America, and Africa. This was done for comparative study purposes. It appeared evident that the knowledge about what had already been done would help avoid duplication and to provide insights necessary to develop a logical framework into which the topic of the study fits. Gay and Airasian (2000:44), succinctly advance the relevance of literature to the topic under study. The literature entails the identification, location and analysis of the documents containing information related to the research problem in a systematic way.

The whole intention of reviewing literature was to establish what had already been done that related to the topic studied.

## **2.1 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES**

Walker (2003:102) indicates that in most parts of the world, National Ministries of Education control the nations' schools. Further, he observes that policy makers

and administrators control what happens in the central office, but they have to find ways to influence what happens in classrooms (p. 294).

In order to have a clear understanding of how primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development, the study briefly investigated the curriculum development processes both in the developed and developing countries.

### **2.1.1 Western European examples**

In this block of countries, the United States is a leading superpower, which together with the then Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) were once the only two superpowers in the world.

Only a few developed countries in Europe are briefly discussed in the study. The countries were drawn from both Eastern and Western Europe.

#### **2.1.1.1 The Australian example**

In Australia, primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development issues only as members of individual state curriculum development committees (Cohen in Lewy, (1991:226) and McKenzie in Postlethwaite, 1995:46). Membership of these committees includes subject associations, parents, school heads, teacher federations, representatives of implementers (teachers) and

college lecturers. However, Australia has central authorities within states, which specify broad curricular guidelines in schools. The states have considerable autonomy in developing curriculum details and teaching methodology in primary schools (McKenzie in Postlethwaite, 1995:46). McKenzie (1995) however shows that the national Ministry of Education ensures that there is greater national uniformity in curriculum provisions. The curriculum exposes students to humanities, reading, writing, mathematics and so on. Most of these subjects in primary schools are taught by a general classroom teacher (op. cit.). As it has been stated earlier, McKenzie indicates that primary school teachers currently are involved in curriculum development just like any other stakeholders who are in curriculum development committees, irrespective of their mammoth task of implementing the curriculum at classroom level. It must be noted that there is no common school curriculum across the country as each state is responsible for its own curriculum.

#### **2.1.1.2 The German example**

In Germany, Lehmann in Postlethwaite (1995:352) argues that, 'the state Ministries of Education determine their curricula in accordance with the existing legislation'. The state ministry decrees syllabuses, recommends on teaching methods and sometimes model lesson plans. Only the syllabus itself is considered obligatory.

According to Lehmann as cited in Postlethwaite (1995:352-353), involvement of the teacher in curriculum development in Germany does not go beyond making decisions about the methods of teaching. Even these decisions are subject only to advice from the teachers' supervising authorities. Lehmann's views are supported by the New Encyclopaedia Britannica (1990:45) that even the political leadership had sought to control education and thereby relegating the teachers to being curriculum implementing tools. The need to control education by the political leadership was evident when education was tightly placed under the Ministry of the Interior.

#### **2.1.1.3 The French example**

In France, primary school attendance is compulsory between the ages of six and sixteen, (that is, for ten years).

The primary system of education in France makes no difference between curriculum and syllabus (Monchablon, 1995:337-338). A National Programmes Committee composed of outside experts appointed by the Minister of Education draws up programmes. However, there are no regional variations and the Ministry of Education adopts programmes at the national level.

School textbooks and other teaching equipment are produced by private enterprises without ministerial control or approval, and as such, play a de facto

role in the interpretation of official programmes. Primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development is restricted to the mandate of the National Programmes Committee (NPC) in which they are represented.

According to Hawes in Lewy (1995:243), in French territories, curricula were highly centralised since France pursued a policy of assimilation in which citizens of colonies were forcibly 'socialised' into French cultural belief system, so that they completely lost their own cultural identity, and identified themselves as French. For instance in Cameroon, a former French colony, all primary schools follow the official curriculum under the supervision of the respective divisions of the Ministry of National Education (Yembe, 1995:177-179).

In primary schools, most textbooks are imported from either France or the United Kingdom (UK). But currently however, some foreign publishers use local authors to write or adapt materials to suit local syllabuses. Primary school teacher involvement in these activities is minimal. For instance, national inspectors who generally approve new textbooks may only seek primary school teachers' opinion on relevant materials to be used in their classrooms. Just like in Côte d' Ivoire, another former French colony, primary school teachers' involvement is subject to central authorities operating at the level of the different ministries in charge of the educational systems. Actually, curriculum is centralised in the former French colonies in Africa.

At independence however, all these countries strived to transform their curricula so that they addressed the expressed needs of their situations, accounting for the high importance placed on the authority of the teacher. However, the national governments seem to have gone only as far as involving primary school teachers in curriculum development panels.

#### **2.1.1.4 The United Kingdom (UK) example**

In 1988, for the first time, the central government imposed a compulsory curriculum for all primary schools in England and Wales. Child (2004:431) argues that this was an attempt to give purpose and direction to school curricula, which was enshrined in the National Curriculum, which came into force in both England and Wales. The range and content of subjects is prescribed by the authorities (Halls (1995), in Postlethwaite, 1995:1030).

Lee in Ashcroft and Lee (2000:17) expressed concern over the situation in Britain where the political system excluded teachers from taking an instrumental role in curriculum development activities. The exclusion of teachers was evident in the former Secretary of State for Education, Kenneth Baker's introduction of the Education Reform Act Bill (ERA Bill) of 1998. Baker indicated clearly that the government determined the curriculum content.

The view, as expressed by Baker, indicated that primary school teachers or teachers in the British system of education who were in the panels were only used to formalise curriculum making decisions of other individuals. It is evident from the perception of Baker that overall curriculum decisions rest with those who have administrative and political power, that is, the authorities.

There is currently a School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA), which works through groups of teachers and academics. The Authority reviews curriculum periodically so that its concentration is on 'core' subjects so that programmes are less prescriptive. Subject teachers are represented in the Authority. Feedback goes to other teachers through workshops.

But from a sociological perspective, Ryn in Moyles and Hargreaves (1998:43-44), indicated that there is dire need for primary school teachers to acknowledge, accommodate and adapt to the differences in curriculum and offer a curriculum that is still accessible, applicable, relevant and provides opportunities for all children as future citizens. Ryn argues that teachers must rise to the challenge and focus on developing a socially relevant curriculum without lowering or narrowing pupils' opportunities and their own expectations.

### **2.1.1.5 The Swedish example**

Marklund like Kliebard and Elbaz (1991:242) and others, indicates a similarity of curriculum reforms in Sweden as in other Western countries. For instance, he says:

*Curricula in Sweden have always been adopted by the Government or by the National Board of Education. The goals of the school system and the goals of individual subjects are nationally uniform. Text books and other teaching materials are chosen by the schools themselves, though teaching materials were subject to inspection by national authorities between 1937 and 1973.*

Marklund states that the National Board of Education supplies centrally compiled achievement tests for a limited number of subjects. Marklund (1995:945) observes however that the situation in Sweden at the moment allows for representation of stakeholders in the National Board of Education. According to him, the system of education is not rigidly centralised.

### **2.1.2 Eastern European example**

The Eastern European countries were prominent during the Cold War era. The countries, which fell within this block, owed their allegiance to either communist China or the USSR. The inclination of these countries has had a profound influence in the curricula, which were designed along the political nature of these states.

#### **2.1.2.1 The Russian example**

Curriculum history in socialist countries has two interrelated aspects. The first one is set forth in the official, mostly centrally devised documents, which provide guidelines for selecting and organising the subject matter to be taught in different types of schools and at the different grade levels (Baller in Lewy, 1991:238).

It appears that although Soviet teachers play a vital part in the intellectual, moral, social, political, aesthetic, and vocational training, and guidance of the future of Soviet citizens, they depend heavily on the central authority for guidance on curriculum development processes. Through a very complex but centralised network of political and educational bureaucracy, Soviet teachers are always kept clearly informed of what their roles and duties are (Zajda, 1980:227). Zajda

expresses fear that this no doubt, means that professional function of teachers is virtually sanctioned and institutionalised by the system.

The Soviet Union has always been a country with a highly centralised system of government in all spheres of life, including education (Nikandrov, 1995:825). The noticeable movement towards decentralisation started in about the middle of the 1960s. However, now provision is made for what used to be all Russia part of the curriculum and higher education institutions are getting more and more independent in their curriculum decisions. Though the content of education is still recommended from the center, sixty percent (60%) or more of it is now determined at the city and individual school level. In Russia, study plans, which refer to the subjects taught, are used instead of the curriculum. Nikandrov (1995:826) points out that technically, study plans are approved by the Ministries of Education and then by the State Committee for Education (SCE) in which teachers are represented. Since the 1960s, teaching methods have been considered a matter for any teacher to decide upon.

Since curriculum is centrally developed in Russia, the involvement of teachers in its development is mainly relegated to implementation.

### **2.1.3 The North American examples**

North America will only cover two countries in that region. These are the United States of America (USA) and the neighbouring Canada.

#### **2.1.3.1 The United States of America example**

In the United States, the most battled ground is that for control of the primary education curriculum. As a result, primary school teachers are often faced with inconsistent and contradicting advice from state government and school district level officials. Another inconsistency is with respect to recommendations from professional organisations, other teachers and parents. All these stakeholders wield authority in education and children's lives.

Valverde in Postlethwaite (1995:1039) points out that, 'A key feature of schooling in the United States is that students are separated into three distinct curricular tracks during their high school years. This practice, known as "streaming" or "tracking", hinges upon the preparation for college entry.

Again, in the United States, there is lack of a national curriculum. Curriculum policy is traditionally under the purview of each state and often each local school district or each individual school. Walker (2003:102) shows that 'The US federal government has no legal authority over the curriculum of local schools in the United States. He says the American schools nevertheless offer a reasonably

common curriculum across a diverse continent. Instead of a hierarchical system of central authority governing the education system, Americans have a national curriculum influence system (p. 102). Walker argues that this arrangement makes the American system unique. Valverde in Postlethwaite (1995:1039) observed that some states exercise considerable amount of control over teaching content, whereas others permit greater freedom of decision to local communities and primary school teachers. There is, of course, in the US, National Council of Education Standards and Teaching, which is appointed by Congress. All the fifty states have laws governing education and have an established system of public schools. A state school system provides for every level of education, from early childhood through higher education (Simon and Banks, 2003:12). They indicate that federal regulations dictate that school districts are responsible for running the local public schools; they hire teachers, construct building, and plan the curriculum.

The fact that school districts hire primary schoolteachers indicates clearly a situation of servant and master. Teachers tend to depend heavily on the system for their survival as individual beings. Whatever the decisions, which come from their employers, they carry them out without much resistance for fear of possible reprisal.

Still on the position of the primary school teacher in curriculum activities, especially of the newly recruited primary school teachers,

Walker and Soltis (1992:4) indicate how they depend on ready-made curriculum plans concentrating on transforming such plans into activities that work for them in their classrooms.

But it appears that as primary school teachers gain professional experience and develop confidence in themselves, they tend to want to play a larger role in curriculum matters. Kingsley (1991:1) found almost the same evidence when studying young teachers in the State of Utah. The teachers had limited experience in teaching. Kingsley found that in an unequal power relationship, those who hold power more often got their way and teachers had little actual voice in what concerned them. Teachers though, felt that they had legitimate rights to change the new curriculum proposals to meet their teaching situations and that they should not be treated as mere transmitters of ideas: (<http://ericir.syr.edu/plweb/cgi/fastweb?getdoc+ericdb+ericdb+982986+11+wAAA+>). In so far as the situation is concerned, Kingsley argues that the state of affairs does not foster teachers' critical thinking and questioning. Teacher involvement in curriculum development provides legitimation for ideas already held by others.

Curriculum development processes in the United States are similar to those of Canada. State governments are constitutionally responsible for education. Citing Beauchamp and Beauchamp, Gay (1991:301) indicates that state governments establish minimum requirements and general guidelines, but *boards* of education within local school districts make "the ultimate legal decisions about what shall be taught in the schools of that district" (p. 298). Primary school teachers are

only involved as members of the national curriculum development boards. The involvement is however restricted to the few primary school teachers who have been nominated to such bodies. The majority of the primary school teachers who are not members of the curriculum development bodies are excluded.

### **2.1.3.2 The Canadian example**

Gay (1991:2000) gives the examples of some developed countries where the curriculum processes are not necessarily the prerogative of the classroom teacher. In Canada for instance, the legal arena of curriculum decision-making is regional. Official curriculum planning and other education decisions are the domain of provincial legislatures. Berg in Postlethwaite (1995) argues that structurally, primary education curriculum has become decentralised. Provinces issue general guidelines. Local education boards and individual schools have more control over implementation, materials and methods. Curriculum materials produced by Departments or Ministries of Education are normally pilot tested in the schools and revised before receiving official ministry sanction.

Involvement of the teachers in curriculum development is only more evident in implementing the pilot studies in their respective schools where the exercise is carried out. They are also involved in revision workshops. Automatically, primary school teachers are seen as playing a major part in curriculum development as members of local boards. Gay (1991:296) classifies actors and

influences shaping curriculum decisions as internal and external forces. According to him, the former, which are also called formal determinants of curricula are those forces that are legally responsible for curriculum policy making and planning, and whose involvement is channeled through some regularised, and structured arrangements. The latter, also called informal forces, exist outside governmental structures and the administrative bureaucracy of school systems. This information is shown in Figure 2 on page 44.

**Figure 2: The forces influencing the curriculum development process.**

External Internal				
	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal
Forces influencing The Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Testing bureaus and boards</li> <li>b) Professional associations</li> <li>c) Accrediting associations</li> <li>d) Public opinion poll</li> <li>e) Lobbyists</li> <li>f) Student/Parent/Business</li> <li>g) Labor organisations</li> <li>h) Regulatory agencies of governments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Special interest groups</li> <li>b) Publishers of instructional materials</li> <li>c) Mass media</li> <li>d) Individual critics</li> <li>e) Sociocultural crises</li> <li>f) Customs and traditions</li> <li>g) Philanthropic foundations</li> <li>h) Pressure politics</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Government authorities</li> <li>b) Advisory administrative agencies</li> <li>c) The law (legislative acts, court decisions, funding patterns)</li> <li>d) School governance structures</li> <li>e) District and building administrators and teachers</li> <li>f) Bureaucratic style of school system</li> <li>g) Resources and facilities</li> <li>h) Decision-making system</li> <li>i) Subjects taught</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Staff views on curriculum and instruction</li> <li>b) Politics of the working of the formal structure</li> <li>c) Customs and traditions</li> <li>d) Sociology of group dynamics</li> <li>e) Personalities and competencies of participants</li> <li>f) Human relations skills</li> <li>g) Arena of curriculum planning</li> </ul>
			Curriculum decision	
Clients	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Society</li> <li>Parents</li> <li>Employers</li> <li>Institutions of higher learning</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The curriculum plan</li> <li>Teachers</li> <li>Students</li> <li>School systems</li> </ul>	

Gay G., "Curriculum development". In Lewy, A. (Ed.). (1991:297). *The International Encyclopedia of Curriculum*. Adapted from Nicholas E J (1980). 'A comparative view of curriculum development'.

Figure 2 shows how some stakeholders in curriculum issues view the relationship between the so-called internal and external forces, which are critical to curriculum decision-making processes. The Figure indicates that the two are not independent of each other. For instance, the forces outside government structures have the

potential to hijack the curriculum if, for some reasons, they are not invited to play their part in curriculum matters.

#### **2.1.4 Current development in Africa**

Two African countries were briefly examined, namely Botswana and Zimbabwe because of their statuses as former British colonies. The two countries are close to each other distance wise; and if Zimbabwe as a neighbour was to be studied for comparative reasons, its distance from Botswana would make its study possible, without much limitations. But more importantly, during the struggle for the independence of Rhodesia, as the country was then called, many Zimbabwean teachers were employed in the education system in Botswana. Further, as neighbours, the people of Botswana and Zimbabwe have a few things in common. For instance, the system of education in both countries was derived from the colonial British rule. In other words, the two countries had similar curricula. The two countries are also the founding members of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and are signatories to SADC protocol on education.

In most African countries, curricula in schools are derived historically from a number of sources. There has been a significant influence on the methodologies and approaches used in teaching. In most cases, the influence came from colonial

education policies, which often emphasised the production of middle level clerical and administrative grades (Hawes, 1991, in Lewy, 1991:242).

Although Gatawa (1990:64-65) and Elbaz in Lewy (1991:365) vehemently supported greater participation of teachers in curriculum development, they seem to be cognizant of the constraints of this envisaged participation. For instance, he attributes the constraints to limited training and time for teachers, mandated curriculum, rationalisation and bureaucratisation of schooling. About mandated curriculum, Further, Elbaz argues that pressures for a common or core curriculum and the desire to offer equal educational provision for all, seriously limit the degree of input that will be allowed for teachers at the local level. In other words, the teachers will be constrained to the common curriculum. He says that common curriculum is a result of the development of increasing rationalisation of the school systems and curriculum materials. As in other countries, which have already been discussed, primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development does not go beyond membership of boards.

It appears that most of the researchers in primary education hold the perception that teachers are only consulted about curriculum development, which does not guarantee their practical involvement. However, those who subscribe to this position are convinced that consultation has its own benefits because teachers who were consulted on issues affecting school policy, and those affecting them

directly, were more likely to be successful (Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis and Ecob 1994, in Pollard and Bourne, 1994:252).

#### **2.1.4.1 The Botswana example**

In Botswana, the decades of independence focused on secondary and higher education, with little attention paid to primary education. For instance, more secondary schools were established. The idea of expanding primary education did not make sense because the educational planners were concerned about finding places for further education of the primary school graduates (Pandey and Moorad, 2003:148-149).

Primary education is provided and managed jointly by the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Ministry of Local Government (MLG) (Primary School Management Manual, 2000:3; Yoder and Mautle, 1991:17).

The MLG through local authorities commonly known as Councils is responsible for ownership of public primary schools. Councils on the one hand build schools, that is, construct, maintain and renovate classrooms, teachers' quarters, ... and other infrastructure needed by a primary school. The MoE on the other provides primary schools with professional support (Primary School Management Manual, 2000:3). It has the responsibility to train, employ and develop teachers. The ministry is responsible for the supervision of schools, determining education

standards and assuring quality of the education system (Primary School Management Manual, 2000:3).

According to Pandey and Moorad (2003), primary education mainly earned recognition and became important through the recommendations of the 1977 National Commission on Education. The Report made strong recommendations for immediate priority in qualitative and quantitative improvement in primary education and a reorientation of the curriculum to embody the national principles of democracy, development, self-reliance and unity.

The Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation largely determines curriculum development for primary education. The Department is mandated to provide leadership and coordination in the development, implementation and evaluation of the total instructional programme of the school system. The first task of the Department was to reform the primary level curriculum ... (Kgomanyane in Postlethwaite, 1995:124; Ministry of Education/University of Botswana (Centre for Continuing Education, 2000). The teachers are only involved as members of the National Curriculum Panel. The extent of their involvement is restricted to the mandate of the Panel where they are subservient to Panel orders or decisions.

Kgomanyane (1995) explains that even though the Department has been mandated to carry out various curricular activities, there is, however, some

interaction among curriculum developers, subject advisors in primary schools, teachers, lecturers in the colleges of education, both primary and secondary. What should be understood clearly is that primary school teachers are invited to take part in certain and not all curricular activities such as piloting curriculum, curriculum review workshops, etc. In curriculum development, classroom teachers are involved through their representatives in the National Curriculum Panel. There is however, no mandatory procedures, which require that primary school teacher representatives at national level should have been a result of decisions made at school level.

Unlike their counterparts in other levels of the education system, primary school teachers are expected to teach the entire curriculum (Dean, 2001:70-71 and Urch, 1995:5). Urch (1995:5) indicates that the teacher as a product of a teacher training institution teaches any subject and every standard in the school. Urch's argument is apparently premised on the fact that primary school teachers take all the subjects in the curriculum at their training institutions.

In view of Urch's argument it would be ideal to involve the teachers fully in curriculum development. Primary school teachers unlike their counterparts in secondary schools handle virtually every subject in their respective schools, irrespective of whether or not they have confidence in some of these subjects. Many official policy documents have supported this 'all-round duty' of the teacher. For instance, emphasis has been laid on the desired outcomes of teacher

training institutions that they 'provide training to produce primary school teachers that are capable of teaching every standard and subject as well as provide advice to their colleagues about the latest educational methods and content in their specialist areas' (Report of the National Commission on Education, 1977 and Leep and Pilane Report, 1991).

A common feature of the curriculum is that it is a wide ranging concept in both meaning and the components that it encompasses. For instance, in Botswana primary school system, many innovations have been incorporated into the school curriculum. Some of these innovations include the Project Method, which is a child-centred approach to learning. It seems that these innovations are too many for the teacher to handle at once, due mainly to time constraints. Seabelo and Mosa in (Yandila, Moanakwena, O'mara, Kakanda and Mensah, 1997:115) observe that 'Some teachers felt that innovations in primary schools were so many that they failed to incorporate all of them in the learning/teaching situation'. They explain that teachers feel that they need to be adequately trained on all appropriate innovations. The assertions made by Seabelo and Mosa indicate deficiency in curriculum, which could be exacerbated by the fact that involvement of the teachers in curriculum development is limited. Otherwise, input made by primary school teachers regarding curriculum development could help to reduce possible workload, which could result from a multiplicity of innovations that the teacher has to contend with in the school and classroom situations.

As Seabelo and Mosa (1997) argue, the situation does not augur well for effective teaching. It puts the primary school teacher in a position in which she or he will be found to be doing a shoddy teaching job. Steinberg (1999a:72) comments that 'If teaching is going to be good work, we have to be able to get beyond the simplistic, teacher-proof curriculums, standardisation of evaluation, and an excellence read as conventionality'. Burchfield, Easton, Holmes, Hopkin, Mannathoko, Matila, Noel, Nyathi-Ramahobo, Odotei, Prophet, Ramatsui, Weeks and Youngman in Burchfield (1994:170) argue that to implement the new nine-year curriculum and the expansion of the junior secondary system in Botswana, changes were also needed in teacher education. They point out that this would create better linkages between curriculum development and pre-service teacher training, which will ensure that more teachers receive in-service training, and to guarantee that in-service teacher training addresses the needs of the increased number of less experienced teachers and expatriates who have joined the teaching service as a result of the expanded junior secondary system.

It is imperative to mention directly, the responsibilities of DCDE before considering the operations of its unit, - CDU. DCDE was established in 1978 as a result of the recommendations of the National Commission on Education of 1977, which is popularly called Education for Kagisano, a Setswana word, which means harmony. The philosophy underlying the usage of Education for Kagisano is that this education as propounded by the 1977 Commission, would serve to promote social harmony for all the ethnic groups, which make up a bigger entity called

**Botswana** (that is, all the citizens of Botswana irrespective of colour, creed, gender, tribal affiliation or any other distinctive feature). The philosophy of **Kagisano** preaches peaceful co-existence.

It would appear that Botswana curriculum developers do not rely only on one model of curriculum development (Ministry of Education/University of Botswana/Centre for Continuing Education, 2000:138). The Botswana curriculum development model therefore, is eclectic, that is, it derives ideas or styles from a broad and diverse range of sources. Developers adopt relevant parts from some existing models of curriculum development. For instance, the primary school syllabuses are objective oriented, which is a characteristic feature very common in Tyler Rationale.

The approach to curriculum development in Botswana is both interactive and integrative as shown in the following Botswana curriculum development model.

#### **2.1.4.1.1 Developing a syllabus**

The first stage in developing curriculum in Botswana is to develop a syllabus (Curriculum Development Procedures Manual, 1992:1-2). Figure 3 on page 53 gives a diagrammatic representation of this first stage, syllabus development that is presented step by step.

**Figure 3: Syllabus design**

1. Develop Subject Rationale and Aims	2. Develop General Objectives	3. Develop Specific Objectives	4. Write Draft Syllabus	5. Format Syllabus
6. Review, Feedback and Approvals				

*Adapted from: Curriculum Development Procedures Manual (1992:1-2).*

In syllabus development as illustrated in Figure 3 above, the first step is to develop subject rationale aims. The next step is developing general objectives and then specific ones. The former are described as relatively broad statements of student performance under which specific objectives and related topics are organised. Primary school teachers are only involved as members of curriculum development panel.

The last step is to write a draft and form a syllabus. The aims and objectives are now ready to be placed in a standard syllabus format and to have syllabus approved by the panel.

#### **2.1.4.1.2 Developing a curriculum blueprint**

The second stage in curriculum development is the development of a curriculum blueprint.

In developing a curriculum blueprint, a four stage development process is followed:

1. Determining skill related topics to be included in each standard
2. Determining four components of objectives
3. Determining the teaching/learning activities
4. Deciding on and planning the instructional materials.

#### **2.1.4.1.3 Developing curriculum materials**

The third stage is to develop curriculum materials. Since now the curriculum blueprint is developed for a teaching/learning period, instructional materials are to be prepared. These include both student and teacher materials. Their development follows the procedure below:

- . Test and refine the learning activities listed in the curriculum blueprint
- . Select a planning committee
- . Select writers
- . Plan and/or outline the curriculum product
- . Produce the first draft of the product
- . Review and collect feedback on draft product
- . Revise product
- . Produce the curriculum product for testing.

It must be emphasised that primary school teachers take part in the activities indicated above only as members of the National Curriculum Panel, (see page 61 for composition of the panel). Their decisions as members of the panel depend heavily on the overall decisions of the main panel. Even the Report of the National Commission on Education (1977:4-3) also indicated that 'curriculum development is a complex and continuous process that should involve a wide range of people from class-room teachers and subject experts to senior policy making officials'.

Mogasha, Tsayang and Le Grand (1991) in Evans and Yoder (1991:62) point out that:

*Effective schools do not come about by accident. They develop out of a host of factors, one of which is teachers' perception of their involvement in the decision making process as it impinges upon them. The school is effective to the degree that teachers see themselves valued team members, complimenting and working with each other not only in specific school but as part of the efforts of the Ministry of Education and the community.*

The position held by Mogasha, Tsayang and Le Grand (1991) is also held by Glickman (1985) in Evans and Yoder (1991 *ibid*) who agrees that effective schools are a result of working collectively and collaboratively towards common understandable and appreciated goals.

The RNPE (1977:4-3) further states that:

*The composition of the primary curriculum Task Force consisted of knowledgeable educators in Botswana, plus sub-panels of subject specialists who were coopted to assist the Task Force. The Commission decided to call for task forces, with intimate knowledge of the local education system, rather than engage outside experts.*

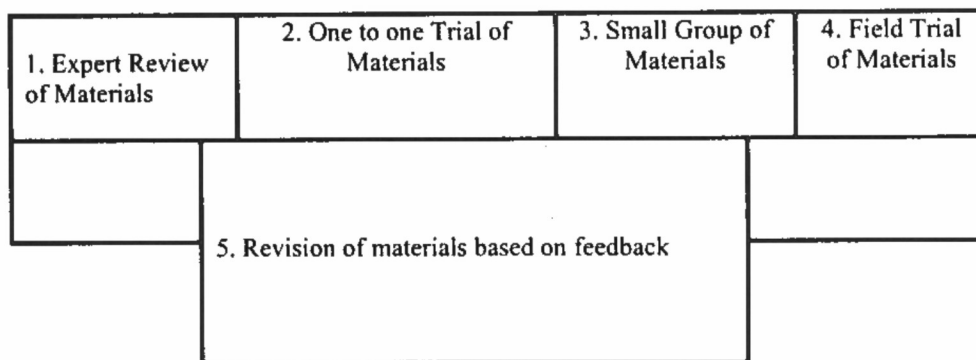
It is interesting to note that in its selection of people into the membership of the Task Force, the Commission did not specify the teachers, rather it generalised that 'knowledgeable educators' were needed to be included in the Task Force. One would have thought that the Commission would specifically focus on the teachers so that their research and evaluation or even assessment skills were enhanced. Also, recognising the primary school teachers is likely to motivate them so that they dedicate themselves to their work.

Robb, Peloewetse and Walton (1990:142) share the view on the development of materials. They indicate that data for material development is gathered from a variety of sources including teachers, field education officers, curriculum specialists and many other primary stakeholders.

#### 2.1.4.1.4 Evaluation and revisions

The last stage of the curriculum development process is formative evaluation and revisions. Figure 4 indicates the four major steps that are followed to undertake formative evaluation.

**Figure 4: Formative evaluation and revisions**



**Source:** Curriculum Development Procedures Manual (1992:5-1)

According to the Curriculum Development Procedures Manual (CDPM) (1992:1-4), the purpose of each step is to collect information on ways to improve the materials, analyse that information, and identify problems. The materials can then be revised accordingly. It is indicated in the manual that implementation of course materials occurs after formative evaluation of all materials has been completed.

It would appear that formative evaluation and revision is the last stage of curriculum development process. But it is indicated in the manual that summative evaluation is the last process stage. It takes place after the materials for a standard have been developed and implemented.

The CDPM (1992:5-17) indicates that the last step of formative evaluation is to conduct a field trial. Primary school teachers and students in the schools selected for piloting try out the programme and provide feedback for final revision. These revisions, which result from this evaluation stage, are based on student test results.

It appears that in trying out the materials, the whole intention is to find out how well the revised materials perform under real classroom conditions. Again the intention is to find out whether the trial teachers have mastered the use of such materials for final implementation. Trial primary school teachers are a significant resource since they are later used to train others on how to use the same materials. But primary school teachers are too many. It would be better if this was part of their initial training at colleges of education. In-service training would be made much easier and speedier if the primary school teachers have had contact with the concepts before.

The process of curriculum development in Botswana has been succinctly explained. The big questions now are, "Where is the primary school teacher in

curriculum development”? What role does he or she play, or is he or she simply a spectator? Perhaps to give the reader an insight into issues pertaining to teacher involvement in curriculum development, it may be necessary to give a brief account of curriculum development management process.

Moorad (1989:174) when investigating the role played by teachers in the curriculum development process in Botswana, asserts that:

*The role played by those involved in the implementation process was to attend workshops and provide feedback on the syllabi of their teaching subjects. Most teachers mentioned that the workshops they had attended were specifically set up to discuss the new syllabi of their respective teaching subjects.*

Moorad collates the views of the teachers he interviewed in Table 1 on page 60.

**Table 1: The role played by teachers in the curriculum process**

<b>Role played</b>	<b>No's</b>	<b>%</b>
Planning process	19	9
Reviewing draft proposals	34	16
Implementation	50	24
Not consulted	98	47
Other	6	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>207</b>	<b>99</b>

Adapted from Moorad, F. R. (1989:174) *An evaluation of the Community Junior Secondary Schools in Botswana with particular emphasis on decentralisation and community participation.*

The large number of the teachers who said that they were not consulted indicates how the system of education takes teachers for granted. Their role in the curriculum process seems to be predetermined. The fact that another significant number (24%) explained that their role is curriculum implementation attests to this predetermined role of the teachers.

Moorad however argues that teacher's involvement in the curriculum process varies from subject to subject. He points out that the views of Education Officers (E. O's) were that it would be too time consuming to invite all teachers and ask them to draw up a new syllabus.

#### **2.1.4.1.5 The National Curriculum Panel**

The Manual (1992:1-5) indicates that before work is started on the curriculum, efforts must be made to ensure that a National Curriculum Panel is appointed with

wide representation in membership. Botswana curriculum development model indicates that primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development because they are represented in the National Curriculum Panel. In other words, the panel is the authority that is involved in curriculum development. The panel usually should have its membership as follows:

- . Curriculum Development Officer (s)
- . Secondary Education Officer (s)
- . Primary Education Officer (s)
- . Field Education Officer (s)

or other representatives of the Department of Teacher Training and Development

- . Representatives, primary, junior secondary and/or senior secondary teachers
- . Subject area representatives from:

- a primary College of Education
- a junior secondary College of Education
- the University of Botswana
- a representative of the Department of Non-Formal Education
- other members as needed for adequate representation of affected groups (for instance, parents, business and industry).

As Moorad has already indicated, the procedure was that the panels would choose a few teachers. These were usually nominated by the E.O's themselves; they

were chosen because of their contributions in various workshops; or nominated by the Heads of Community Junior Secondary Schools (CJSSs). Moorad seems scared that the procedure could be prone to the possibility of leaving the best teachers out of the process. He views the method used to nominate teachers to be quite subjective.

Moorad indicates that generally, teachers show some discontentment with the system of education, which relegates them to the background of curriculum development issues. The information from the respondents is clearly presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Teachers' views on how they would contribute in curriculum development if given chance**

Type of activity	No	%
Organisation of topics/content	37	18
Designing materials/methods	13	6
Drafting examination questions	15	7
Other	23	11
Not applicable	23	11
Blank/Not sure	96	46
<b>Total</b>	<b>207</b>	<b>99</b>

Adapted from Moorad, F. R. (1989:176) *An evaluation of the Community Junior Secondary Schools in Botswana with particular emphasis on Decentralisation and Community participation.*

It appears that the panel is a wide representation of the stakeholders. Again, teachers appear to be represented in all levels of the curriculum development process. The representation is made according to subject areas. It must be noted

however that in terms of decision-making, primary school teachers in the panel have limitations as their involvement seems to revolve around curriculum issues such as selecting textbooks and other learning materials, designing their own lesson plans and teaching approaches in translating theories and instructions into practice.

One other point that needs mention is that the CDU has set up a few standard procedures for Curriculum Development Officers (CDOs) to follow. One of the procedures is to 'keep a CDU Curriculum Planner informed about progress and ask for his or her help with planning details such as workshops, visitation activities that help to orient teachers and others more on implementation procedures', for instance, use of both teachers' and students' guides (p. 1-6).

In managing curriculum development, it is very important to coordinate the individual groups, which are assigned tasks to work on its various components. In this technique, skilled teachers and others who were affected by the curriculum products were involved. These are some of the stakeholders who are able to inform the rest about what it takes for a product to work in the real world. The Manual indicates that involving people with an assortment of viewpoints and skills ensures that important opinions, viewpoints, and biases are heard.

Three kinds of training sessions are given to the teachers (CDPM, 1992:5-11). In these sessions, teachers are trained on how to conduct the learning activities. Also, content training is provided where the teachers are given in-depth information on the content covered. This could be in the form of lectures, discussion, readings and many others. Equally important is training the teachers on how to provide data. The primary school teachers here practice how to administer criterion-referenced test, filling out questionnaires and other forms.

Comments by trial teachers are vital to the evaluation procedure. Trial teachers are asked to comment on their experience while teaching the materials. Efforts are also made to find out if the teachers liked the segments or programmes and especially if it is likely to be accepted in its present form by other teachers. The teachers' reactions to the teachers' guide and the students' materials are solicited. Their reaction, it is hoped, can help to decide what needs to be changed if necessary.

#### **2.1.4.1.6 Conclusion on primary school teacher involvement in Botswana**

Sources so far consulted in relation to primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development tend to point to the fact that involvement of primary school teachers in curriculum development does not go beyond membership of

the panel. For instance, RNPE (1993:106) indicates that primary school curriculum was undertaken through the use of subject panels.

One would conclude that the involvement of the primary school teacher is very limited since the overseer in curriculum development is the Curriculum Development Officer who coordinates the work of the panel. Whatever decisions the panel makes, they are collective decisions, which of course are subject to the final decision of DCDE through subject CDOs. A similar view was expressed by Lakeland Joint School District in Britain when studying its curriculum development system. It was found out that the Subject Area Committee (SAC) consists of teacher members among others. However, according to Lakeland Joint School District, the process for selecting them is subject to approval by the District Curriculum Advisory Council (DCAC):

<http://www.sd272.k12.id.us/district/process.htm>.

Another aspect in Botswana is that the primary school subject teachers, who are members of the panel, report to DCDE as panel members. There is no way in which they can deviate from the collectivity norm whether their input is taken on board or not. In other words, panel members follow stipulated procedures like developing objectives of the subject drawing from the broad curriculum objectives, writing instructional materials, implementing syllabus and so on. Even the review period for the curriculum is determined by DCDE and not the

primary school teachers who are panel members. This will then be communicated to the stakeholders.

Munyadzwe (nee Lebala) (2000) in Letsholo et al., (2000:271) quotes Koopman (1966) as cited by Bayona (1995:38) when he said:

*The teacher must have the desire to change, must be a party to the formulation and adoption of the curriculum policy, must participate in developing new plans and procedures, and must put new plans to the test. No partial participation is effective.*

The argument as presented above, attests to the feeling that primary school teachers should play a major role in curriculum development. It is therefore important that the primary school teachers are regarded highly in matters pertaining to curriculum development. The researcher subscribes to Skilbeck's (1984:xii) distaste of a lingering tendency to treat the school as a mere recipient of policy and other kinds of wisdom generated in the loftier parts of the society.

#### **2.1.4.2 The Zimbabwean example**

Primary education in Zimbabwe runs for seven years. There is a common school curriculum, which is centrally determined by the National Subject Panel composed of education officers, teachers and representatives of interested bodies

such as universities, churches and the teachers' associations. The Curriculum Development Unit, a department within the Ministry of Education and Culture, coordinates the work of the subject panels. Also in Zimbabwean primary schools, a general classroom teacher teaches all the subjects (Gatawa in Postlethwaite, 1995:1084). However, this situation does not seem to be only peculiar to Zimbabwe or the developing world. The origins of the prevailing teaching role in primary schools are economic rather than educational (Alexander, 1995:296). Alexander is particularly concerned with character and challenges of teaching in primary classrooms, the decisions and dilemmas teachers face on day-to-day basis as they seek to reconcile values, expectations and circumstances, the strategies they adopt in response to these; the tasks children encounter as teachers translate curriculum goals and requirements into pupil learning experiences; the way children and teachers use time at their disposal, both globally in respect to the balance of the curriculum, and the minute-to-minute level of the structure and sequence of lessons and their constituent activities; and the nature of those interactions between teacher and pupil which are such a prominent feature of classroom life and such a vital element in learning.

Zimbabwe follows an objectives model in curriculum planning and development. This model uses pre-specified objectives, which are central to curriculum determination and follow a series of inter-active and inter-related steps (Gatawa, 1990:32-33). The steps it follows are listed briefly below.

#### **2.1.4.2.1 Situational analysis**

The step is done for the sole purpose of isolating variables, which could have a bearing on the envisaged curriculum. It establishes the context and provides information needed to make realistic decisions.

Questions such as the following are explored:

- a) What are the social, economic and political goals of the country?
- b) Is the programme in line with the existing needs?
- c) Who are the intended target students?
- d) What are the intended learning outcomes?

#### **2.1.4.2.2 Goal formation**

The aims and objectives are then decided. The aims and objectives help to give direction to the process of curriculum planning and development.

#### **2.1.4.2.3 Policy decisions**

According to Gatawa (1990:33) policy decisions are made before curriculum materials are developed and implemented. Questions like the ones following on page 69 are usually addressed:

- a) How much time shall be given to the planning and development of the curriculum?
- b) Will the curriculum be the same for all children?
- c) What are the priorities of action?
- d) What financial, administrative and time requirements will be needed?

#### **2.1.4.2.4 Trial and development**

After policy decisions have been made, the process of curriculum development enters the trial and development phase. Then subject panels are set up and a coordinating committee is established to oversee the activities of the different subject panels. After setting up subject panels and establishing a coordinating committee, activities such as the following are undertaken:

- a) Survey and analysis of the national objectives, and policy, noting development priorities to be woven into the curriculum.
- b) Survey of existing potential materials.
- (c) Decisions on the details of trials, monitoring and feedback. Trial schools, which are representative of conditions in which the curriculum will be implemented, (for instance, urban, rural, farm, and so on) are identified.
- d) Printing trial materials and sending them to schools.
- e) Mounting induction courses on trial materials for trial teachers, school heads, education officers, teacher educators and others.

In Zimbabwe, teachers are only involved in the curriculum development as members of the National Subject Panel. The number of teachers in the panel is however outnumbered by other members of the panel who are not necessarily teachers.

#### **2.1.4.2.5 Implementation phase**

After trial and development, a number of related activities have to be considered. The new materials have to be printed and distributed in time. Teachers have to be given opportunities to acquire the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values demanded by the new materials. Lastly, teachers' training institutions, education officers and examination officers have to change their roles to meet the new demands made by the new materials. It must be noted here that curriculum development in Zimbabwe is not a linear process. It is neither always possible nor desirable to wait for the trials to be completed before implementation stage begins.

#### **2.1.4.2.6 Evaluation**

Evaluation involves the continuous asking of questions and modifying the programme on the basis of the feedback received. Questions inter alia asked are:

- a) Are the objectives set for the curriculum and for each individual subject reasonable?

- b) Are the objectives clear and clearly understood?
- c) Is the curriculum making efficient use of the available money and human resources?

**2.1.4.2.7 Follow – up**

When the curriculum is operational, there is need for continued upgrading of teachers' competencies, research and collection of data on the teaching of new materials; production of supplementary materials; improvement of examinations; modification of core materials and trying out new materials towards curriculum revision. The following Figure 5, shows steps in the objectives model of curriculum development.

**Figure 5: Steps in curriculum development using the Objectives Model**

▼ CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT	
	◀ Situational analysis
	◀ Goal formation
	◀ Policy decisions
Evaluative feedback >	◀ Curriculum trial and development
	◀ Implementation
	◀ Evaluation

Adapted from: Gatawa, BSM (1990:36) "The politics of the School Curriculum: An Introduction".

Gatawa (1990:68) in particular blames the constraints for non-participation by the teachers on the primary teachers themselves. Referring particularly to Zimbabwe, Gatawa cites the composition of teachers, which he dubs "a mixed bag", -

unqualified practitioners, poorly qualified teachers and highly qualified professionals as one of the possible constraints. He also cites lack of institutional encouragement for teacher participation in curriculum development as yet one of the constraints. Gatawa (1990:69) is worried that some head teachers seem to be concerned solely with the smooth flow of their time-tables. There is no provision to engage teachers in curriculum design activities during school hours. Regrettably, teachers who are enthusiastic have to create time for such activities outside school hours. The hard stance on teachers by Gatawa is supported by Mulford, Kendall and Kendall in Wallace and Poulson, (2003:85). They partly blame teachers for their non-participation in curriculum development because, according to them, teachers prefer the relatively safe environment of congeniality that superficial structural and procedural change can bring. Mulford, Kendall and Kendall argue that teachers may be happy to let the administrators '*get on with it*' while they retreat to their classrooms.

The opinion of the researcher is that teachers sometimes may behave as if they do not know that they have a major role to play in developing curricula. When they have closed themselves in their classrooms, they seem to enjoy the comfort zones of such classrooms.

As Gatawa (1990:69) shows, little or no regard is given to the teachers' effort to participate in curriculum development in the sense of decision-making processes,

which will reflect the views of the teaching force. It appears that their effort as individuals or groups is taken as something without official recognition.

The role of the primary school teachers in Zimbabwe is to implement the official curriculum apart from the fact that there are some primary school teachers who sit in the panel for curriculum development.

## **2.2 The primary teacher as curriculum developer**

It has been noted earlier in the text that the work of primary school teachers makes them outright curriculum developers. In here, the views of the various writers are explored to determine the real position about this assumption.

### **2.2.1 Views of writers on primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development**

Writers like Bayona (1995:39-42) and Gatawa (1990:68-70) seem to have different perceptions about teacher involvement in curriculum development. For instance, Gatawa blames non-participation of teachers in curriculum activities on the teachers themselves. Subscribers to this thought like Bayona and Gatawa argue that teachers are inexperienced to engage fully in curriculum activities. The view of inexperienced teachers is held by Taylor, Mulhall, Malekela, Ranaweera, Seshadri and Dibaba (1997:18) when they indicate that normally in Tanzania,

there is no in-service training available for primary school teachers. According to Taylor et al., (1997) the primary school teaching staff have all been through a teacher-training programme. By Tanzanian standards, they are a well qualified cohort. But since we are living in a dynamic globalised world one would expect regular upgrading of primary school teachers so that they too are in tune with what is happening around. Some primary school teachers in Botswana, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and some other developing countries seem to accept curriculum activities designed by other specialists meekly, without expressing their interest in making their own input. Writers like Bayona (1995:44) give reasons for non-involvement on lack of knowledge about curriculum. Another reason is lack of resources and organisational constraints. Curriculum diversity is also indicated as yet another problem, which hinders primary school teachers from participating in curriculum development. Bayona (1995:46) also attributes this to the fact that the teaching force, consists of “a mixed bag”, that is, trained and untrained teachers, experienced and inexperienced teachers as well as those who are committed and those who are not. This very latter position is held by Lortie (1975:183), in English and Larson (1996) that teachers have mixed feelings about curriculum. Some teachers for instance want good, articulated curriculum. But such primary school teachers become averse to any curriculum activities which tend to encroach too much on their own prerogatives to decide what to teach, when to teach it, and how much of it to teach.

Bayona (1995:47) even believes that curriculum development is a centralised activity that is done by departments that are completely detached from the primary school teachers themselves. In this particular instance, Gatawa (1990:63) in his argument points out that the primary school teachers more especially in his home country of Zimbabwe have themselves to blame because instead of articulating their own position about their involvement in curriculum activities, they have decided to be passive consumers of installments of curricular materials churned out by a centre divorced from themselves. In the same vein, Clift, Nuttall and McCormick (1987:2) believe that the kind of curriculum that people have in mind, is the one that sees the teachers in the school as the main focus of activity. Clift et al. (1987) argue further that this thinking grew out of the reaction to the rather centrist approach to early school councils curriculum development projects in England. According to them, the approach was based upon the proposition that only the teachers can be the mediators of real changes in pupils' learning experiences; development must therefore be directed at the teachers and their classroom work.

Torrington, Earnshaw, Marchington and Ritchie (2003:1) attribute failure by teachers to voice out their concern for not being involved in curriculum development to some stereotypes they hold. Their observation is that teachers have the tendency to go into their classrooms, put a poster over the glass panel in the door to ensure privacy and then become totally in command of everything that happened inside the classroom. In this case, there is never any outside

interference or even much outside teacher support. The teachers would acknowledge the authority of the head teacher but would rarely be exercised inside the teachers' room.

Chipeta, Mazile and Shumba (2000:43) posit that what is noted with interest is the fact that curriculum development is a process that covers several stages to be undertaken before the curriculum can be implemented in schools. This process involves both planning and the actual development of the curriculum materials. The development itself also involves formative evaluation that is aimed at the perfection of the curriculum materials so that they can be used effectively in the schools.

These critics, Gatawa, (1990:63) and Bayona (1995:22) perceive the situation where primary school teachers are not involved in the initial curricular activities as a purely user role. They point out that primary school teachers in the third world in general, have been conditioned to regard curriculum politics as a "sacred goat" - a responsibility of armchair theorists, (that is, their preserve). Furthermore, they see curriculum as proceeding from the wisdom of elaborate and esoteric books and not the classroom experiences of primary school teachers. Reynolds and Webber (2004:107) on the other hand, borrowing from Huebner, (1993/1998); Macdonald (1995) and Pinar and Grumet (1976), talk of curriculum as *curricula vita*, which they say has been lost in the modern discourse of curriculum, except for occasional voices in the wilderness. They postulate that

the void or vacuum left by the collapse of *curricula vita* language has been filled by a technical curriculum discourse that treats individuals as economic resources far past even what the worldly and practical colonial Puritans (the British subjects who settled in America in a place they named New England in the early 1600s). Their main reason to settle there was to free themselves from the Anglican Church so that they could worship God in their own way, (Blake and Haliburton, 1971:31). Their worry as they quote (Palmer, 1993) is that students and teachers have become pliable materials to be exploited for socio/economic utility.

Regarding primary school teachers and students as objects when it comes to curriculum development issues, is something which is evident in the colonial approach to curriculum development. It appears the educational market is saturated with instructional materials in the form of books, journals, articles, etc., most of which do not have accompanying teachers' and students' guides.

Reynolds and Webber (2004) continue that individuals are expected to accept curriculum which is now associated almost with schooling. They contend that the grouping of subjects is a desperate exercise. According to them, each subject field has its own closed discourse. However, there is no explicit meaning to guide the individual in crossing disciplinary boundaries so that he or she could have an insight into how knowledge is produced, or how each field shares similar metaphors and ways of understanding.

Perhaps to understand the concept of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development, one needs to explore the historical perspectives at global level. Elbaz in Lewy (1991:365) understands the conceptions underlying teacher participation from two perspectives, derived from the historical models of teaching. One such model is the Socratic model, in which no distinction can be made between the teacher and the curriculum developer. Socrates in his teaching used to develop knowledge and simultaneously finding ways of presenting that knowledge to his audience, and helping students to attain knowledge themselves. Another is the scholastic model in which the teacher is a part of a hierarchically organised scheme in which knowledge is divinely inspired.

The curriculum is handed down to the students in precisely the same manner and form that the teacher acquired it. This is particularly evident in the Centre-Periphery Model where the decisions on curricular issues are communicated from the top. (The model is discussed on page 87). However, the teacher's task is sharply distinguished from that of the curriculum developer.

Elbaz (1991) alludes that recently, there have been some developments towards teacher involvement in curriculum issues. According to him, this has particularly been evident in the United States around the 1960s. State and district-wide curriculum development teams became common practice. Although Sabar also in Lewy (1991:367) shares the same views as Elbaz on the establishment of curriculum centers across the world, he expresses fear that they

had a predetermined aim on a macro-social level, and that they developed curricula via a “scientific” process. They also employed project teams for producing instructional materials.

Sabar in his detailed study focused more on the school based curriculum development, with particular reference to the role that the teacher plays. He commented that, ‘Teachers received ready-made materials often detailed (and restricting) instructions, with or without an introductory familiarising course’ (p. 368). Sabar (1991) in Lewy (1991:368) cites Goodlad and Klein (1970) who argued that the new curriculum developed by this approach failed to prove itself as a dynamic document in spite of its professional quality. They indicated further that there were very few signs of their impact in the classroom.

It appears that for a long time now, there has been a strong lobby for significant teacher participation in curriculum development. McNeil (1996:296) cites Virgil Herrick who proposed some degrees of teacher responsibility for making curriculum decisions as shown in Figure 6 (see page 80). In the Figure, the positions indicated are the areas of curriculum in which the teacher makes decisions about curriculum issues.

**Figure 6: Positions of teacher responsibility for curriculum decisions**

Are of decision	Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4
Concept to be taught	Textbooks	Prescribed objectives	Subject matter units	Social analysis
Activities and Materials	Text, lecture	Student participation, Modeling  Practice	Cooperative projects  Both directed and inquiry lessons	Students construct knowledge  Projects in the real world
Evaluation	End of chapter	Test and final exam	Observation product test	End of year project
Continuities and next step	Textbook	Sequenced objectives	Units seldom related	Students decide what they want to learn

**Adapted from:** McNeil, D. (1996:297) *Curriculum: A comprehensive introduction*.

At position 1, teachers do little more than to follow the textbook and school policies. At position 2, teachers take responsibility for decisions regarding learning activities, the time to be spent on particular subjects and how to evaluate students. Teachers at position 3 go beyond textbooks, selecting concepts to be taught, designing learning activities, and creating smooth transition between steps. In position 4, the teacher plays a major part in curriculum decisions.

It would be much ideal if primary school teachers were involved in all the positions. After all, primary school teachers are well vest in children's needs. For instance, they may be in the best position to know which textbooks are

appropriate to which class standard. In other words, they are better placed to recommend the right textbooks for a particular class. McCullough in Chen and Horsch (2004:131) is also an advocate of this position. He observes that:

*In the classroom, it is teachers who make the minute-minute decisions each day, and no matter what policies are passed, what reforms are mandated, in the end educational change is in the hands of teachers.*

In actual fact, the teacher's responsibilities ought to span the whole curriculum because all the aspects of the curriculum from development to evaluation, end up with the teacher. Whether the issue is about assessment (for instance, examinations, tests, assignments and many others) the teacher is fully involved. That is why Fitz-Gibbon (1996:92) suggests that assessment systems must be informed by teachers and accepted by teachers. He further says that in a plan to design assessment, teachers should be regarded as prime 'customers' for two reasons. One is that if teachers do not accept it, it is unlikely to succeed. Here he gives the example of Scotland teachers who objected the proposal model of teacher-given and teacher-marked tests. In supporting the teachers' move, Fitz-Gibbon poignantly argues that teachers had the power to scupper proposals because those proposals depended upon teachers to implement them.

Regarding the instructional setting, syllabus and course design, (Curzon, 2004:185) argue that the teacher plays the role of controller. The teacher,

according to him, organises a teaching strategy, which is appropriate to students' aspirations and needs and of course, the demands of the curriculum. Further, the teacher in this role is viewed within the general pattern of systems analysis. He explains that the teacher brings together the components of a learning system, – students, teachers, learning environment and instructional materials. The ultimate goal here is to achieve a desired objective. Importantly, he indicates that syllabuses and course design will be shaped by the teacher-manager's individual interpretation of the goals of the curriculum for which the college as a whole is responsible. As teacher-manager, Curzon (2004) says that 'this requires from the teacher the exercise of certain functions broadly associated with management, in the formal sense of that term' (p. 175).

Curzon like other writers makes an effort to point out how important the teacher is to curriculum development. This researcher also supports this effort. Whatever official curriculum is put before the teacher, he or she subjects it to thorough scrutiny so that it suits the prevailing conditions in the school in particular and specifically in the classroom. In other words, the teacher places it upon himself or herself that the curriculum is relevant. The dimension made is that teachers' actions on the curriculum are more informed by their own beliefs, which in most cases affects the curriculum (Lemlech, 1998:48-49). She points out that teachers make decisions, which constitute the classroom curriculum. According to her, these decisions relate to teachers' experiences in their schools.

These teachers' beliefs are aptly described as curriculum conceptions. Table 3 shows such teacher curriculum conceptions contrasted with the teachers'.

**Table 3: Teachers' and students' roles in curriculum conceptions**

<b>Curriculum conception</b>	<b>Teacher's role</b>	<b>Student's role</b>
Academic rationalism	Director Presenter	Acquires knowledge Appreciates knowledge
Social reconstruction/ adaptation	Sensitive leader Guides Fosters interaction Researcher leader	Interacts with others in groups Engages in social problem solving
Humanism	Provocateur	Self-actualisation Discovery Choosing what to learn
Technology as a Curriculum orientation	Sequences learning From part to whole Programmer	Acquires basic skills
Cognitive processing	Generates problems Encourages inquiry	Searches for understanding Develops thinking processes

**Adapted from:** Lemlech, J. K. (1998:49). *Curriculum and instructional methods for the Elementary and Middle School.*

As the Table indicates, in the **academic rationalism**, the teacher selects what Lemlech calls "classical liberal arts content" to transmit cultural heritage. The teachers believe that students need to participate in the activities of the society by studying the classic disciplines. So, mathematics, languages, literature and pure science constitute the most important content to be taught. With respect to **social reconstruction**, the teachers assume a responsibility to make the world a better place to live in. Teachers' emphases therefore, are the social environment of the community and the needs of the students they teach.

The **humanistic** teacher creates opportunities for students to become self-actualised. Like in social reconstruction and adaptation orientations, the humanistic teacher uses the environment of the classroom to motivate and provoke the students' interests and studies. The teacher in the **technology orientation curriculum** approaches the curriculum with a behavioural orientation. Objectives are clearly written and teaching is to be efficient and focused. Students learn step by step through drill and practice. The overall aim of the teacher in the **cognitive processing** orientation is to help students to develop cognitive skills, that is, to help them learn how to learn.

The teacher might be well vested in all or some of the curriculum conceptions. This all round knowledge of the teacher needs to be recognised, appreciated and utilised by a skillful curriculum developer. Table 3 clearly shows that the teacher is the most capable stakeholder to handle issues of curriculum.

Another reason why teachers should be regarded as prime customers, Fitz-Gibbon (1996) argues is that teachers know what it takes to run a classroom and create achievement in their own circumstances, in an ever-changing world in which the classroom itself undergoes change.

There is no doubt that the teacher is a primary authority in the teaching and learning processes irrespective of whether or not the education system regards him or her as such. The teacher, due to his or her wealth of pedagogical content

knowledge, is able to tailor any teaching activity to the needs of the learners in accordance with their age. His or her wealth of pedagogical content knowledge puts him or her in a very good stead to put across to the learners, what is to be learnt in a successful way.

### **2.3 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MODELS AND THE ROLE OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER**

The role of the teacher is indicated by Edwards and Fogelman (1993:12) who quoted from the British Education Reform Act that:

*The teachers' role is to develop young people, to help them grow as individuals; to find better ways of helping them to learn; to develop skills which will help them to learn independently and prepare them for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life as required.*

The significance of the teacher is highly recognised here because it is the teacher who spends most of the time with students. The teacher therefore is instrumental in moulding the behaviour of the students in the way that the society wants them to develop.

Some curriculum development models seem to advocate full involvement of the teacher in developing the curriculum. Others totally do not support teacher involvement. Some of the curriculum development models such as the

**Centre-Periphery, the Centre-Pilot School-Periphery and the Net Work Models** are briefly discussed in this report. They are however shown in Figures 7(a), (b) and (c) in the pages, which follow. The models show some trends in curricula decision-making and development processes.

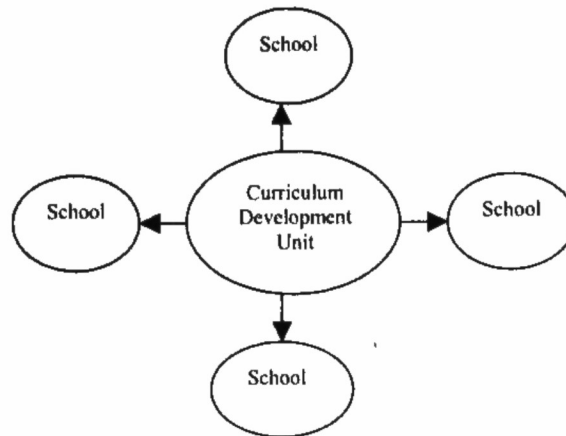
### **2.3.1 Curriculum development models**

There are several curriculum development models in the field of education. Since all of them cannot be discussed for lack of space and time, the researcher will select a few of them which are similar to the primary curriculum development model in Botswana for brief discussion.

#### **2.3.1.1 The Centre-Periphery Model**

The centrally devised curriculum is disseminated to the schools without any participation by the teachers in the development of the new curriculum as it is indicated in Figure 7(a) on page 87.

**Figure 7 (a): The Centre - Periphery Model**



The model indicates a typical top-down approach. The authorities design curriculum without involving the primary implementers. It is then fed or cascaded down to schools for application. The model therefore does not at all support teacher participation in curriculum development.

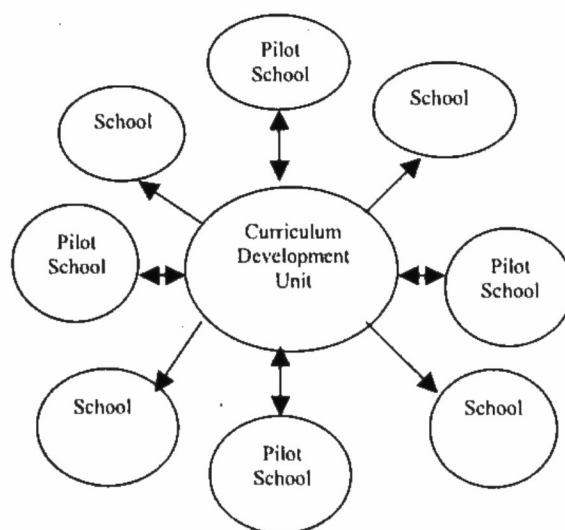
There are various contradictions advanced by scholars regarding the role of the teachers in curriculum development. For instance, Everard, Morris and Wilson (2004:178) believe that the introduction of the National Curriculum brought with it, major approaches in the British approval to education. They indicate further that the advent of 'key stages', 'compulsory assessment', 'standards of attainment' and 'national norms' introduced a common structure that frustrated the efforts of the teachers. Evarard, Morris and Wilson (2004) indicate that many teachers and others viewed the national curriculum as unwarranted restriction of professional freedom and resistance to changes. They also point out that to many teachers and others, the National Curriculum appeared to pose unwarranted restriction of professional freedom. They expressed fear that resistance to changes was

understandably heightened by inadequate preparation for the introduction of radical reforms as indicated in the National Curriculum and an increase in teachers' workload.

### 2.3.1.2 The Centre-Pilot School-Periphery Model

This model illustrated in Figure 7 (b) only invites schools, which participate in the pilot projects as the central team, which develops the new curriculum. However, the materials, which are developed, are tested, revised and then disseminated to other schools, which did not participate in the pilot exercise. The model only supports involvement of the teachers who are already in the pilot exercises. The schools, which are not in the pilot exercise, continue to be fed with curriculum materials from the centre.

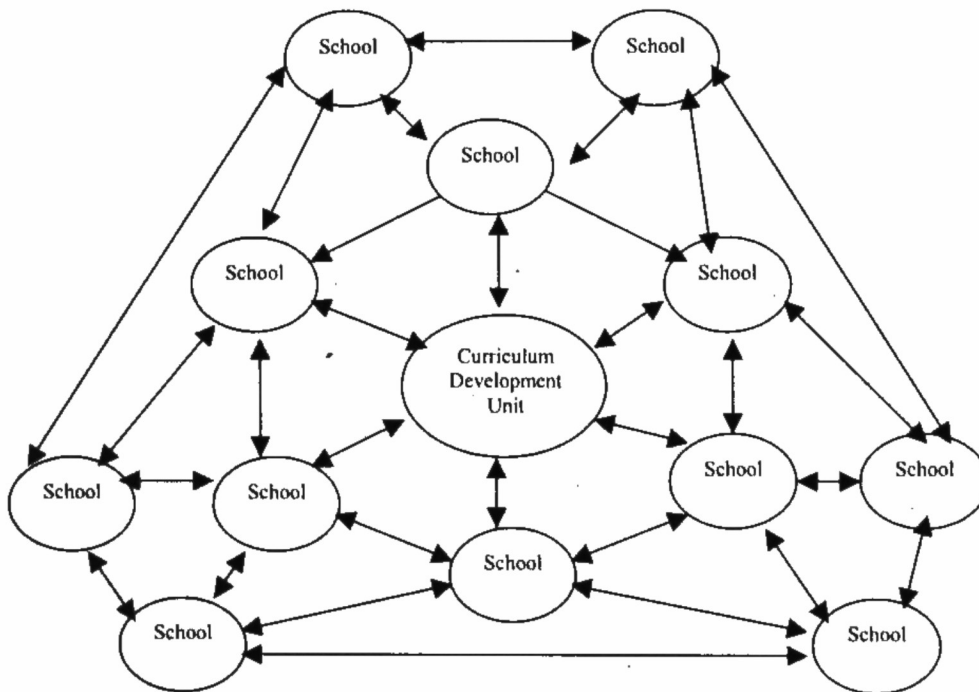
**Figure 7 (b): The Centre-Pilot School-Periphery Model**



### 2.3.1.3 The Network Model

In this model, curriculum development appears to be a transaction between the schools and Curriculum Development Unit. There is a joint effort between the Unit and schools and between schools and schools. Curriculum development is conducted at local level and fed to the Curriculum Development Unit for co-ordination and dissemination. The model supports participation of many teachers in the development of the curriculum as shown in Figure 7 (c).

Figure 7 (c): The Network Model



The other curriculum models, which are much preferred by curriculum developers and teachers, include the Skielbeck and the six step curriculum development

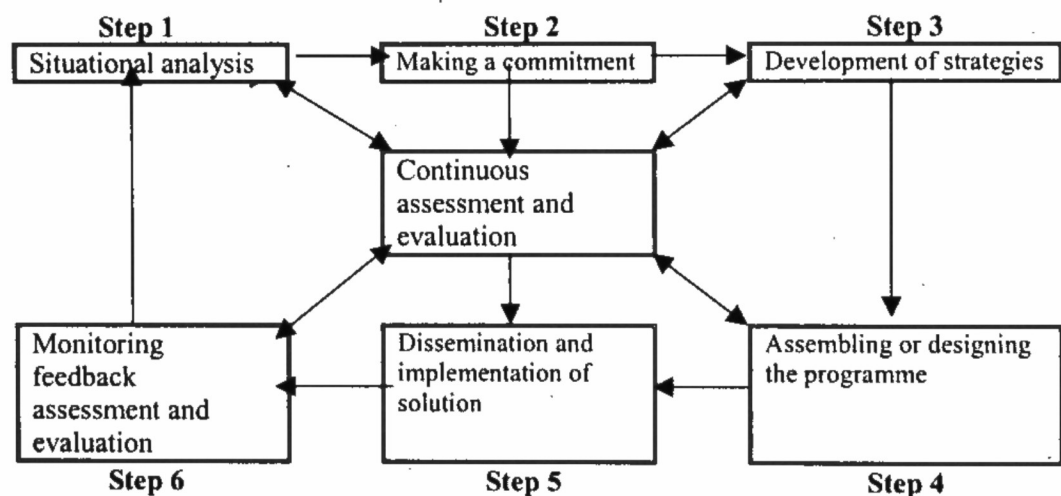
models (illustrated in Figures 8 below and 9 on page 93). They are usually referred to as the dynamic curriculum development models due to the fact that they change with the times to accommodate curriculum development trends as they unfold. Some of these models are discussed in this report, as it would be seen later.

#### 2.3.1.4 The Dynamic Models

The dynamic models seem to be preferred because of their flexibility in allowing full participation of teachers in curriculum development processes.

##### 2.3.1.4.1 The Six-Step Curriculum Development Model

**Figure 8: The Six-Step Curriculum Development Model**



**Source:** Bayona (1995:82) *Curriculum design and development: The role of teachers.*

Bayona (1995:52-57) came up with a curriculum development model, which gives room for primary school teacher participation in developing the curriculum. It is a model, which delineates an approach through which primary school teachers and curriculum developers at head office, through equalised power sharing, can jointly exercise responsibility for deciding, developing and controlling the school curriculum. The model tries to map out teacher involvement strategies in curriculum decision-making and development throughout the national curriculum development system. Bayona indicates further that the model is intended to maximise primary school teachers' influence upon curriculum decisions and development activities at all levels, from the classroom through to the national level. However, Bayona admits that since the majority of personnel in education systems are primary school teachers, it is impractical to expect that each could personally participate in all curriculum decision-making and development functions, and at every level. In this model, all teachers are regarded as active, personal decision-makers in their individual classrooms, as well as participants in curriculum teams and or collaborative project situations.

Bayona (1995:81) further argues that participatory curriculum decision-making and development incorporating all school teachers and other participants from all corners of the country requires a frame of reference to unify and guide participants at all levels in working with curriculum processes. He indicates that this is necessary for two reasons. First, in most countries of Africa, educational and curriculum policies already subsume nationally unified practices. Second,

since a majority of participants (primary school teachers) seem not to be professionally conversant with processes of curriculum decision-making and development, an overarching framework is essential for the successful implementation of the Participatory Curriculum Development Model (PCDM).

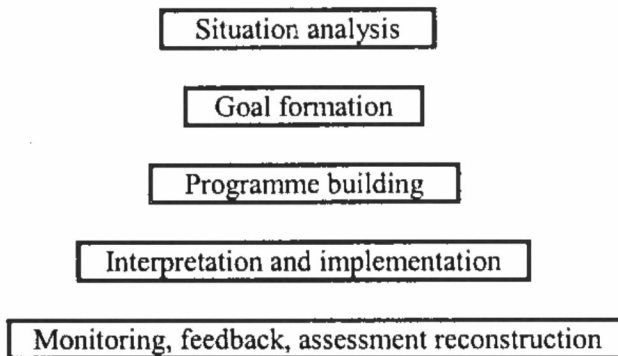
The confidence that Bayona (1995:58) appears to have about the model is that its guidelines will not only lead the participants through important stages of decision-making, but it will also provide a basic orientation to curriculum decision-making and development per se. Bayona (1995:56) seems to believe that an entire participatory curriculum decision-making and development based system can achieve uniformity of approach, consensus of common goals, consistency in decision-making and feedback of results. The success of any educational programme depends on how much the primary school teacher takes part in its development. The primary school teacher for instance, could provide good guidance for the student to perform successful simulations.

However, Bayona's (1990) views are not yet taken as the best approach to curriculum development. The reason for not regarding this approach as the best alternative is due mainly to the fact that in many education regimes, curriculum is still highly centralised. Manzer (2003:4) says that an 'educational regime is a stable ordering of political principles and public authority for the governance of education'.

#### 2.3.4.2.2 Skilbeck's Model

Michael Skilbeck (1984) proposed a participatory curriculum development model whose primary target is the school. It advocates for a model that is started at school level where school staff make an input in curriculum development issues.

**Figure 9:** Skilbeck's Model



**Source:** (Skilbeck, M. 1984, In Abosi et al., 1995:215) Education in Botswana: A Reading Text

Dynamic models of curriculum are seen to be offering a practical alternative and a consistent process of curriculum development. Proponents of the dynamic curriculum models, Bayona (1989) and Skilbeck (1984:15, see Figure 9 above) argue that in these dynamic curriculum models, rational and cyclical models do not represent the reality of curriculum development procedures in most curriculum development centres and schools.

Even though the dynamic curriculum development models have their own disadvantages, Bigala, Bayona, Chipeta and Marope (1995:216) argue that they

offer a more realistic and feasible approach to curriculum development. They tend to avoid the dominance of prescribed objectives and curriculum developers. Teachers have the freedom to be more creative as they design and implement the curriculum. Secondly, the models offer curriculum developers and teachers considerable flexibility in handling curriculum design and implementation tasks.

It appears that researches on teacher involvement in curriculum development meant to close the design gap between the teachers and curriculum developers when center-periphery approaches to curriculum were developed, were not given due attention. To this effect, there has been a major effort to increase fidelity in the implementation of the curricula. Some writers make an observation that there is a growing concern, especially among African scholars and politicians over heightened tension between the expected roles of the primary school teachers. This is in facilitating national development through the curriculum and the systems that have been established to effect the curriculum (Nkonoki, 1976; Maliyamkono, 1977; Bayona, 1978; Ejiogu, 1980; Thomson, 1981 and Nyerere, 1984).

The fact that curriculum developers can commence at any point in the process enables them to address curriculum problems (or needs) more appropriately than in other models where they are required to proceed in a rigid, and sequential order. The nature of dynamic models enables curriculum developers to move about in any order of events, retracting their decisions and steps and proceeding in

the manner they consider or find suitable. This viewpoint is supported by Boyle (1981:140) in his argument that models such as Skilbeck's (1984) are usually characterised by the need to analyse the situation so as to establish the real needs of the intended beneficiaries of the learning programmes and the conditions under which learning took place. They also believed that the models were known to be effective in arresting curriculum and implementation problems promptly, more than other models because of their in-built continuous monitoring and feedback mechanism.

Skilbeck (1984:278) indicates that to effect curriculum activities successfully; there have to be a concerted action by all the important stakeholders. Skilbeck believes that this could not be done with precision if it is done independently of action elsewhere in the education system. In other words, for this to succeed, the schools must work through their relations, discovering how these made their own development possible. The schools need a wider frame of reference than the school itself, and resources other than those they themselves control. The actions that the schools took towards developing the curriculum were therefore but a part, albeit a key part, of what is meant by curriculum development.

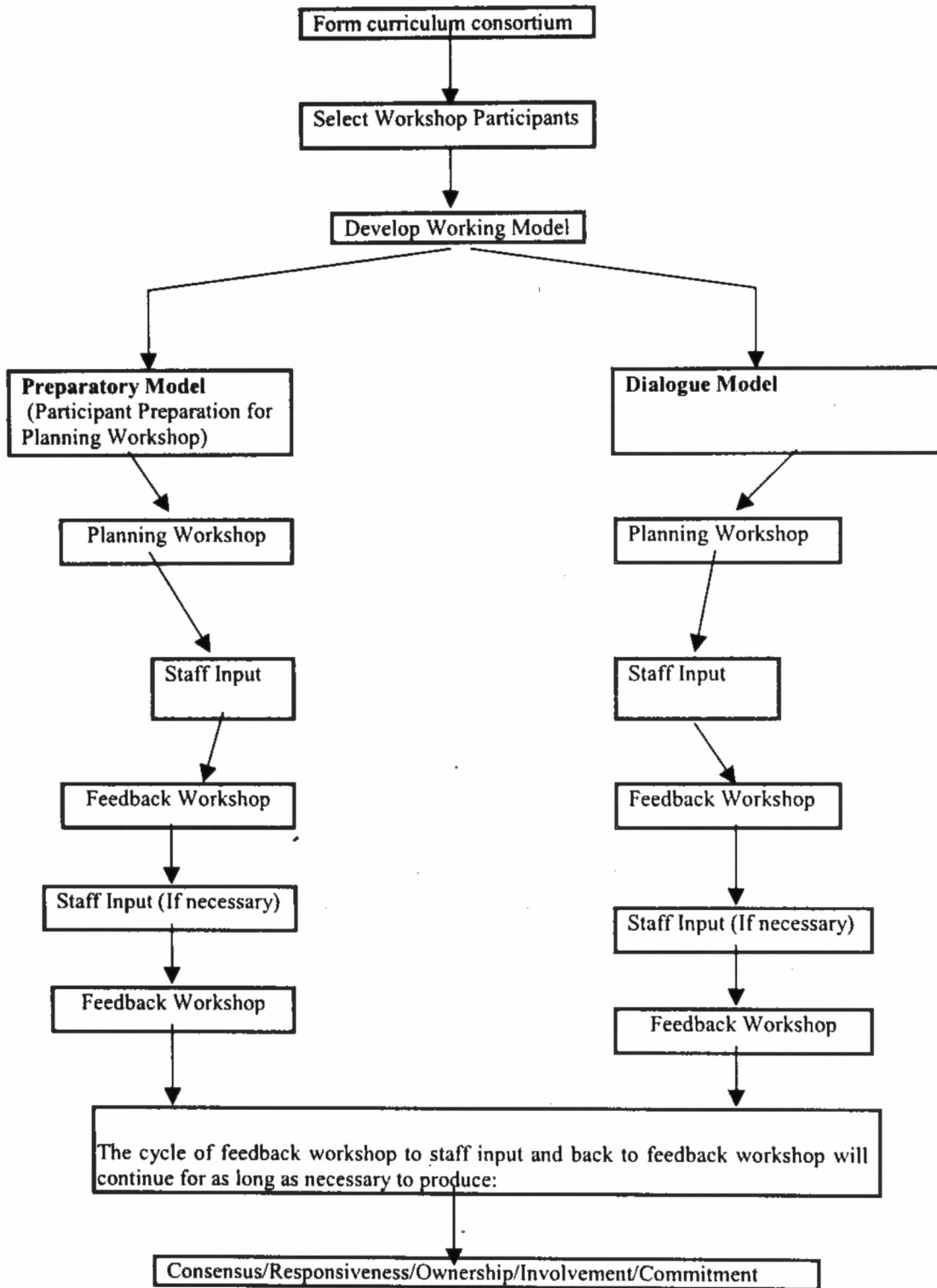
Although Skilbeck (1984) advocates School Based Curriculum Development (SBCD) model, he is aware that the school cannot operate alone to implement the curriculum independent of other education systems. The school needs to explore

all other avenues in partnership with the stakeholders, so as to adapt and adopt whatever appeared relevant to the school.

The concept of SBCD gained considerable credence and support in Australia in the 1970s and 1980s. SBCD is the development of a curriculum, or an aspect of it, by one or more teachers in a school to meet the perceived needs of a school population, that is, an on-site resolution, in curriculum terms, of problems experienced with the existing curricula (Print, 1993:19).

Bradley (2004:27) brings forth the curriculum development process premised on the Curriculum Process Flow Chart. It depicts the process used to develop, revise, or align curriculum using either the dialogue or the preparatory model. The steps for the two models are identical except for participant preparation for the process. In the preparatory model, the participants are asked to make individual preparation for the initial workshop. In the dialogue model, there is no such preparation. Specifically, Bradley indicates that schools form consortiums in which they are involved in curriculum design and implementation (see Figure 10 on page 97).

**Figure 10: Curriculum process Flowchart**



**Source:** Adapted from: Bradley, L. H. (2004:28). *Curriculum leadership: Beyond boilerplate standards.*

In a related matter, Zais (1976:477) found the analogy of Saylor and Alexander as not only important but also relevant. However, he seems to be worried that a reversal of the prescription of the two is what really happens. He puts a particular blame exclusively on excessive class loads and unreasonably heavy nonprofessional duties, which prevent teachers from having time for curriculum work at all. Zais further argues that studies of curriculum innovation indicate that teachers are not oriented toward developing new curricula, or even toward developing new patterns of classroom operation.

In fact it is usually rare to find a situation in which the school personnel work together as a team over their school curriculum. It would then be impressive if the school head is instrumental in guiding everybody else in discussing what concerns them most in the classroom.

According to Sabar in Lewy (1991:368), Connelly (1972:161-177) criticises vehemently, the top-down approach, perceiving the process of curriculum as having two phases: (1) the preparation of curriculum materials by external developers, and (2) the planning of classroom instruction by “developers as users”. By the latter, Connelly refers to primary school teachers whom he says best know the situational conditions of teaching learning in their classes.

Sabar (1991) further shows that teachers receive instructional materials prepared by professionally trained experts and then adapt them to the needs of their own

classroom. It appears that in the late 1970s and early 1980s, Sabar (1991) started to realise a change in curriculum development paradigm, in favour of the teachers. According to him, curriculum experts tended to view primary school teachers and schools as significant contributors to the curriculum development process, rather than as mere receptive partners. But this seems to be only recognition without any accompanying practical actions.

Schubert (1991) in Lewy (1991:225) indicates that curriculum history is a relatively new scholarly enterprise of inquiry throughout the world. Again, the general history of education had been part of scholarly discourse for a century or so. Within this history, one finds documented aspects of curriculum policy, practice and theory of the past.

There were writers who attributed non-involvement of teachers in curriculum development to hegemonic tendencies by some groups in the society, which yielded some sort of political power. Such tendencies were suspected to be transmitted through unplanned or hidden curriculum. For instance, Maruatona in Charakupa, Odharo and Rathedi (1995:54) was adamant that the hidden curriculum gave some authorities in schools, a ladder to transmit the dominant cultural values both consciously and unconsciously, hence isolating the teacher from curriculum activities. This position was also held by Vance in Lewy (1991:40) and Jackson (1968) quoted by Beyer in Lewy (1991:304). They

indicated that hidden curriculum was a regular and effective part of the school experience.

In line with Maruatona's thinking, Leornado (2003:241) quotes Apple (1995) who noted that part of the problem with setting the curriculum agenda is that politicians have taken an active role in diminishing the authority of academics and teachers in setting curriculum goals. According to Leornado (2003), this attitude, which he views to be rampant, bespeaks mistrust of scholars and practitioners. He further argues that when scholars like professional primary school teachers have had influence over curricular direction, they have been more concerned with behaviourally oriented models that emphasise better pedagogical procedures rather than asking more difficult questions about power, privilege, and the politics of knowledge. O'connor and Cohn in Houck, Cohn and Cohn (2004:5) and Slattery and Rapp, 2003:105) recognise a similar situation in which politics penetrates the education arena. They point out that educators by nature are uncomfortable with politics. They further argue that:

*We often see ourselves as noble souls morally superior in our dedication to advocacy for children. The seedy world of politics is often viewed by us as dirty, corrupt, and capable of damaging our high ideals.*

O'Connor and Cohn (2004) talk about a common situation where politics would be used by the authorities to gain their political mileage. Interference by politics tends to exacerbate dominance of certain cultural or economic privileges over others.

Slattery and Rapp (2003:105) indicate this contention and contradiction when they brought this dimension into curriculum debate:

*Conservative politicians and parents often call for "back to the basics" in the curriculum with structured, orderly classrooms and a focus on reading (phonetics), writing (grammar), and mathematics (computation skills). Some even propose including sectarian Christian prayers, traditional "family values", and patriotic citizenship lessons in the curriculum.*

They further argue that others insist on specifics, "value neutral" materials in the schools so that parents can teach values in the home. The call for "back to basics" for some also means a return to traditional Greek, Roman and European literature with an emphasis on what they call the Great Books of western culture.

The argument by Slattery and Rapp (2003) indicates common feelings in any society that is destined to uphold its own belief system. There would be among them, individuals or groups in such societies who would want the national curriculum to take shape with the dynamics of the changing trends in the world.

Of course others like in the traditional African societies would resist such changes for fear of erosion of their own culture. Even in Plato's ideal society they argue, individuals and groups received an education that matched their assigned social roles of either a worker or intellectually elite philosopher-king.

Topping and Wolfendale (1985) in Dean (1999:126), Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:223) and Doll (1996:18) like other advocates of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development activities share the ideas that the teacher occupies a central position in curriculum decision-making. They also believe that primary school teachers have knowledge of child development and theories of learning and teaching. The primary school teachers then have the advantage of accumulated store of professional experience as the backcloth to their practice. The primary school teacher decides what aspects of the curriculum, newly developed or on going, to implement or stress in a particular class. The primary school teacher also determines whether to spend time, and how much of it, on developing basic skills or critical thinking skills.

Topping and Wolfendale appear to stress the need to involve the teacher in curriculum development. As they rightly show, the primary school teacher has a wealth of experience that could be tapped for developing curriculum. After all, it is the teacher who implements successfully the curriculum through instructional delivery modes, alone in his/her classroom. That is why they have the capacity to

appraise individual differences in learning receptivity, rate of learning and can match each child's learning needs to the provision on offer.

Topping and Wolfendale rightly identify the skills that teachers have which they have successfully used in their teaching pursuits. Teachers as Topping and Wolfendale indicate, use such skills to reflect on their teaching. Reflective teaching is one of the techniques, which makes teachers effective curriculum leaders. Zeichner (1994) in Green, Scott and LeKita (2003:81) argues that the term reflective teaching has been embraced by teachers, researcher and teacher educators all over the world. Zeichner indicates that on the surface, reflective teaching purports that teachers are salient components in formulating the purpose and ends of their work and that teachers must become leaders in curriculum development and school reform.

Advancing their observations and reasoning further, Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:223) argue that 'when primary school teachers shut the classroom door they determine the details of the curriculum regardless of the curriculum plans of others'. Rapping up their arguments, they suggest that primary school teachers should be involved in every phase of curriculum development. They hold the view that primary school teachers should be part of the total curriculum development activity right from the formulation of aims and goals to the evaluation and maintenance of the curriculum. Bowen and Hobson (1987:8) give full support to this view. They are adamant that upon the primary school teachers

devolved the task of implementing whatever form of education was sought to be cultivated.

It becomes evidently clear that the primary school teachers as some of the primary stakeholders are knowledgeable about what really goes on in the classroom. They are able to adjust classroom activities for the good of effective learning. That is, they decide what aspects of the curriculum, newly developed or on going, to implement or stress in a particular class. Primary school teachers determine whether to spend time, and how much of it, on developing basic skills or critical thinking in children. As most of the arguments go, all those who participate in the process of education, like the primary school teachers, must attain a high degree of awareness and understanding of the issues involved. Primary school teachers are singled out because they are in the forefront of providing a foundation of educational leadership to the children they teach at an early stage. It is believed that if the primary school teachers become instrumental in the curriculum development processes, this will accord them the opportunity to device teaching strategies or approaches appropriate to any standard or age level in their respective schools.

Writers therefore, (for instance Bowen and Hobson, 1987:165) seem to view primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development as something, which is not new to learning situations. They argue that it dates as far back as the time of Aristotle. They point out that during the Aristotelian era, teachers used to

organise knowledge into its structures. Additionally, the teacher employed principles of arrangement in which they taught their students from the simple to the complex, or the known to the unknown. They seem to be adamant that developing the curriculum brings with it thoughts of appropriate teaching strategies which will make it easy to implement the curriculum as expected.

What Bowen and Hobson (1987) say indicated clearly that the role of the teacher in curriculum activities has for long been regarded highly. Even in recent times, the position of the primary school teacher is still regarded the same, even though some practical realities seem to point to a different direction.

The societies in which primary school teachers live seem to have high respect for teachers. They believe that alone they cannot mould their children into responsible citizens of tomorrow. They are adamant that primary school teachers are instrumental in this societal responsibility. Ayers (2004:134) is one person who holds this belief. He says that 'teachers appear to the nonteacher world, to be people of authority, legal sanction, license and influence'. He however indicates that teachers often experience themselves as powerless, abused, underpaid and generally unappreciated.

Doll (1996:418) for instance, gave three tasks that he argued made the primary school teachers effective improvers of curriculum. These tasks are that: (1) They work and plan with pupils, (2) they engage in individual study and (3) they share

experiences concerning the curriculum with other primary school teachers by learning from children, from books, and from one another. They grow in insight and skill so that they may provide better experiences for their pupils. Actually, the duties of the primary school teachers have grown much beyond the three tasks that Doll (1996) has identified. They perform administrative duties, usually at the expense of their professional duties.

Gatawa (1990:63) does not advocate for any arrangement that disregards the significance of teacher involvement in curriculum development. He argues that the role of the teacher was confined to mere interpretation and implementation of syllabi. Even in this role, teachers do not enjoy total autonomy. Their activities are directed by a series of official documents. The development of primary school teachers' guides, for instance, is done without involving primary school teachers. And yet, the effectiveness of primary school teachers' guides depends on the extent to which they are sensitive to specific situations. They could not have a universal application.

It could be argued that the exclusion of teachers in curriculum decision-making processes is a deliberate attempt by some individuals who wield political power to remain in control of national issues, or even advance their own interests through the 'official' curriculum.

According to Gatawa (1990), for primary school teachers' guides to be effective, they should be teacher-specific. He opines that if such guides merely illuminated aspects of syllabi without taking into account specifics of given groups of teachers, their usefulness would be limited.

Bayona (1995:1) quoted Sieber (1992), Eisner (1979) and Tanner and Tanner (1980) who believe that curriculum development required knowledge and expertise beyond that which primary school teachers had generally acquired; that in any case teachers simply did not have time and resources to develop curricula, and that their role was principally one of implementation.

Developers of curriculum could be having their own reasons why they find it necessary to exclude primary school teachers from actively participating in curriculum development. However, these reasons could have a negative effect on the primary school teachers themselves. In the first place, such a move as Gatawa (1990) sees it, could distance primary school teachers from curriculum decision-making processes. The result being that the immensely rich insights and experiences of primary school teachers could not be tapped for curriculum decisions.

Gatawa (1990:64) foresees problems of demoralisation and demotivation in teachers if they were sidelined in curriculum activities. Primary school teachers in the first place do not fully commit themselves to curriculum materials. Then,

they do not identify themselves with such materials since they feel that they were put at the receiving end (for instance, required to implement curricular decisions made by people other than themselves) of curriculum decision-making.

Based on his advocacy for primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development, Gatawa finds it worthwhile that the pattern of participation and the nature of responsibility be extended to include the primary school teachers. He suggests that primary school classroom teachers should be encouraged to develop their own programmes. Gatawa (1990) argues further that, “The grassroots approach which gave primary school teachers initiative, should replace or, at least, be combined with the ‘from-the-top-down’ administrative approach which reduces primary school teachers to passive recipients of curriculum materials.”

This researcher supports the idea of active participation in curriculum decision-making processes by the teacher. The responsibilities of teachers leave them as the primary actors in curriculum development. In other words, without active teacher involvement, curriculum documents would remain useless, just mere paper programmes. It is the primary school teachers who could fully activate them into practical classroom activities.

According to Gay cited in Lewy (1991:296) those who are responsible for curriculum development comprise a diversified and numerous lot. This is even irrespective of the social context in which this happens. It could be in South

Africa, United Kingdom, China or Indonesia. He indicates that 'the degree and kind of involvement vary according to the role and functions and relationships of the actors and influences to the official structure of the school system, and the intensity of commitment and regularity of participation'.

In Botswana for instance, the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation is involved directly and regularly in matters of concern to curriculum development processes. In other words, it is up to government to approve or not, certain decisions meant to alter processes in the current curriculum. Since the Department is answerable to the MoE the decisions it makes should be approved by the Ministry.

The argument leads to the fact that some specifically designed governmental agencies are involved directly and regularly in curriculum decision making in all countries. However, the authenticity for and extent of their involvement vary by the legal regulations which govern the control of education, and the political zone of influence in which curriculum development occurs.

#### **2.3.1.5 The centralised curriculum and the role of the primary school teacher**

The centralised curriculum, straight jacketed as it may be, could be restricting to the professional primary school teacher. The primary school teacher is expected

to implement the official curriculum as it is without 'tampering' with it in any way. This being the case then, it is unlikely that such an official policy document would not support teacher involvement in curriculum development. This is unlike a curriculum that has been designed on the basis of the needs of the intended beneficiaries, which would stand better chance to be accepted by them. They would even collectively own up to the successes and failures of that curriculum without finger pointing.

Elbaz in Lewy (1991:366) argues that the participation of the primary school teachers in curriculum development varies both in its extent and nature. In the first place, teachers in some school systems are given detailed curriculum plan to follow down to the attainment of their specific objectives. Secondly, teachers only receive the general guidelines, which are to be elaborated on and adapted to their individual classrooms.

The guidelines that usually characterise a rigid curriculum are not enough for the primary school teacher who meets curriculum for the first time in the classroom. The proponents of such a curriculum theory would only be interested in seeing it go through, irrespective of the hassles that the primary school teacher would be confronted with. Otherwise, the teacher would not be qualified to perform his/her duties.

Creemers (1994:51) holds the same position when he alludes to the fact that developers of the curriculum should clearly describe how primary school teachers had to use the curricula. He is adamant that primary school teachers should teach according to the curricular guidelines with regard to the subjects and the sequences of goals as well as the way subjects are presented.

McNeil (1996:296), considers the role of the primary school teachers as of school based participants. He cites the example of Michael Kirst who perceived the teacher as a crucial maker of curriculum policy. Another example was that of John Schwille and others who pointed out that primary school teachers have considerable freedom to use their own notion of what schooling ought to be. However, it would appear that like Gatawa (1990), Schwille was aware of the external pressures of state textbooks and district curriculum guides that primary school teachers are subjected to in their individual school environment.

Pinar and Grumet (2004:704) discuss the role played by the teachers in curriculum development from a number of perspectives. For instance, they argue that from a fidelity perspective, the teachers' decisions are generally in the realm of how to deliver the curriculum most efficiently and effectively to the students in classrooms. Another perspective from which they debate this issue is the perspective of mutual adaptation in which the teachers' role amplifies and then decisions are understood to reshape the curriculum as planned according to the dictates of the local classroom situation. They then quote (Snyder, Bolin, and

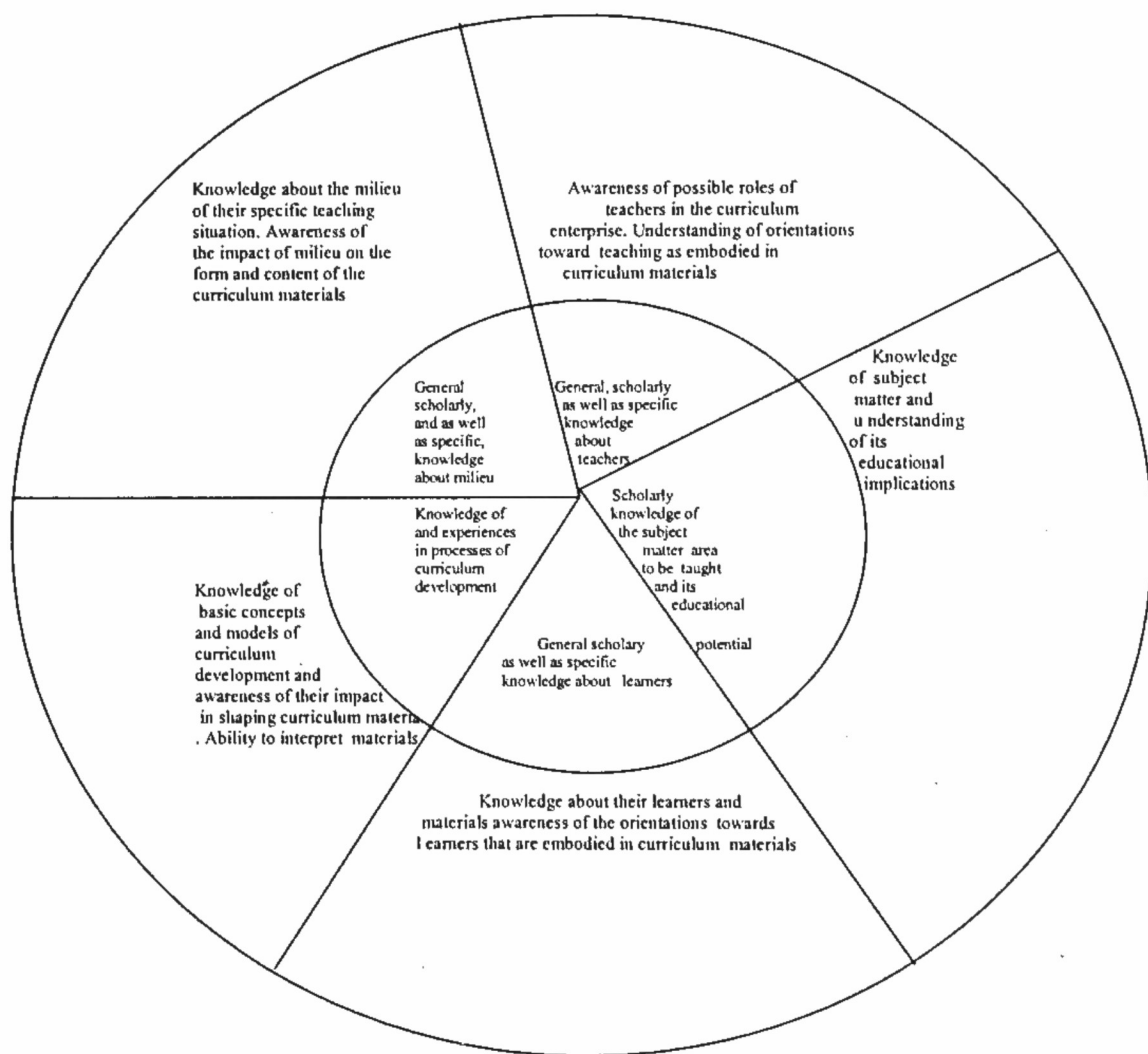
Zumwalt, 1992) who from the enactment perspective indicate that teachers' decisions are necessary for there to be a curriculum at all, as it is the curriculum enacted that makes a curriculum at all.

The discussions by Pinar and Grumet (2004:769) are so paramount to the role of the teacher in curriculum development. The primary school teachers interpret the curriculum as it is handed down to them to implement at classroom level. This they do as a result of their wealth of pedagogical content knowledge, (that is,) the knowledge they require to convey the subject matter to the students, or their capacity to transform the content knowledge they possess into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by the students Shulman (2004), in Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery and Taubman, (2004:769). One then would argue that the current century is the golden age for full primary school teacher participation in curriculum development. Romano (2003:2) alludes that the teacher has adequate knowledge even in teaching and learning, which is an information driven process. He argues that the teachers' responsibility is to manage the information required to meet the objectives of a specific curriculum. According to him information is the fuel that powers the teaching learning process.

Figure 11 on page 113 indicates expertise required from primary school teachers and curriculum developers. It is indicated in the figure that the primary school teachers and curriculum developers ought to be well rounded in the general field

of education for them to be able to plan, design and evaluate an acceptable curriculum at least to most of the stakeholders, a curriculum that is all inclusive. They need to be well versed to some acceptable standard with knowledge of basic concepts, about curricular issues.

**Figure 11: Areas of curriculum expertise required of curriculum developers and teachers**



**Source:** Silberstein, M. "Curriculum studies in teachers' education". In. Lewy, A (Ed.) (1991:393). *The international encyclopedia of curriculum*.

Figure 11 supports teacher involvement in curriculum development, especially the fact that the teacher should be knowledgeable in all areas of curriculum expertise. In this way, the figure advocates teacher training, so that the primary school teachers become competent in areas that deal with curriculum development.

McNeil (1996:296), Gunter, Estes and Schwab (1990:35), Prophet and Rowell (1990:1) and Ramatsui (1991:87) are convinced that primary school teachers are the ones who can easily organise the content of the course so that the students have an overall understanding of what they are learning. Primary school teachers therefore, could successfully define instructional objectives within an overall framework that indicates what is to be taught. They can also design and order learning activities to achieve these ends. This could be done from a variety of angles, where the primary school teacher brings together all the components of a learning system, students, teachers, the learning environment and the instructional materials so as to achieve desired objectives.

Bacchus, Aziz, Ahmad, Bakar and Rodwell (1991:15) and Hirst and Peters (1970:36) give total support to primary school teacher involvement in curriculum activities. Their further argument is that teachers, especially primary school ones in most Least Developed Countries (LDC's), appeared to have limited educational background. Many primary school teachers even lack formal education for their jobs. The academic deficiency is noticeable in linguistic competencies of the teachers. Since the teacher has to make moral decisions, and courses of action, which he or she insists on as being in the child's interest, it is hoped that their

training should be one of the priority areas. These academic deficiencies in the primary school teachers, seriously limit their participation in curriculum activities. Kelly's (1991) perspective fully supports primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development and as such agrees very well with Bacchus et al., and Hirst and Peter's (1970) positions. Kelly's (1991:118-119) views indicate that the teacher is the hub of all curriculum activities in the school system. The primary school teacher is identified as the person whose role is quite fundamental and crucial to the effectiveness of educational provision. To have effective curriculum, it appears there has to be teacher participation in its development.

The researcher agrees with the perception of Kelly (1991:118-119) concerning the role of the primary school teacher in curriculum development. The educational system has as its basis, the norms of the society which guard against behaviour patterns, which are not in consonant with such societal norms. The primary school teacher then, has absolute responsibility to make sure that he or she develops the children who will not become social misfits.

The significance of the primary school teacher in curriculum activities lies in the fact that the school curriculum is conceptualised and developed from the perspectives of planners whose personal biographies intersect with the perceived needs of the students. These biographies of the planners also intersect with the contextual features of the school. Implementation of the newly developed curriculum involves its interpretation by teachers. Since there are multiple

perspectives involved in planning and implementing a new curriculum, usually the views of curriculum held by the implementers never necessarily coincide with the views held by the planners of such curriculum plans. This situation therefore requires an intermediary in the name of the teacher to help to reconcile such views by way of interpreting the curriculum in the manner in which it will satisfy both stakeholders.

The majority of writers on curriculum studies as already indicated, appear to agree to greater involvement of the primary school teachers in curriculum innovations. Unfortunately however, other writers usually think of the primary school teacher as a person who only stands in front of a class of students, in the formal process, and instructing from a position of social and intellectual authority. The proponents of this belief seem to think that there is nothing else beyond this that the primary school teacher could do.

To entrust the primary school teacher with the nation's heritage, - children, efforts must be made to develop the primary school teacher to make sure that he or she is skilled to perform to his or her best potential. In a practical sense, he or she can realise the dream of developing and shaping the 'citizens of the future' in the manner in which the society will accept them.

In fact as Prophet and Rowell in Snyder and Ramatsui (1990:1) say, curriculum could not be implemented 'hot from the pot' without its interpretation

by the teacher. The primary school teacher, whose duty is to ensure its successful implementation, has to interpret it first and make good meaning out of it. Where the teacher failed to make good interpretation, he/she would have to refer it to planners, if he/she was not part of the planning system. If this becomes the norm, it could have implications on curriculum implementation because it would require time, which could be productively used in the teaching process.

From the observation of what writers said about the primary school teacher, one would conclude that primary teacher training should be a rigorous task whose absolute aim would be to prepare teachers for curriculum work. That is, the major curriculum activity components should be included as part of the overall teacher training. Primary school teacher development should then be seen as a continuous and unending task. Today primary school teachers perform their work in an atmosphere that is dictated by fast changing technology, which calls for rigorous orientation and retraining of the primary school teacher.

The point made here shows clearly that the 'from-the-top-down' curriculum initiatives fail to address practical realities of life in the manner in which the primary school teacher-student instructional interaction is concerned. It appears obvious that the primary school teacher should base learning experiences and activities on child's experiences. Unfortunately, the from-the-top-down curriculum activities seemed to overlook this very important need.

Also, Bacchus et al. (1991:15) point out that as compared to other occupational groups, primary school teachers are not highly paid. This according to them contributes to their low motivation and subsequently their failure to take part in curriculum development. Another factor they indicate is that primary school teachers work in overcrowded schools, which often does not provide enough seating and writing space for all the pupils in attendance. This they said makes teaching a very challenging and difficult career. Another factor advanced in this regard is that the primary school teachers do not receive notification of their appointments until a few days before and sometimes weeks after the school term has started.

In their further debate, Bacchus et al. (1991:16), are concerned with the general low level of primary school teacher education in some developing countries in the Commonwealth, and they tend to argue for a more focused curriculum. Their hope is that such a curriculum could allow the range of instructional responsibilities assigned to schools to be carried out better. Accordingly, a more active involvement of primary school teachers to help ensure that curriculum changes are successfully implemented is needed. Littlelyke and Huxford (1998:9) quote Vygotsky and Bruner (1998) who stress the social construction of knowledge. They view the role of the teacher being to stimulate learning and helping children to understand socially agreed forms of knowledge. They conclude that the whole arrangement provides a place for the teacher instruction

in a way, which will be compatible with children's personal construction of meaning.

The understanding of the teacher's role by Vygotsky and Bruner (1998) clearly puts forth the view that the teacher is a better placed individual when it comes to student learning. The teacher really knows what to do to create a conducive atmosphere for effective learning. It is therefore fitting that many writers call for the primary school teacher's full involvement in curriculum development. Many writers also have their own understanding of the extent of involvement in curriculum development by the primary school teacher (Ashcroft and Palacio, 1997:24).

Their version of primary teacher participation is shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Three levels of curriculum planning**

<b>Planning level</b>	<b>Participants</b>	<b>Purposes</b>	<b>Outcomes</b>
<b>Long-term:</b> Key stage or year group plans	Headteacher, all staff and governors.	<b>To ensure:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. Coverage of all aspects of school curriculum</li> <li>. balance within and across all aspects of the curriculum</li> <li>. Coherence within and between all aspects of the curriculum</li> <li>. Continuity between key stages.</li> </ul>	Broad framework of curricular provision, reflecting aims, etc.  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. specifying content to be taught</li> <li>. organising content into manageable and coherent units of work</li> <li>. Sequencing work into three terms</li> </ul>
<b>Medium-term:</b> Termly or half-termly plans	Class teachers supported by subject coordinators and/or year group coordinators	To develop each year group plan into a detailed sequence of continuing, blocked and linked units of work.	A detailed specification for each unit of work which sets out: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. learning objectives</li> <li>. resource requirements</li> <li>. suggested teaching strategies and pupil groupings</li> <li>. assessment of opportunities</li> </ul>
<b>Short-term:</b> Weekly or daily plans	Class teachers	<b>To ensure:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. differentiation</li> <li>. a balance of different types of activity throughout week</li> <li>. monitoring evaluation</li> </ul>	Detailed daily or weekly lesson plans and appropriate records to ensure day-to-day teaching and assessment.

**Source:** SCAA (1995). Adapted from: Ashcroft, K. and Palacio, D. (Eds.). (1997:24) *Implementing the Primary Curriculum: A Teacher's Guide.*

Table 4 shows levels of curriculum planning in which primary class teachers are involved. For instance, for long term planning their involvement is minimal. In

medium and short terms, there is evidence of greater involvement. For the latter two terms involvement is only confined to schools.

Some curriculum writers succinctly present curriculum models with which to identify the components of a curriculum and illustrate how these elements interrelate in forming the entire curriculum development process (Abosi and Kandjii-Murangi, 1995:213-215). For instance, Skilbeck (1984:5) indicates that SBCD has the potential for involving primary school teachers in curriculum decision-making and development. As a proponent of the SBCD, he is convinced that it should be encapsulated in a wider national setting rather than a local school context. Skilbeck bases his argument particularly on the fact that the school has a network of relationships with other schools, groups of people, and institutions both locally and nationally. Again, he laments that schools are financed either locally or centrally and consume a wide range of curriculum materials generated by various interest parties. He advises that curriculum decision-making should take all these into account.

Skilbeck (1984:5, in Bayona, 1995:33) recognises and supports the role played by different stakeholders in curriculum activities. He notes that neither the independent initiatives of the school nor those of larger external forces in the curriculum are by themselves sufficient for achieving the system wide kinds of changes that are needed. Each process requires the other, in a well worked out philosophy and programme of development. It is this interrelationship, including

the quest for better communication, a more concrete kind of partnership and shared decision-making between the school and the larger educational environment that has to be the focus of our efforts in future to foster this relationship.

Skilbeck (1984) finds it unrealistic and undesirable for the central authorities to continue to unduly dominate curriculum decision-making and development. According to him, responsibility for curriculum control should be shared equally between the 'centre' and its schools, and also take into account the legitimate rights of teachers and others participating in, and managing curriculum processes. Skilbeck (1984) and others with the same persuasion seem to argue for a national network of curriculum decision-making.

It will not be surprising if changes in curriculum could be based on the primary school teachers' suggestions because of their familiarity with what happens in the classrooms. Their experiences could provide good recipes for appropriate needs assessment.

Akinpelu (1981:17-18) rigorously contends the view that has long been expressed that primary school teachers are conservative, rigid and dogmatic on educational matters. Instead, he proposes a 'better way' in which primary school teachers could overcome their educational problems through analytical philosophy.

For instance, Akinpelu (1981:17-18) he argues that:

*As philosophy involves 'thinking things through' on one's own, rather than taking statements and recommendations for granted, it will help the teacher to become more aware of the implications of the various issues involved in education. ... he will discover other dimensions of meaning, which other educators have neglected; ... .*

The argument by Akinpelu indicates the need to develop the primary school teacher to be an all rounder in all educational issues. Teacher education therefore has to be reviewed regularly so that it suites current trends. This will probably help in including the teacher in issues pertaining to curriculum development, - as one of the primary stakeholders.

Akinpelu believes that with knowledge of philosophy, primary school teachers will be able to look at educational problems more critically, divesting them of the confusion that personal interests and prejudiced emotions usually introduce into educational discussion. In fact philosophy will have a humbling effect on those who pursue it, in that it forces one to keep an open mind on any subject.

Zais (1976:471-72) presents in a succinct way, the views of different writers about the position of the teacher in curriculum development. He gives an account

of groups that establish minimum curriculum standards. These groups include private accrediting agencies, which employ onsite visits and written reports of findings to enforce the maintenance of minimum curriculum standards. Private testing agencies according to Zais (1976), also exert a “standardising”- influence within the curriculum. Although these agencies do not entirely control curriculum content, they surely place important limitations on it at the local level. Zais gives an example of departments of education, which are also widely recognised for influencing curriculum standards. Another significant force is the association of primary school teachers of special subjects. They usually lobby the teaching force for determining local curriculum policy.

Annarino, Cowell and Hazleton (1980:9) observe that the teacher is found in faculty meetings, on curriculum, evaluation, or other all – school committees. Thus the primary school teacher has a broad view of a comprehensive programme of education, and the children and youth under his or her influence sense some emphasis on common values and unity of experience. Annarino, Cowell and Hazleton (1980) like some other writers in curriculum, conceive education programme as an integral part of the local educational effort of a school. In other words, the school too has a duty to plan and implement its curriculum in the manner in which it will be appropriate to its own situation. The significance of the primary school teacher in curriculum development has also been recognised and highlighted by the Commonwealth Secretariat (1970:29) in their conference on education in rural areas. They indicate that the importance of the primary

school teacher to the effective introduction of any new curriculum needs not be overemphasised, except to only ask of teachers what they can implement.

It is nothing to trigger any debate to say that the primary school teacher has the capacity and skill to undertake work on curriculum development processes. She or he has adequate knowledge about the behaviour of the students (which in most cases, was accumulated through experience and classroom research) in relation to the learning programmes. The primary school teacher then can utilise the wealth of experience to help design appropriate curriculum programmes for different learning situations.

Teacher involvement is essential for successful and meaningful curriculum development as teachers will be the eventual implementers thereof and will experience the problems at first hand (Carl, 2002:271). Carl (2002) does not see the involvement of teachers in curriculum development as anything to worry anyone because by its very nature, curriculum development is an educational process and the teacher should be involved with it. He posits further that if teachers experience that they also have a share in it, greater professional growth may take place, which may extend to a higher standard of curriculum development. He however indicates that the responsibilities of the teacher in curriculum development would vary from level to level. He gives the example of the aspects of varying teacher involvement in curriculum development as shown in Figure 12 on page 126.

**Figure 12: Teacher involvement in curriculum development**

Class	Highest degree of active and direct involvement Active implementation of syllabus
Subject curricula	High degree of active involvement Extension of syllabus
School curriculum	Proposals for amendment Utilise opportunities Knowledge of requirements
Syllabus development	Input Awareness Proposed amendments Participation in committees Implementation
School phase planning	Awareness Critical
Education legislation	Limited knowledge and interpretation
Interpretation of educational attitude interpretation and philosophy	
Level/Sector	Nature of involvement

**Adapted from:** Carl, A. E. (2002: 272) *Teacher Empowerment through Curriculum Development: Theory and practice.*

The view held by Carl (2002) is supported by Blyth (1984:9) who argues that there can be no curriculum without teachers. He further argues that:

*Indeed, ... there are claims that the primary curriculum cannot be considered apart from primary teachers. ... an enabling curriculum is bound to require a distinctive approach from teachers; not necessarily greater demands, but a willingness to think in terms of the development and experience of individual children, to plan a curriculum as intervention, and to consider equipping children for choice and for acceptance.*

What Blyth (1984) discusses brings to the fore the content knowledge of teachers which is vital to the development of the curriculum. Authorities, which involve primary teachers fully in curriculum development, recognise the potential that teachers possess. Blyth's (1984) viewpoint supports Wortham's (2002:20) who argues that 'the task of developing quality programmes for young children is complex'. Wortham (2002) points out that the teacher not only must plan the programme for all types of children but also must understand the contributions of various types of early childhood setting, the contribution of research to the development of quality programme models, and the relationship between theory and practice in programme planning.

In fact an effective teacher is characterised by his or her ability to develop programmes in line with the needs of children of varying ages. The teacher as Wortham (2002) indicates, must be the one who is able to adapt the instructional materials to particular children's needs.

Infact, curriculum is never satisfactory to all the stakeholders and that is why it would require periodic review since it is a dynamic process. It is not even a question of either or that to satisfy the needs of the various stakeholders, there has to be a compromise of issues regarding curriculum. That is why (Morrison and Ridley, 1988:10) advance the following viewpoint:

*... curriculum is not a closed system, but that it is open, negotiable, problematic, and has to be constantly reviewed, questioned or discussed. Second, ideological analysis reveals potential conflicts in curriculum decision-making. If one queries why certain ideologies are over-represented or under-represented in the primary curriculum, one is thrust back on to an examination of the power structures operating in curriculum decision-making, to identify whose discussions are holding sway.*

It is obvious that curriculum is a sensitive and highly contentious area of study and practice, which requires cautious approach by all those who have a stake in it. Curriculum therefore, has a number of people who claim to have a stake in it. It is against this understanding that Jacobs in Jacobs (2004:1) argue that a strong curriculum is the foundation for strong teaching and learning. Jacobs sees curriculum mapping (which he defines as a procedure for collecting data about the operational curriculum in a school or district referenced directly to the calendar) as the logical hub for the work of school empowerment.

Walker (2003:294) seems to support the idea of involving teachers in curriculum development issues. He finds this to be the most frequently used strategy for facilitating classroom curriculum change. He points out that school officials hope that if they involve teachers in the process of curriculum change, teachers will embrace the new curriculum as their own.

Walker (2003) further says of school officials:

*They often speak of getting teachers to 'buy-in' to the new curriculum. Teachers welcome the opportunity to participate in curriculum change efforts for several reasons. They like having a say in something that affects their work so much. Being involved in curriculum decisions affirms teachers, image of themselves as professionals. They get a better chance to have a curriculum that they believe in and like.*

Teachers seem to appreciate a situation where they are recognised as major role players in educational programmes. Their hope is to be involved in the process of curriculum so that they could contribute in any way they can.

Walker (2003:294) points out that, 'Teachers realise the curriculum in their classrooms, and teachers must change it. He argues strongly that those who want to bring about change in the classroom curriculum must find ways to influence teachers to make the necessary change (p. 252). Walker details the needs of the teachers that they can activate to make changes in the curriculum'. These needs are listed in Figure 13 on page 130.

**Figure 13: What teachers need to change in the classroom curriculum**

1. An opportunity to study the change and its implications for classroom practice.
2. A voice in the deliberations leading to a decision to undertake the change.
3. Incentives to undertake the change effort in their classrooms.
4. An opportunity to learn what students will be expected to learn.
5. An opportunity to master the new teaching skills required by the change.
6. Access to resources, temporary access to the resources required for making the transition, and continuing access to the resources required by the practice.
7. Ways to check the quality of their realisation of the new practice.
8. Continuing support to work out bugs in the new pattern and to resolve conflicts between the new pattern and what remains of the former.

**Source:** Adapted from Walker, D. F. (2003:253) *Fundamentals of Curriculum: Passion and professionalism*.

Paczuska (2003) too, in Hayton and Paczuska (2003:146) seems to be concerned about the dominance of particular social groups over all others, the thing which according to her could impact negatively on curriculum. For instance, she cites volumes and volumes of information generated by the Universities and Colleges Admissions Services (UCAS) for admission purposes at various British universities. According to her, the information generated by UCAS has the values of socially dominant groups as its basis.

Paczuska (2003:146) argues further that:

*... the approach also implicitly accepts the 'selectivity' of higher education, which is itself based on ideas of academic meritocracy rooted in ideas of 'intelligence' and merit that are associated with particular*

*social groups. Although statistics produced by UCAS and more general admissions research focus attention on 'exclusionary practices' by higher education, an acknowledgement that admissions procedures are dominated by cultural practices that favour socially dominant groups above others, the main concern of the UCAS approach is to enable access to information.*

With respect to educational regime, Manzer (2003:4) argues that an education regime is instituted first as a collective response to a primary problem of political economy. Secondly, he indicates that its coherence and purpose depend on widespread acceptance of a core of political ideas that may derive from a dominant political ideology but more often will be created from conflict and compromise among the proponents of opposing doctrinal positions. Thirdly, Manzer (2003) indicates that an education regime implies a distinctive set of public policies covering both the governance and the provision of education.

Manzer (2003) points out that the concept of education regime, which, includes the established institutions and procedures for educational governance, allocation of public authority, and style of public decision making as well as the design and implementation of educational programmes.

Teachers in their daily work practice are so vest with the goings-on in the classroom or school environment. This knowledge of the learning process in

general, gives the teachers an edge over any other practitioner to be able to enact whatever changes in the classroom practice in the manner that they may see fit. But it appears that sometimes teacher creativity is constrained by stronger forces prevalent in the social milieu.

#### **2.3.1.6 Current knowledge about primary school teacher Involvement in curriculum development**

Literature that has so far been reviewed, indicates that even in democratic education regimes, the primary school teacher is subservient to some authority elsewhere. How much part the primary school teacher takes in curriculum development may not be of any significance since he/she does not have a final authority on curricular decisions.

In the West, though there is a semblance of flexibility in curriculum decisions, still there is control of curriculum matters by the authorities. This control however varies from state to state or district to district. For instance, in the US, some state governments are responsible for education. Walker and Soltis (1992:5) have indicated that in the US public schools, even the most experienced primary school teachers have no legal right to control the curriculum of their classrooms. The Russian example had however shown how the state maintains absolute control over the education system. This seemed to be a similar case for other socialist countries.

Curriculum decisions in Canada are the responsibility of the regional centers, which mostly prepare curriculum matters for schools. In Botswana, the trend seems to be changing at a faster rate. Even though the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation (DCDE) prepares curriculum materials for use in the schools, there is some consultation of stakeholders like primary school teachers. This is done in stages (see page 47 for items under Botswana). Subject Curriculum Development Officers (CDOs) hold workshops with individual subject primary school teachers selected from sampled schools to prepare them for implementation of such materials. Then, primary school teachers are selected as team leaders, whose duty is to run regional workshops for teachers who have not had training on implementation of the materials. These workshops are mainly held at education centers, which are built throughout the country. Robb, Peloewetse and Watson (1990:142) express a similar view on the Botswana situation that the development of curriculum materials is the responsibility of the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU). Junior Secondary Education Improvement Project (JSEIP) assisted CDU where necessary. JSEIP was an American initiated project, which was meant to improve junior secondary education in Botswana. It has however ceased to exist.

Curriculum for pre-schools in Botswana is a typical example of a centrally controlled system. Coordinators or principals and some board members of such schools design the curriculum. But it appears that the role of the board is insignificant since they simply appear to rubber stamp the decisions of the

coordinators. This is an indication that the curricula of pre-schools are not standardised. However, the recommendations of the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) (1993:77) on standardisation of curricula in pre-schools are still to be implemented.

Bude (2004:1) in his study of the German situation is convinced that by their very nature, teachers play a pivotal role in successful curriculum change. But however, what he sees as reality is that changes to curricula are frequently designed almost exclusively within Ministries of Education or in specialised institutions: (<http://www.dse.de/zed/texte/process.htm>).

The arrangement in which Ministries of Education play a leading role in curriculum development indicates well that there is little direct involvement at primary (even secondary) school level. Bude (2004:2) argues that it is not helpful although primary school teachers are sometimes assigned to curriculum development institutions or form part of curriculum development commissions or teams. According to him, teachers are generally regarded more as “conveyors” than designers of curriculum. Bude (2004:2) however appreciates the fact that although as implementers of the curriculum teachers’ contribution to the success of change is vital.

It is evident that some authorities or curriculum centers prescribe the use of curriculum to the primary school teachers. Even the collection of curricula data

from respondents, including primary school teachers, does not give any guarantee that such input would be considered for implementation.

Tanner and Tanner (1980) quoted by Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998:395) wrote that teachers and local schools function in curriculum development at three levels. These are: 1. Imitative maintenance, 2. Meditative and 3. Generative. These levels are briefly explained.

#### **Level I: Imitative maintenance**

At this level, Tanner and Tanner indicate that teachers rely on textbooks, workbooks, and routine activities, subject by subject. They further point out that ready-made materials are used without critical evaluation.

#### **Level II: Mediative**

Teachers are said to be aware of the need to integrate curriculum content and then deal with the situation as it unfolds. At this level, the focus of curriculum remains segmental, in which theory is divorced from practice and curriculum improvement remains at the level of refining existing practice.

### **Level III: Creative-generative**

Teachers take an aggregate approach to curriculum development. Tanner and Tanner indicate that the teacher and the whole school staff examine curriculum in its entirety, and questions of priority and relationship are asked. Teachers think about what they are doing and try to find more effective ways of working. Teachers at this level are able to diagnose their problems and formulate hypotheses for solution. They also experiment in their classrooms and communicate their insights to other teachers. Teachers also at this level are notable consumers of research and seek greater responsibility for curriculum decisions at the school and classroom levels. They exercise independent judgment in selecting curriculum materials and adapt them to local needs. These levels are indicated in Table 5 on page 137.

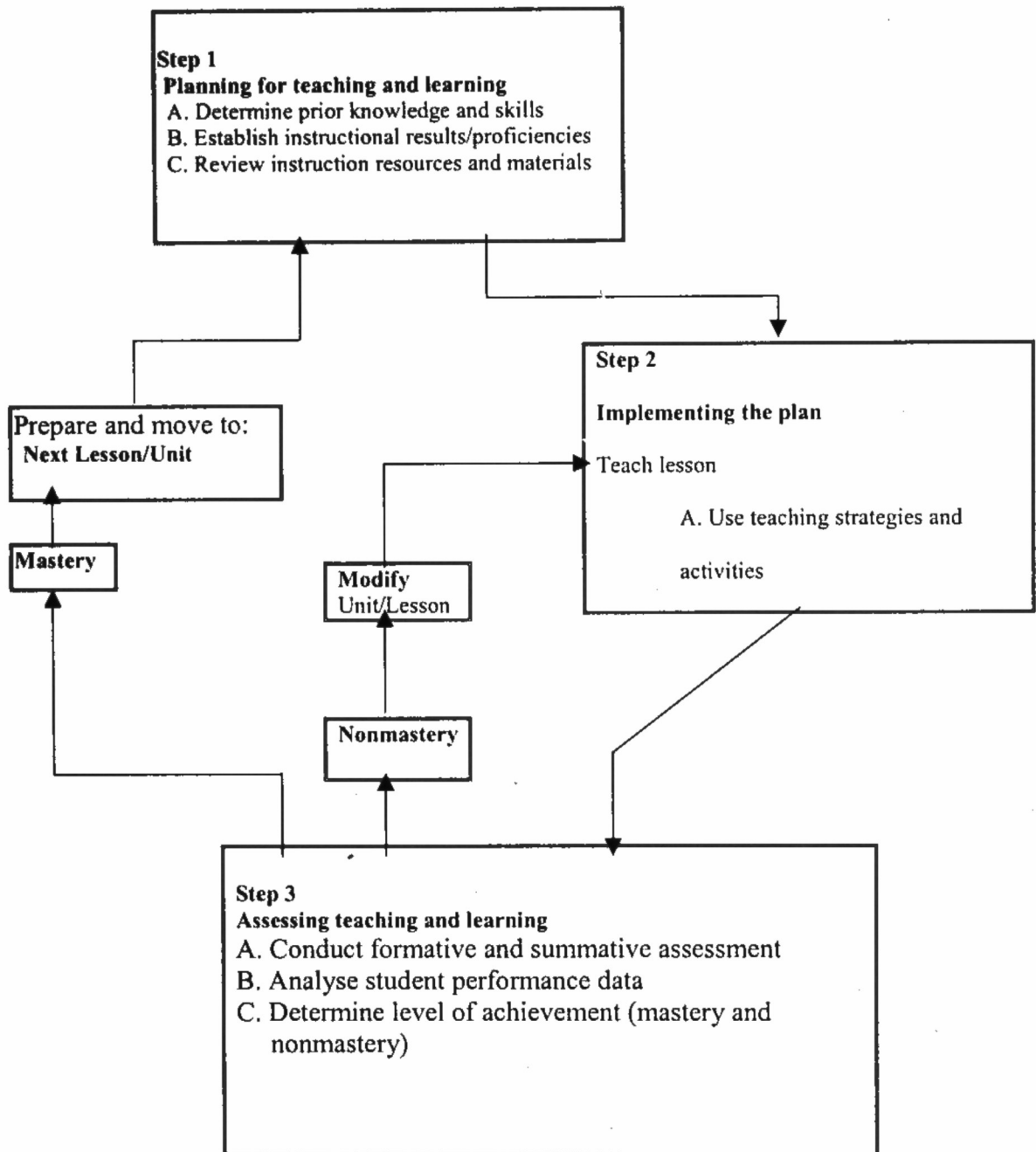
**Table 5: Levels of teacher involvement in curriculum development**

Level	Locus	Tasks and activities	Principal resources
<b>Level I:</b> Imitative maintenance	Microcurriculum Established conditions Segment treatment	Rudimentary Routine Adoptive  Maintenance of Established practice	Textbook, workbook, syllabi (subject by subject), segmental adoption of curriculum packages, popular educational literature School principal
<b>Level II:</b> Mediative	Microcurriculum Established conditions Segmental treatment	Interpretive Adaptive Refinement of established practice	Textbook, courses of study (subject by subject with occasional correlational of subjects), multimedia, adaptation of segmental curriculum packages, professional literature on approved practice Pupils, teacher colleagues, helping teacher, supervisor, curriculum coordinator, parents, community resources, school principal, in-service courses
<b>Level III:</b> Generative	Macrocurriculum Emergent conditions Aggregate treatment	Interpretive Adaptive Evaluative Problem-diagnosis Problem-solving  Improvement of Established practice  Search for improved practice	Textbook, courses of study (across subjects and grade levels), alternative modes of curriculum design, professional literature on research and approved practice, multimedia projects  Pupils, teacher colleagues, helping teacher, supervisor, curriculum coordinator, parents, community resources, school principal, in-service courses, outside consultants, experimental programs, professional conferences and workshops

**Source:** Tanner, D. and Tanner, L. (1980): Adapted from: Glickman, O. D., Gordon, S. P. and Ross-Gordon, J. M. (1998:396). *Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach.*

All the three levels of curriculum clearly indicate that the teacher is still dependent on other practitioners in terms of overall decision-making. For instance, in level one, teachers just depend on instructional materials, which have been developed by other professionals apart from classroom teachers themselves. They are therefore bound to follow decisions that they have never had an input in. At level two, the focus is just segmental, that is not blending theory with practice but divorcing them from each other. There is routine refinement of the curriculum, which is currently in use. Glanz (2004:113) provides similar views as Tanner and Tanner. He identifies three curriculum development steps in which teachers are involved as, 'planning for teaching and learning, implementing the plan and assessing teaching and learning'. The following Figure 13 on page 139 captures these three steps.

**Figure 14: Operationalising the steps in developing the curriculum**



**Source:** Beach, D. M. and Reinhartz, J. Supervisory leadership: Focus on instruction (2000). Adapted from: Glanz, J. (2004:114). *The Assistant Principal's Handbook: Strategies for success*.

Prior knowledge and skills of learners at planning stage are determined. Instructional outcomes are established at the second step, and curriculum

development processes are implemented. At the third stage, assessing teaching and learning is crucial. The curriculum development process requires modifications. Ayers (2004:87-88) asserts that:

*School teachers are the ultimate generalists; as such, they must have access to knowledge of a seemingly infinite range of evolving disciplines and literacies. Teachers are also decision-makers, perpetually called upon to make choices about children, about learning and about life in classrooms. Knowledge of teaching is constructed on an accumulation of practice, experience, and action. This knowledge complex, hard earned, and irreducible is applied in unique ways to new situations. Thus, teachers need compassion and understanding as well as subject matter information; imagination and judgment as well as research generated knowledge.*

Although at level three, the school staff is able to examine the whole curriculum, this is simply a matter which takes place at local level, which cannot necessarily influence what is to happen at national level in any significant way.

### **2.3.1.7 Summary of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development**

This part of the literature review summarises the situation as regards primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development in Botswana.

It has already been indicated that curriculum development writers in a number of countries so far studied, had an absolute control over the education systems. Education was left to stakeholders who were not necessarily practitioners in education in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century. Such stakeholders included voluntary and private enterprises. Those who advocated the arrangement argued that all the primary school teachers could not participate in curriculum development activities due to their low standard of education inter alia. In other words, curriculum development is an activity that requires expertise, which the primary school teachers did not have.,

Insignificant participation by the primary school teacher in curriculum development activities was not without its own critics. Critics feared that government's intention to control education was to perpetuate class and have easy control over the education system. If the primary school teacher's role is not significant, the tendency would be to relegate them to the background, their role always being to interpret and implement curriculum. This, according to critics, limits seriously the professional development of the teachers.

Bayona (1995) and Gatawa (1990) ardently argue for full primary school teacher participation in curriculum development as they advance a number of reasons to support their claim. They are adamant that primary school teachers have intimate knowledge of child development, more than any other stakeholders such as curriculum development officers, field education officers and many others. The fact that primary school teachers have requisite knowledge expertise gives them an advantage to participate fully in curriculum development.

It is however pleasing that since the start of the arguments for primary school teachers' participation in curriculum development, there is visible trend towards that because only curricular aspects such as syllabus plan, development and review are accessed to primary school teachers. Primary school teachers are represented in regions, curriculum panels and school based curriculum development committees. Primary school teacher associations have now become a force to be reckoned with when it comes to primary school teacher participation in curriculum development issues. Most importantly, primary school teachers are involved in workshops to review syllabus and new instructional materials to be implemented in schools.

Law and Galton (2004:1) echo similar views in their Hong Kong study of a school based curriculum project impact on teachers and students. They point out that the call for active teacher participation in various types of school based curriculum development activities has been constantly recorded in public policy documents

among them the 1997 Board of Education Report on Review of 9-year Compulsory Education, the 2000 and 2001 Education Commission Papers, Learning for Life/Learning through Life, and Learning to Learn.

Law and Galton (2004:2) indicate that the degree of teachers' participation and the types of teacher decision-making in curriculum planning activities envisaged in different policy document vary.

Law and Galton (2004:2) further state that:

*The justifications for the involvement of teachers in school based curriculum development have been limited to the strategically structural issues concerned with implementing changes initiated by government departments (center of change in the schools and classrooms the periphery), hoping that classroom teaching and learning would have been reasonably turned from a teacher centred mode of thinking and practice into a student oriented paradigm of organising learning activities. In other words, teachers become an instrument in the process of implementing the central initiatives.*

According to Taylor et al., (1997:30) in Tanzania for instance, primary school teachers always feel frustrated because of a centralised curriculum, which constantly changes and is inadequately supported with reference materials.

Primary school teachers therefore, as Taylor et al., (1997) argue, rate highly the need to be fully consulted in curriculum development.

It is apparent that if primary school teachers were involved in curriculum development issues, they would provide their professional advice to curriculum developers. For instance, their work is taxing on their time and to them as human beings. It is unreasonable to expect primary school teachers to be overworked with class work and having to teach from the early hours of the morning until the end of the school day. This does not give them enough time to prepare lessons adequately. Taylor et al., (1997:53,76) have noted a similar situation in Sri Lanka and India where curriculum development is centralised. They posit that in Sri Lanka in particular, curriculum is rigid with heavy workload to the extent that it does not allow for extra curricular activities during school time. In respect to primary school curriculum in India, policies relating to curricular objectives, structure, content and evaluation for the whole state including design and development of curricular materials, for instance, textbooks, workbooks and teacher guides are formulated centrally at the secretariat level (Taylor et al.). The secretariat level is the highest policy making body of the government under the leadership of the Minister of Education.

Generally, the views of writers have shown that primary school teachers in particular, are not fully involved in the critical curriculum development stages. They argue (see Carl, 2002:175 for instance) that even at implementation,

teachers are involved only at micro-implementation of the curriculum where only local decisions are taken. It appears that at this level, teacher participation and initiatives are normally high as primary school teachers seem to make their mark on the development of a syllabus through its interpretation, subject curriculation, lesson curriculation and so on. Carl (2002:42) regards curriculation as the systematic and effective planning action during which components such as inter alia; objectives, goals, situation analysis, selection and classification of content, selection and classification of teaching experiences, planning of teaching methods and teaching media, planning of the instructional learning situation, implementation and pupil evaluation figure strongly.

Carl indicates that at macro-implementation where application of policy and curriculum initiatives are determined at the national level by curriculum authorities, teachers seem to take orders as contained in policy documents.

The time appears to have come, when primary school teachers are given their due recognition in curriculum development. It is clear that primary school teachers are the main actors in child development and by extension are instrumental in moulding the society. McNamara (1994:129) too recognises the importance of the primary school teachers as professional people who have a distinctive body of expertise and whose authority in matters to do with teaching is acknowledged and respected by those members of the education service who determine policy and allocate resources.

The literature so far reviewed, indicates clearly that even if primary school teachers could be in the curriculum development panels or committees, the part that they play in such panels or committees, is guided by the overall decisions of “other members” who in the main are numerically stronger. The literature has also indicated that these other members of the panels or committees are not necessarily classroom teachers. At the end of the day, teachers’ decisions are subsumed under the views of the majority and they thereby find themselves relegated to the position of meek implementers of curricular decisions. The researcher would like to end this chapter by quoting Conley (2004:163) when he said that:

*Almost no one went into teaching with the primary goal of implementing state policies. Nevertheless, teachers now find themselves called upon to be the primary agents of state reform implementation, with the reforms having direct effects upon classroom-level decisions and prerogatives. Teacher reactions to these demands have been complex, as have been the changes in the role of teachers that the reforms triggered.*

Conley’s views are clearly indicative of the teachers’ low morale. The teachers’ expectations when they go into teaching are that their involvement in curriculum development would go beyond classroom work effectively putting them at par with everybody else whose task is to do with issues of curriculum development.

The researcher has engaged in an extensive literature review. The purpose was to provide a logical and systematic review, which would set the stage for the successful completion of the study. Extensive and complete reviews of the literature give the researcher important perspective to see what has been done and where one is going, which is crucial to a well written, well documented and planned report (Salkind, 2000:54).

As indicated earlier, the review of literature puts ideas and goals into perspectives. For instance, this chapter has provided adequate background materials relevant to the problem investigated.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3. INTRODUCTION**

In this Chapter, the research design and methodology are described. The aspects of the research design, which are thoroughly described, include among others, population, sampling method and instrumentation.

##### **3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Oppenheim (1992:6) understands research design to mean, the basic plan or strategy of the research, and the logic behind it, which will make it possible and valid to draw more general conclusions from it. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1984:22), research design refers to the plan or procedure for collecting information. They indicate that it describes when, from whom, and under what conditions the information will be obtained. This understanding is supported by (Blanche and Durrheim, 1999:29) who describe a research design as a “strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research”. The research design tells how the research is set up and what the structure of data collection is. Research design has the advantage of allowing the researcher to collect information from a large number of people. It can

be thought of as either a method of data collection that can be used with other research designs, for instance, causal comparative or correlational designs or a descriptive research design in itself (Mertens and McLaughlin, 2004:83). Creswell (2002:58) defines research designs as 'procedures for collecting, analysing, and reporting research in quantitative and qualitative terms'. Mertens and McLaughlin (2004:52) say that research design can be defined 'as a process of creating an empirical test to support or refute a knowledge claim'. Some researchers call it paper-and pencil-survey (Thomas and Nelson, 1996:314). The research design was refined during the research process, since a research design is a plan, which ought to be focused right from the beginning. Gay and Airasian (2000:91) and Bogdan and Biklen (1998:5) advance the same view about a research design. They posit that a research plan or design should always include justification for hypotheses and a detailed presentation of the research steps that will be followed in collecting, choosing and analysing data. Bogdan and Biklen (1998:49) indicate that the 'design is used in research to refer to the researcher's plan of how to proceed'.

Creswell (2002:61) argues that survey designs are procedures in quantitative and qualitative research in which investigators administer a survey or questionnaire to a sample or to the entire population of people in order to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviours, or characteristics of the population. This method may be considered a quantitative tool for conducting applied or policy research for carrying out educational evaluations. The survey method elicits information from a representative sample of respondents whose survey results are then generalised to a

larger population (Walker and Burnhill, 1988). In other words, research designs are used to collect data that reflect current attitudes, opinions and beliefs.

Survey is one of the two basic types of research designs. The researcher chose survey design for the current study. The reason for choosing survey design is because it is more popularly used in education. There are also other reasons, which compelled the researcher to use survey design. As Creswell (2002:398) indicates, the design has the advantage of measuring current attitudes or practices. For instance, it can measure community needs of educational services as they relate to programmes, courses, school facilities, projects, or involvement in the schools or in community planning. Another reason is that the design also provides information within a short time, such as the time required for administering the survey and collecting the information.

The study is a survey research as it is sometimes called (Oppenheim, 1992:12; Borg and Gall, 1998:16). This research design was used because it is convenient; it helps the researcher to gain in-depth information about what is being studied. The researcher then can make inferences about the population of study as a whole. Further, survey research has the following advantages, which makes it one of the convenient designs (Jaeger in Jaeger, 1988:312; Babbie, 1992:182; Merriam and Simpson, 1995:35):

- i. It allows greater freedom of response.

- ii. The responses are more easily analysed because data may essentially have been categorised prior to the beginning of its gathering.
- iii. The researcher guides participants along pertinent lines of thought associated with what is being studied.
- iv. It elicits a wider latitude of possible responses from the participants and as such information that is unanticipated by the researcher may result.
- v. The responses from an open questionnaire can assist the researcher in developing a more focused, close-form questionnaire later on.

This design which is descriptive in nature, helped the researcher to be able to describe the characteristics of the population and confirm theoretical assumptions about the area investigated. Another reason why this study has employed a survey design is because information is obtained from the respondents by asking them to respond to questions rather than by observing their behaviour. Bogdan and Biklen (1998:51) hold the view that the theoretical assumptions of any study should be defined and clarified as best as possible to avoid ambiguity.

Other reasons, which qualify this study to be a survey research is that, the purpose of survey research is to describe specific characteristics of a large group of persons, objects or institutions. Also, survey research collects data from or about all group members. This is exactly what this study has done. Jaeger (1988:304) defines a survey as 'a research study in which data are collected from the members of a sample, for the purpose of estimating one or more population parameters'.

This study therefore, dealt with a characteristic sample of primary school teachers who reside in the two education regions of the South and South Central Botswana. The respondents are all employed in the regions that the researcher investigated. Furthermore, the length of time they have been employed in these regions gives qualification to their population parameters.

The primary aim of the study is to describe current conditions as they prevail in the Botswana primary education system and particularly about primary teacher involvement in curriculum development. In particular this study places emphasis on collection of data with which to answer questions about the current studies on the topic of this research.

Morrison in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:171) indicates that a survey has several characteristics and several claimed attractions and it is typically used to scan a wide field of issues, populations, programmes and so on in order to measure or describe any generalised features. Morrison (2000:171) indicates the attractions of survey in that it:

- gathers data on a one/shot basis and hence is economical and efficient
- represents a wide target population (hence there is need for careful sampling)
- supports or refutes hypotheses about the target population
- gathers standardised information (that is, using the same instruments and questions for all participants

**-makes generalisations about, and observes patterns of response in the targets of focus**

**-generates accurate instruments through their piloting and revision.**

### **3.2 POPULATION**

The researcher defines population as all the members of a group, (especially human beings in the case of this study), from whom a smaller number of them were drawn for study purposes. The characteristics of the sample should be similar to those of the population.

Borg and Gall (1989:216) and Jaeger (1988:304) have this to say about population, 'By target population, also called universe, we mean all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events, or objects to which we wish to generalise the results of our research'.

The present research sees the careful definition of target population as a prerequisite to preparation of plans for selecting respondents. In fact it is logical for any survey researcher to have a clear understanding and knowledge of the population of interest to be studied as well as the units composing that population. That is why Walker and Burnhill (1988) in Keeves (1988:102) argue that the clarity of the population to be surveyed is likely to enhance the intended generality of the findings.

The target population, from which the sample was drawn, comprised six thousand and twenty (6 020) primary school teachers working in the South and South Central education regions in Botswana.

The overall number of the primary school teachers in all the six primary education regions is thirteen thousand one hundred and twenty eight (13 128). The number of schools is seven hundred and eighty (780). The study focused only on two education regions of the South and South Central, which together consist of six thousand and twenty (6 020) teachers and three hundred and fifty-nine (359) schools (Department of Primary Education: A Directory of Botswana Primary Schools, 2004:iv).

The researcher made sure that the accessible population was reasonably representative of the target population. Bracht and Glass (1989) also hold the same view as the researcher, when they support the “reasonableness” of the target population. The population of study was broken down into categories as shown in Table 6.

**Table 6: Total number of schools and primary school teachers in selected regions**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Number of schools</b>	<b>Number of teachers</b>
South	164	2 243
South Central	195	3777
<b>Total</b>	<b>359</b>	<b>6020</b>

**Source:** Adapted from a Directory of Botswana Primary Schools (April 2004:iv)

### **3.3 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING METHOD**

Sampling refers to the method used to select a given number of people (or things) from a population (Mertens, 1998:253). Rosier (1988) in Keeves (1988:109), asserts that most sampling plans assume random sampling so that each member of the sample is selected with a known probability. The respondent teachers were drawn from three hundred and fifty-nine (359) schools. The study sampled thirty (30) schools, - ten (10) from the South region and twenty (20) from the South Central region. In each school, twenty (20) teachers were sampled. The disparities in the samples of the two education regions were based on the fact that the South Central region has more schools than the South region. The schools from which the sample was drawn were in the urban, semi-urban and rural areas of Botswana. The number of inspectorial areas in the two regions is eighteen (18). They are distributed as follows; the South region has eight (8) while the South Central has ten (10). The inspectorial areas in the South Central are responsible for one hundred and ninety-five (195) schools and in the South region there are one hundred and sixty-four (164) schools. The inspectorial areas in the two Regions are responsible for a total number of three hundred and forty-five (345) schools. The researcher then made a list of the schools whose staff roll was twenty (20) or more and included them in the main sample. They were selected by using the lottery technique, or the deep hat random sampling method. Each selected member of the sample, was given a number from the hat, the contents of which were thoroughly shaken, so that the pieces of papers bearing numbers would mix

very well. The total number of the sample was six hundred (600) potential respondents as indicated in Table 4 below.

**Table 7: Total number of inspectoral areas, schools and primary school teachers sampled**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Inspectoral areas</b>	<b>Schools</b>	<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Total</b>
South	8	10	200	200
South	8	10	200	200
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>600</b>	<b>600</b>

**Source:** Adapted from a Directory of Botswana Primary Schools (April, 2004: iv)

Random sampling was done with the knowledge of possible sampling error since samples are never always virtually identical to their parent populations. Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) and Mason and Bramble (1989:196) agree that no two samples will be the same in all their characteristics. Random sampling is frequently used in survey research, ... in which questionnaires ... are used to gather information, and the goal is to understand the characteristics of a population (Johnson and Christensen, 2004:197).

Borg and Gall (1989:215) define sampling error as the difference between the characteristics of a sample and those of the population from which the sample was drawn. To avert the possibility of sampling error, the researcher made sure that the characteristics of both the sample and the population was clearly distinct so that the difference of the two is not estimated for random sample. The researcher also decided to work with a bigger sample of six hundred (600) respondents.

**Borg and Gall (1989:215) indicate that sampling error is a function of the size of a sample, with the error being largest when the sample is small.**

The results of the sample were generalised to the parent population, which refers to the teachers in the primary schools in the South and South Central regions covered in the study.

### **3.4 INSTRUMENTATION**

There are a number of instruments that are used to collect data in any social research study. These are questionnaires, interview schedules, observation and a few others. All these instruments have their own advantages and disadvantages.

Creswell (1994:120) defines instrumentation as the information about the instruments to be used in data collection, which is an essential component of a survey method plan.

The researcher understands instrumentation to mean various research tools, which are used to collect raw data from the research field.

A self-administered questionnaire (see Teachers' Questionnaire on page 257) was developed and given to the selected respondents to fill in. Creswell (2002:402) defines questionnaire as 'a form used in survey design that participants in a study

complete and return to the researcher'. To avoid some of the problems associated with questionnaires, the researcher was in constant touch with the respondents so as to clarify any possible ambiguities in the questionnaire. This was done by personal visits, phone, and fax and in some cases E-mail, especially where this facility was available. Clarity helped the respondents to complete filling in the questionnaires as quickly as possible. The primary school teachers were asked to submit completed questionnaires to their head teachers, from whom the researcher collected them.

This study used the questionnaires as instruments of data collection for some of the following reasons, which have been indicated by various researchers. For instance, there are distinct advantages of questionnaires in being able to give them to subjects personally (Bell, 1999:128-129). Also, Bell (1999) indicates that the researcher can explain the purpose of the study, and in some cases questionnaires can be completed on the spot. Also, the researcher is likely to get better cooperation if she or he can establish personal contact with would-be subjects of research. Merriam and Simpson (1995:71) believe that the advantage of using questionnaires to conduct research provides an opportunity for careful contribution and validation of questions in advance of conducting the study. Also, written instruments are usually easier to administer. In some cases, the researcher's presence is unnecessary, thus reducing time and expense. Merriam and Simpson (1995) further argue that many designs are administered through the mail, permitting access to a potentially larger group of subjects. Mertens and

McLaughlin, (2004:52) also prefer the use of questionnaire in data collection because it is inexpensive to administer and it can ensure complete anonymity of the subjects. It can be administered to many people. Another thing is that a questionnaire could be easy to compare and analyse and a lot of data can be accrued from the use of questionnaires. There are many sample questionnaires already existing, which even novice researchers can use in their practice. Similar to the views of other writers on the importance of questionnaires, Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:109) add that:

*The most important advantage to using questionnaire is that a large coverage of the population can be realised with little time or cost. Also, since respondents are asked to mail back the filled-out questionnaires without indicating their names, anonymity is assured and this will help them to be honest in their answers. At the same time, bias due to personal characteristics of interviewers is avoided, as no interviewers are used. Some types of questions, which might require reflection or consultation before answering, will be more appropriately dealt with when the respondent has more time for an answer and no waiting interviewer to cause a hasty response.*

Actually, the presence of the interviewer is likely to cause the respondents unnecessary uneasiness. They probably need ample time to think logically about what is required from them.

Oppenheim (1992:103) has this about the advantages of self-administered questionnaire:

*This method of data collection ensures a high response rate, accurate sampling and minimum of interviewer bias, while permitting interviewer assessments, providing necessary explanation (but not the interpretation of and giving the benefit of a degree of personal contact.*

The researcher finds the views of Merriam and Simpson (1995) very relevant to studies such as this one. The researcher has experienced a situation in which the questionnaire was easily explained to a large number of would-be respondents in their work places at their own free time. This relationship culminated in the establishment and maintenance of rapport between the researcher, the respondents and any other gatekeepers. Another advantage of using questionnaires is indicated by Babbie (1992:263) that researchers could deliver the questionnaires to the home of sampled residents and explain the study. Babbie (1992) further explains that 'when a research worker either delivers the questionnaire, picks it up or both, the completion rate seems higher than for straightforward mail survey'.

With the above reasons considered, the researcher was confident that instrument threat would be reduced drastically. The instrumentation threat refers to unreliability or lack of consistency in measuring instruments that can result in an invalid assessment or performance (Gay and Airasian, 2000:374). They argue

that if two different instruments are used, one for pre-testing and one for post testing, and if they are not of equal difficulty, instrumentation may become a threat.

The example given is that if the post-test is more difficult than the pre-test, it may mask improvement that is actually present. Alternatively, if the post-test is less difficult than the pre-test, it may indicate improvement that is not really present.

Just like other research instruments, questionnaires have their own disadvantages. For instance, there are cost implications involved, in terms of time and other resources such as finance, stationery and human resources. There may be no assurance that the respondents will be able to complete the questionnaire in private. Bailey (1978:158) for instance, argues that there is no control over question order. He explains that the respondent is likely to skip some questions or may decide for his/her own reasons, not to answer items in the order in which they are presented. This he observes, could be detrimental to the study because the researcher devises questions in order to eliminate response bias.

### **3.5 VALIDITY**

Johnson and Christensen (2004:409) indicate that two important variables influence the validity of a questionnaire. First, how important is the topic to the respondent? Second, does the questionnaire protect the respondent's anonymity? With respect to question one, Johnson and Christensen point out that one can assume more valid responses from individuals who are interested in the topic and/or are informed about it. About the second question, they indicate that it is reasonable to assume that greater truthfulness will be obtained if the respondents can remain anonymous, especially when sensitive or personal questions are asked.

The researcher holds the view that if the study has to be successful, it must probe the areas that are of concern to the respondents. That is, the respondents should feel the need to take part in the study because it is likely to benefit them by enhancing their self-esteem.

The researcher views validity as relevance of the instrument, which has been designed to collect data and tested for that particular purpose. The relevance of the instrument should focus on measuring exactly what the instrument has been intended to measure. That is, if the instrument was designed to measure opinions it should measure them exactly, and not measure something else, otherwise it would have lost its validity completely. A measure's validity refers to the degree to which it actually measures the concept it is supposed to measure. A measure

may be reliable, but this does not mean that it measures what it is supposed to measure (Slavin, 1992:78).

According to Oppenheim (1992:146) validity tells us whether the question, item or score, measures what it is supposed to measure. The researcher designed the instruments that permitted him to draw valid conclusions about the characteristics of the individuals studied. This was achieved by making sure that the instruments were well formulated. For instance, the researcher formulated the questions, which were characterised by the following:

- Questions were made as simple as possible. They were even clarified for the respondents personally by the researcher.
- Double barreled questions were avoided.
- Questions were as explicit as possible.
- Two part questions were also avoided.
- Vague questions were avoided.

Since the focus of the study was on investigating the extent of primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development, the instruments focused specifically on primary school teachers. It did not cover any other group of the respondents. In other words, the validity of the instrument was only valid for the sample of teachers chosen for the study. The researcher also made sure that the study provided adequate sample for the group of teachers, which was studied.

The extent of validity of the instruments was further achieved by giving the drafts of the instruments to colleagues with expert knowledge in questionnaire construction and design. The intention was to give them the opportunity to make suggestions on how to improve the instruments if necessary.

Validity of the instruments of research was meant to determine whether the subjects of research would make a fair representation of the parent population. The study therefore assessed the validity of the instruments by making sure that they measured exactly what they were meant to measure. That is, measuring only the responses of the subjects, which were selected for the study. Also, it means only analysing the responses of the said subjects of the study.

Validity was further determined by defining clearly, the objectives of the questionnaire. The objectives assisted the researcher to have a clear understanding as to what information was needed and how each item would be analysed. From the beginning, the researcher had in mind a specific population to be sampled. The significance of this was that the researcher was able to delimit the sample to that specific population. The research instruments were clarified to avoid question or answer categories, which would make the respondents not sure as to how to answer, and thereby not answer consistently.

The researcher succeeded in reducing measurement error by ensuring that the instrument was relevant to the subjects of study, as well as being reliable as a measurement of such subjects.

### **3.6 RELIABILITY**

The researcher uses reliability of the instrument to mean having the qualities to be consistent in measuring what it is purported to measure, giving the same results if it were to be applied over and over again. According to Gay and Airasian (2000), a small standard error of measurement indicates high reliability, and a large standard error of measurement indicates low reliability. In fact, the researcher tried as much as possible to reduce measurement error (for instance, the failure to collect the data accurately) that could result into lack of validity or even reliability. Gay and Airasian (2000:177) refer to this as standard error of measurement which according to them is an estimate of how often one can expect instrument errors of a given size.

Reliability refers to the purity and consistency of a measure, to repeatability, to the probability of obtaining the same results again if the measure were to be duplicated (Oppenheim, 1992:144). The instruments used produced consistent results. Searle (2003:67) indicates that stability is the most obvious means of measuring reliability. According to her, stability involves 'the repeatability of a test outcome over time'. The study was concerned particularly with the

consistency of the instruments in collecting and obtaining data. For instance, if data were collected from two or even more individuals at different times, almost the same results should be obtained or expected. Fubara and Mguni (1995:158) supported the same view that reliability means that any other person employing the same method in collecting data in the same environment and probably during the same period would arrive at the same answers and results.

Reliability simply refers to the consistency of the measurement. It is therefore not arguable that right from the time that the instruments are constructed, precision must be the ultimate goal. Accuracy of data depended largely on the instruments, which were tested on the respondents with similar characteristics to ensure their reliability. Reliability was determined immediately with a group of respondents similar in characteristics to the sample studied. Split half reliability test or subdivided test as it is sometimes called, was used to ascertain reliability of the instruments. It is used to compute internal consistency of an instrument. Gay and Airasian (2000:173) indicate the following procedure for determining split-half reliability of a test:

- 1. Administer the total test to a group.*
- 2. Divide the test into two comparable halves, or subtests, most commonly by dividing the test into odd and even numbered subtests.*
- 3. Compute each subtest's score on the two halves – each subject will have a score for the odd items and a score for the even items.*

*4. Correlate the two sets of scores*

*5. Apply the Spearman-Brown correlation formula*

*6. Evaluate the results.*

The procedure for determining split-half reliability was followed as indicated by Gay and Airasian (2000).

The questionnaire items were split into two. Odd numbered items were placed in one and even numbered ones were placed in another. The scores of the two subtests were then computed for each individual. The scores of the two subtests were correlated. The correlation obtained however represented the reliability coefficient of only half the questionnaire (see the results on page 168). Since reliability is related to the length of the questionnaire, a correction was applied in order to obtain the reliability of the entire questionnaire. The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was used to make the correction. In this respect, Thomas and Nelson (1996: 226) point out that:

*Because the correlation is between the two halves of the test, the reliability coefficient represents only half the size of the total test; that is, behavior is sampled only half as thoroughly. Thus, a step-up procedure, the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, is used to estimate the reliability for the entire test because the total test is based on twice the sample of behavior (twice the number of items).*

Baumgartner and Jackson (1999:113); Gronlund and Linn (1990:113); Popham (1993:121-122) and Thomas and Nelson (1996:226) indicate the formula for split-half as follows:

$$\text{Corrected reliability coefficient} = \frac{2 \times \text{reliability for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ test}}{1.0 + \text{reliability for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ test}}$$

Table 8 shows the results of the pilot study.

**Table 8: Analysis of pilot split-half results**

X	Y	X <sup>2</sup>	Y <sup>2</sup>	XY
8	6	64	36	48
9	8	81	64	72
6	7	36	49	42
8	8	64	64	64
6	9	36	81	54
8	8	64	64	64
7	8	49	64	56
$\sum X = 52$	$\sum Y = 54$	$\sum X^2 = 394$	$\sum Y^2 = 422$	$\sum XY = 400$

$$r = \frac{7(400) - (52)(54)}{\sqrt{7(394) - (52)^2} \sqrt{7(422) - (54)^2}}$$

$$r = \frac{2800 - 2808}{\sqrt{2758 - 7.2} \sqrt{2954 - 7.3}}$$

$$r = \frac{-8}{\dots}$$

$$r = \frac{-8}{\dots}$$

$$r = \frac{-8}{\dots}$$

$$\sqrt{(2751)}$$

$$\sqrt{(2947)}$$

$$r = \frac{+ .8}{\sqrt{8107197}} = \frac{+ .8}{2847.31} = + .003$$

$$r = + .003$$

The split half method yields lower correlations because of the reduction in size to two tests of half the number of items (Best, 1981:254). As a result, Spearman – Brown prophecy formula is applied to correlate the main instrument.

Spearman – Brown prophecy formula:  $r = \frac{2r}{1+r}$

$$1 + r$$

$$r = \frac{2(.003)}{1 + .003} = + .015$$

$$1 + .003$$

$$r = + .02$$

Since 'r' ranges between negative (- ve) one and positive one (+ ve), the instrument is reliable.

The coefficient was found to be high, which indicated that the questionnaire had good split-half reliability (see piloting results in Table 8 on page 168).

### **3.7 OBJECTIVITY**

The researcher understands objectivity to mean dependability of the instrument, in which it gives the same results when it is applied under different situations.

Thomas and Nelson (1996:227) and Mertens (1998:290) refer to this as inter-rater reliability, which is also called reproducibility of an instrument. Morrow Jr, Jackson, Disch and Mood (1995:78) view objectivity as a special kind of reliability. It is the ability of an instrument to be used by more than one person on the same people and get the same results. Gay and Airasian (2002:645) say that inter-rater reliability means that two or more individuals observe an individual's behaviour, record scores, and then the scores of the observers are compared to determine whether they are similar or not.

The degree of objectivity of the data collecting instruments was determined by analysing whether or not the administration and scoring procedures would permit bias to occur. Even the researcher was able to remove his biases and feelings from the data. The objectivity of a standardised test depends on the degree to which it is uninfluenced or undistorted by the beliefs or biases of the individuals who administer it. So in education, the degree of objectivity of standardised tests can

usually be determined by analysing whether or not the administration and scoring procedures permit bias to occur.

The researcher made sure that subjective judgment was avoided. That is, the researcher's opinion did not have any influence on the characteristics of the subjects. For instance, the conclusions arrived at, resulting from the results of the study, were free of the feelings or desires of the researcher. In other words, the privacy of the respondents was strictly ensured.

### **3.8 USABILITY**

Usability according to the researcher refers to the ease with which the subjects of the study are able to respond to the instrument of research.

The researcher asked himself certain questions about the instruments he designed or selected. Questions such as the following were ideal to ask:

- a. How long will it take to administer the instrument?
- b. Is it appropriate for the group (s) to whom it will be administered?
- c. How easy is it to interpret the results?
- d. How much does it cost?
- e. Have others who used it before reported any problems about it?

With respect to the questions asked above, and as a result of administration of the questionnaire, the following were revealed:

- i. In practical application of the instrument, it took at most three weeks to administer it. The length of time that the instruments took to administer was obviously determined by the clarity of the instruments themselves. As the instruments were subjected to the rigorous processes of validity and reliability to refine them, the intended respondents found them easily usable. Also, adequate sample was ensured so that fair representation was made to the parent population. For reliability, the instrument was tested on the respondents with the same characteristics before they were administered on the intended sample of the study. The researcher had cleared them of possible ambiguities and thereby lessening the response effect.
- ii. The instrument was designed for primary school teacher respondents only. Its content was based solely on the work of the primary school teachers. At piloting stage, only primary school teachers were involved. The instrument also satisfied questionnaire content validity, including its requisite item and sampling validity. The instrument was therefore appropriate to the group for and to which it was intended and administered.

- iii. The questionnaire was designed such that it related to the research problem and objectives of the study. The respondents did not have problems answering the questionnaire. Their responses were focused and specific to the question items making it easy to interpret the results.
- iv. The instrument was cost effective.

### **3.9. PILOTING**

The researcher understands piloting to mean ‘trying out’ and testing the questionnaire for relevance to the intended group of people to be studied.

Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002:111) say this about piloting:

After the tentative research plan is approved, it may be helpful to try out the proposed procedures on a few subjects. This trial run or pilot study, will first of all, help the researcher to decide whether the study is feasible and whether it is worthwhile to continue. It provides an opportunity to assess the appropriateness and practicability of the research methodology. It permits a preliminary testing of the hypothesis, which may give some indication of its tenability and suggest whether further refinement is needed.

The piloting procedure helps to determine that the individuals in the sample are capable of completing the questionnaire without any difficulty and that they understand the questions clearly. The participants in the pilot test provided written comments directly on the questionnaire, and the researcher modified or changed the questionnaire to reflect these concerns.

The question items in the questionnaires were tried out with a small sample of a 'captive audience' of teachers in one (1) primary school before it was administered. Teachers were used as pilot subjects to eliminate contamination of target population. That is, since the study was about primary school teachers, the same subjects, that is, primary school teachers were used as a pilot sample and no other group was used. Otherwise had the researcher used any other group besides the primary school teachers, the results would be about something else. The pilot sample was similar to the potential respondents of the study. The pilot sample size was twenty (20) teachers, out of whom fourteen (14) responded positively. The respondents were all qualified primary school teachers holding primary teachers' certificate qualification. It was hoped that the pilot test would help to identify flaws in the questionnaire so that they could be immediately corrected on the basis of the suggestions of the pilot group. Flaws like ambiguities, poorly constructed or poorly worded questions were corrected once identified.

The pilot study focused on the following items:

- i. Clarity of the questionnaire
- ii. Logical construction of the questionnaire
- iii. Order of the items in the questionnaire
- iv. Relevance of the questionnaire
- v. Language of the questionnaire.

Each item was rated a score of two (2) points. All the five (5) items totaled ten (10) points.

Most researchers prefer the process of piloting as a remedy to possible problems that may result from poorly constructed questionnaires. For instance, Mertens (1998:117-18) prefers sequential steps where after selecting a pilot sample, the researcher would have to ask pilot respondents that she or he is interested in their reactions to the process and questions, encouraging them to note any ambiguities.

The position of the researcher is very much similar to the view expressed by (Mertens, 1998). The use of pilot sample that is similar to its parent population is likely to earn the researcher the generalisation of the characteristics of the pilot results to the universe.

### **3.10 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

Data were used to provide the basis upon which answers as well as conclusions were drawn with regard to the research questions (Mertens, 1999:159). Data were collected using questionnaires, which were dropped at the places of the intended respondents for them to fill in. Prior arrangements were made with primary school heads that they asked their staff to return the questionnaires to them from whom they were collected by the researcher. Further, school heads had volunteered to keep asking their staff to complete the questionnaire in time. Some of the heads had even set a week as a dead line during which their staff should have finished filling in the questionnaire. To ensure maximum return of questionnaires, follow-ups were made by phones and personal visits. E-mails were used particularly in the primary schools, which have access to e-mail facilities.

### **3.11 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS**

Surveys typically don't require complex statistical analysis. Data analysis may simply consist of determining the frequencies and percentages of responses for the questions of the study (Johnson and Christensen, 2004:410). Data analysis in single subject research typically is based on visual inspection analysis of a graphic representation of the results (Airasian, 2001:410). After the data were collected, they were first sorted out and tabulated by being transferred from data gathering instruments to the tabular form in which they were systematically examined. The

data were then analysed as preplanned in the proposal. Frequencies, means, and other summaries of the data were derived. The process of tabulation was done manually. However, the researcher had an aide who read out the data for recording (by fence tallies) them in tabulation sheets. Data analysis was done using descriptive statistics such as percentages. This was done with the aid of a calculator and computer.

Analysis of data was done continuously. Burgess (1982:235) citing Becker Geer, Hughes, and Strauss (1961) too indicate that analysis continues throughout the study providing an outline of many of the conclusions contained in the final report. Data analysis in its nature should be treated as an on going process. Analysis treated in this way had helped to speed up the investigation process and ultimately the writing of the project report.

When the researcher collected the data, they were not typically in a form that could permit their immediate analysis. For instance, some of the data were inevitably faulty. Some questionnaires were incomplete. Inadvertently, some responses to certain questions were either contradictory, impossible or highly unlikely.

In view of the foregoing, prior to analysing the data, they were placed in the form that could permit their easy summarisation and interpretation. In other words, the researcher performed data reduction manually. After data reduction, the researcher engaged further in the process of editing them to detect and resolve some of the

inevitable errors. Editing was particularly meant to eliminate such errors before the researcher could aggregate and analyse questionnaire results. Responses to questions that are particularly critical were verified for completeness and appropriateness immediately questionnaire documents were received. Follow-up was made on unclear responses.

In analysing the data, the researcher did not use any sophisticated statistical procedures. Instead, only the construction of simple tables and some figures emphasising on cross-tabulation was made. That is, the researcher used a procedure in which numbers and percents of cases that fell into categories were computed. This procedure is used extensively especially by social scientists.

The method section has described the participants of this study, how they were selected and the actual number of those who participated. The data were analysed and presented as shown in the chapter on 'data analysis and presentation'.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **4. INTRODUCTION**

The chapter provides the analysis of the data and its interpretation. The primary purpose of the study was to find out the extent to which the primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development. The study concentrated only on two education regions of the South and South Central in the Republic of Botswana. The responses were collected from all the categories of the teachers in the schools selected for the study irrespective of their positions. Another purpose of the study was to suggest the appropriate strategies, which would influence policy so that the teachers in the primary schools are fully involved in the process of curriculum development.

The responses elicited from the primary school teachers are presented below. The responses were addressing the following research questions:

1. How are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?
2. To what extent are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?
3. What is the nature of primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum

development?

4. At what stages of the curriculum development are the primary school teachers involved?

**Table 9: Primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development**

Responses	Proportion of Responses	
	N =353	%
Are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?		
a) Yes	143	40
b) No	210	60
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>100</b>

One hundred and forty-three (143) or forty percent (40%) said teachers were involved. Two hundred and ten (210) or sixty percent (60%) said teachers were not involved in curriculum development.

**Table 10: How primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development**

Responses	Proportion of Responses	
	N =353	%
Attending workshops on new syllabus development	170	48.15
Implementing curriculum	58	16.43
No response	43	12.18
Producing new instructional materials	40	11.33
Reviewing and evaluating syllabi	30	8.49
Guidance and counseling workshops	7	1.98
Never invited	5	1.41
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.97</b>

Table 10 indicates that primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development by attending workshops on the development of the new syllabus. The Table also shows that primary school teachers take a major part in curriculum implementation.

**Table 11: How primary school teachers could be more involved in curriculum development**

Responses	Proportion of Responses	
	N =353	%
Teachers to be consulted before developing curriculum	105	29.74
Run School Based Curriculum Development workshops for teachers	100	28.32
By conducting stakeholder need survey	66	18.69
More teachers to be nominated into curriculum development panels	38	10.76
No Response	21	5.94
School heads to choose qualified teacher representatives	16	4.53
Employ more teachers at DCDE	3	0.84
Teachers to design instructional materials	2	0.56
Audit teacher participation in curriculum development	1 (a)	0.28
Don't know	1 (b)	0.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.94</b>

A good number of the respondents indicated the need to have their opinion known through a needs assessment survey, targeting them as the primary stakeholders in issues pertaining to curriculum development. They also want to see a sizeable number of teachers nominated into curriculum development panels.

**Table 12: Reasons why primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
There is shortage of staff in primary schools	74	20.96
Curriculum is centralised	68	19.26
I do not know	51	14.45
Because the role of the teacher is to implement curriculum	42	11.9
Teachers are not experienced	39	11.1
Teachers cannot all be involved	28	7.93
Only teachers in management are involved	25	7.08
Only teachers in urban centers are involved	16	4.53
Teachers are represented in curriculum development panels	7	1.98
Teachers are represented in curriculum development panels	7	1.98
Curriculum is adapted from other countries for implementation	3	0.85
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.94</b>

The respondents indicated that teachers are not involved in curriculum development because there is shortage of staff in primary schools. Other respondents attribute this to the fact that curriculum is centralised.

**Table 13: Stages at which primary school teachers should be involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
All stages	203	57.50
Early stage	106	30.02
Implementation stage	24	6.79
No Response	14	3.96
Mid-way	4	1.13
Towards the end	2	0.56
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.96</b>

Table 13 reveals that primary school teachers want to be involved in curriculum development in all its stages. This was indicated by a significant number of two hundred and three (203) or fifty-seven point five zero percent (57.50%) of the respondents. Another stage at which primary school teachers want to be involved is in the early stage of curriculum. The number here was one hundred and six (106) or thirty point zero two (30.02%) percent. The respondents also indicated that they should be involved in the implementation stage.

**Table 14: Stages at which primary school teachers have been involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
Implementation stage	203	57.51
Towards the end	45	12.75
Mid-way	24	6.79
No response	23	6.52
None of the above	22	6.23
All stages	20	5.67
Early stage	16	4.53
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 14 shows that primary school teachers have been involved in curriculum development at its implementation. The respondents also indicated that primary school teachers have been involved towards the end of curriculum development. Other respondents indicated that they have been involved in the mid-way stage of curriculum development. Others, though insignificant in number, said that they have been involved in all the stages of curriculum development.

**Table 15: Stages at which a known primary school teachers had been involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
Implementation stage	146	41.35
Early stage	58	16.43
Towards the end	47	13.31
Mid-way	42	11.89
No response	26	7.37
All stages	25	7.08
None of the above	7	1.98
Did not know	2	0.56
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.98</b>

The respondents indicated that they had known primary school teachers who had been involved in curriculum development. They also indicated that they had known their colleagues who had been involved at the early stages of curriculum development. Furthermore, they said that they had known primary school teachers who were involved towards the end of curriculum development. They have again indicated the mid-way stage where their colleagues were involved. Another number of respondents, which is insignificant, though, indicated that they had known their colleagues who had been involved in all stages of curriculum development.

**Table 16: Curriculum development activities in which primary school teachers are currently involved**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
Attending syllabus development workshops	137	38.81
Reviewing and evaluating programmes	78	22.10
Producing new teaching materials	51	14.45
Curriculum implementation	38	10.76
No response	26	7.37
None of the above	19	5.4
Never invited	4	1.13
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.96</b>

The evidence from Table 16 indicates that primary school teachers have been involved in syllabus development workshops. Table 16 also indicates that primary school teachers are currently involved in the review and evaluation of educational programmes. Table 16 further shows that primary school teachers are currently involved in the production of new teaching materials. Another activity in which primary school teachers are currently involved is curriculum implementation.

**Table 17: Other activities in which primary school teachers are involved.**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
No response	300	84.99
Curriculum implementation	31	8.78
School based curriculum development workshops	22	6.23
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 17 on page 186 indicates that primary school teachers are not involved in other activities, which are different from the ones they do in their usual classroom work. For instance, they have indicated curriculum implementation and school based curriculum development workshops as activities, which they do.

**Table 18: Why primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N =353</b>	<b>%</b>
Primary school teachers are not qualified to develop curriculum	83	23.51
No response	80	22.66
Teachers cannot all be involved	50	14.16
Curriculum developers never invite teachers	44	12.46
Donot know	43	12.18
The role of the teacher is to implement curriculum	37	10.48
Only teachers in urban centers are involved	16	4.53
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.98</b>

The study revealed that primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development because they are not qualified to undertake any curriculum activities. Another response is that they cannot all be involved in curriculum development activities. Table 18 further indicates that curriculum developers never invited teachers to take part in curriculum development.

**Table 19: Is Curriculum development part of the academic programme at primary teacher training institutions?**

	Proportion of Responses	
	N = 353	%
<b>Responses</b>		
Curriculum development is part of the academic programme	196	55.52
Curriculum development is not part of the academic programme	114	32.29
No Response	37	10.48
Not Sure	4	1.13
Donot know	2	0.57
<b>Totals</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.98</b>

Evidence from Table 19 indicates that curriculum development is part of the academic programme at primary teacher training institutions. The response indicates that even though primary school teachers may not be involved in curriculum development, they have knowledge and understanding of curriculum, which they can practically apply in the field if they are involved in curriculum development.

**Table 20: Aspects of curriculum taught at primary teacher training institutions**

	Proportions of Responses	
	N = 353	%
<b>Responses</b>		
Curriculum Review	178	50.42
No Response	83	23.51
Syllabus Development	52	14.73
Designing instructional objectives	13	3.68
Donot know	10 (a)	2.83
Schemes of work and lesson plans	10 (b)	2.83
Production of learning aids	6	1.70
Setting and administering examinations	1	0.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.93</b>

Table 20 indicates that curriculum review is one of the aspects of curriculum, which is taught to teacher trainees at primary teacher training institutions before they join the teaching force. The evidence further indicates that syllabus development as well as design of instructional objectives is also taught. None of the respondents mentioned curriculum development.

**Table 21: Categories of primary school teachers involved in curriculum development in the school or region**

	Proportion of Responses	
	N = 353	%
<b>Responses</b>		
School heads	118	33.42
Teachers	90	25.49
Heads of Department	65	18.41
Senior teachers	41	11.61
No response	22	6.23
None of the above	12	3.39
Not sure	3	0.84
Donot know	2	0.56
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.99</b>

The evidence from Table 21 shows that school heads are the major category of teachers, which is involved in curriculum development. Other categories involved are the teachers, heads of department and senior teachers.

**Table 22: Why the same category of primary school teachers is involved in curriculum development**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Proportion of Responses</b>	
	<b>N = 353</b>	<b>%</b>
School heads are experienced	67	18.98
Teachers are real implementers	65	18.41
School heads, HoDs and senior teachers are supervisors	60	17
HoDs and school heads are supervisors	30	8.49
So that teachers develop curriculum in their schools	28	7.93
Invitations always specify who to participate	25	7.08
HoDs monitor curriculum implementation	18	5.09
Donot know	16	4.53
School heads supervise curriculum implementation	9 (a)	2.54
HoDs train teachers in workshops	9 (b)	2.54
Senior teachers implement curriculum	6 (a)	1.69
HoDs, School heads and Senior teachers supervise curriculum	6 (b)	1.69
HoDs represent their departments	3 (a)	0.84
School heads use discretion to nominate participants	3 (b)	0.84
HoDs evaluate curriculum	2 (a)	0.56
Only HoDs are invited to curriculum development workshops	2 (b)	0.56
Because of limited resources	1 (a)	0.28
Teachers have representatives	1 (b)	0.28
Involvement is done according to subject areas	1 (c)	0.28
Only HoDs and school heads to avoid shortage of teachers	1 (d)	0.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.89</b>

Table 22 indicates that the reason why Heads of Department are involved in curriculum development is that they are experienced in curriculum development. Table 22 also indicates that teachers are involved because they are the real curriculum implementers. Table 22 shows that Heads of Department and senior teachers are involved in curriculum development because they are supervisors.

School heads and Heads of Department are also involved because they too are supervisors. Another reason why teachers are involved in curriculum development is that they develop curriculum in their schools. According to Table 22, invitations for those to be involved in curriculum development workshops always specify who is to attend.

**Table 23: Curriculum development activities that primary school teachers are expected to carry out**

Responses	Proportion of Responses	
	N = 353	%
Design teaching aids	60	17
Implement curriculum	57	16.15
Train other teachers in workshops	54	15.3
Review subject syllabuses	36	10.2
No response	32	9.07
Curriculum evaluation	30	8.5
Prepare new weekly plans and lesson plans	26	7.37
Coordinate Guidance Counseling projects	12 (a)	3.4
Supervise projects, e.g., Breakthrough	12 (b)	3.4
Review curriculum for pupils with learning disabilities	11	3.12
Develop teachers' guides and pupils' workbooks for BOTUSA project	10	2.83
Keeping continuous assessment records	7	1.98
Facilitate reading skills for lower primary classes	6	1.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>100.5</b>

Table 23 reveals that primary school teachers are expected to design teaching aids and implement curriculum. Table 23 reveals that primary school teachers are expected to implement curriculum. Table 23 reveals that primary school teachers are expected to train other teachers in workshops. Primary school teachers are

rarely expected to review subject syllabuses. An insignificant number of the respondents indicate that primary school teachers are expected to evaluate curriculum.

**Table 24: Why primary school teachers are not involved directly in curriculum development**

Responses	Proportion of Responses	
	N = 353	%
No response	55	15.58
Curriculum is centralised	48	13.6
Do not know	38	10.76
Teachers are involved only in in-service workshops	30	8.5
Invitations are never extended to some schools	27	7.65
All teachers cannot be involved directly	23	6.52
Teachers are not skilled to develop curriculum	22	6.23
Teachers have no time	21	5.95
Government does not recognise importance of teachers	20	5.67
DCDE has enough personnel	13	3.68
Only school heads because they supervise curriculum implementation	12	3.4
Teachers are believed to be knowledgeable on curriculum development issues	10	2.83
Teachers are chosen randomly to represent others	9	2.55
Senior teachers and HoDs are involved directly	7	1.98
Only teachers are involved	6	1.7
Teachers are never selected	3 (a)	0.85
Principal Education Officers and school heads are responsible for curriculum development	3(b)	0.85
Teachers are invited late	1(a)	0.28
Teachers do not have responsibilities in schools	1 (b)	0.28
Teachers' suggestions are never implemented	1 (c)	0.28
Only trained teachers are involved	1 (d)	0.28
Curriculum content is sophisticated	1 (e)	0.28
Curriculum development plan strategies are not good	1 (f)	0.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.87</b>

Table 24 reveals that primary school teachers are not involved directly in curriculum development because of centralisation of curriculum. Table 24 shows

that primary school teachers are only involved in in-service workshops. Other respondents indicated that invitations are never extended to some primary school teachers. Table 24 shows that all the teachers cannot be involved directly in curriculum development. It is indicated in Table 24 that primary school teachers are not skilled to develop the curriculum. Table 24 further shows that primary school teachers have no time to take part in curriculum development. It is indicated in Table 24 that primary school teachers are not involved directly because government does not recognise the importance of the primary school teachers.

**Table 25: Information vital to the study**

	Proportion of Responses	
	N = 353	%
<b>Responses</b>		
Teachers should be involved at every stage	98	27.76
No responses	71	20.11
Include curriculum development activities in in-service training issues	30	8.5
Encourage specialisation in teacher education	21 (a)	5.95
Clearly define the role of teachers in curriculum development	21 (b)	5.95
Invitations should be sent earlier to teachers	12 (a)	3.4
Only primary school teachers should be involved	12 (b)	3.4
Supervisors should closely monitor curriculum	11	3.12
Curriculum development should be started at school level	10 (a)	2.83
Provide reference books on curriculum development in school libraries	10 (b)	2.83
Curriculum review period should always be specified	8 (a)	2.27
All stakeholders to be involved	8 (b)	2.27
Establish needs of teachers through survey	5 (a)	1.42
Level of pupils to be considered when curriculum is developed	5 (b)	1.42
Involve teachers in syllabus review	5 (c)	1.42
Provide feedback for teachers from workshops	4 (a)	1.13
Develop courses for children with special needs	4 (b)	1.13
Infuse HIV/AIDS into curriculum	4 (c)	1.13
Decentralise curriculum	3 (a)	0.85
Select teachers according to regions	3 (b)	0.85
DCDE should always solicit teachers' input	3 (c)	0.84
Teachers should alternate in curriculum development activities	2 (a)	0.57
Orientations workshops should be run for new and younger teachers	2 (b)	0.57
Select teachers from all categories irrespective of position	2 (c)	0.57
Graduates should be encouraged to join teaching	1 (a)	0.28
Reduce number of subjects in the curriculum	1 (b)	0.28
Always pilot new syllabus with teachers	1 (c)	0.28
School heads should choose teachers	1 (d)	0.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>99.83</b>

Table 25 reveals that primary school teachers wanted to be involved in every stage of curriculum development. Table 25 also indicates that primary school teachers wanted curriculum development included in in-service training. Table 25 reveals that primary school teachers wanted their role in curriculum development clearly defined. Another indication is that primary school teachers wanted only themselves involved in primary curriculum development.

#### **4.1 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

In this chapter, the actual results of the study are presented in tables. The results are summarised on the basis of the research questions of the study. The chapter is now followed by the chapter on “Summary of Findings and Discussion”.

##### **4.1.1 How are primary school teachers involved in curriculum development?**

According to the data elicited from the respondents, primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development. This view was supported by sixty percent (60%) of the respondents. However, this was contradictory to views of forty percent (40%) who said that primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development.

On how teachers could be more involved in curriculum development, evidence indicates that teachers need to be consulted before curriculum is developed.

#### **4.1.2 To what extent are primary school teachers' involved in curriculum development?**

The data collected from the respondents revealed that the extent of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum issues does not go beyond curriculum implementation. The study revealed a situation in which teachers have known their colleagues who were involved in the implementation stage and early stage of curriculum development. A good number of the respondents, two hundred and three (203) or fifty-seven point five one (57.51%) attested to this.

#### **4.1.3 What is the nature of primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development?**

As indicated elsewhere in the study, the involvement of primary school teachers does not go beyond attending syllabus development workshops, reviewing and evaluating programmes. The study also showed that the nature of the teachers' involvement in curriculum development is in the production of the new teaching materials.

#### **4.1.4 At what stages of the curriculum development process are primary school teachers involved?**

The responses from the subjects of this study indicated further contradiction. For instance, when asked about the curriculum development stages in which they are

involved, they indicated all the stages. It would appear then that most primary school teachers misconstrue this to mean that teachers are involved in curriculum development. Further contradiction could be a result of the fact that there are certain aspects of the curriculum in which primary school teachers are involved.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **5. INTRODUCTION**

The study intended to establish the extent to which teachers are involved in curriculum development processes. The study also sought to identify the appropriate strategies and or approaches, which could be adopted to involve teachers in curriculum development. In this Chapter, discussions on the primary findings are presented. It should be stressed that research is mainly relevant if it has implications for the improvement of the human condition. As such, the practical aspects of the findings must be analysed as well (Bless and Higson-Smith, (2000:12).

#### **5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

It emerged from the study that the respondents seem not to view curriculum implementation as a critical part of the curriculum development process. Their responses fully attest to this. For instance, they have indicated that they are not involved in curriculum development but at the same time saying that their involvement does not go beyond curriculum implementation.

In summary then, one would be tempted to argue that overall, primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development basing on the responses, which came from the subjects of this study in the South and South Central Education Regions of Southern Botswana.

Further, still basing on the feelings of the respondents, it would seem that primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development is primarily confined to workshops and the development of the new syllabus. Their other involvement is in production of the new instructional materials, review and evaluation of syllabi. It would appear that workshops are aimed primarily at preparing the primary school teachers to implement the official curriculum as required.

The primary school teachers wanted the practice of school based curriculum development workshops introduced as a matter of urgency in their respective schools or regions.

In response to the issue of why primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development, the findings indicated that teachers attributed the scenario to the acute shortage of teachers in primary schools. A major reason regarding the same issue is the centralisation of the official curriculum.

The evidence so far produced indicated that the primary school teachers wanted to be fully involved in all the stages of the curriculum development process. Within

primary schools, teachers also expressed the need to be involved in the early stages of curriculum development. That is, at planning stage and when curriculum objectives are formulated. The study revealed that primary school teachers have mainly been involved in the implementation stage of the curriculum. The evidence further revealed that primary school teachers were involved towards the end of the curriculum development process.

The respondents were asked to indicate the curriculum development activities they were currently involved in. The study suggested that primary school teachers were currently taking part in syllabus development workshops. The study also revealed that primary school teachers reviewed and evaluated educational programmes as well as produced new teaching materials. Obviously, the activity they were involved in was curriculum implementation.

The study revealed that primary school teachers were not involved in curriculum development activities because they were not qualified to develop the curriculum. Another significant finding was that primary school teachers could not all be involved in curriculum development. The study also reported that curriculum developers never invited primary school teachers when curriculum was developed.

The main findings of the study attributed the reasons for involving the same categories of primary school teachers to the following:

- i. School heads are well experienced in curriculum development.
- ii. Teachers are the actual curriculum implementers, and
- iii. School heads, heads of department and senior teachers are supervisors of curriculum implementation.

Another main finding of the study showed that primary school teachers were expected to make teaching aids, which they will use to implement the curriculum. That is, some respondents answered that they were expected by the education system to come up with some non-projected media to use in their classrooms. Non-projected media are the instructional materials, which do not necessarily use electricity. These could be models of animals or maps drawn on flat surfaces.

The reason why primary school teachers were not involved directly in curriculum development centered on the fact that curriculum development is centralised. The reason for this is that primary school teachers were involved in in-service training workshops.

The respondents were asked to provide any information, which they thought was vital to the study. The findings in respect to this indicated that primary school teachers wanted to be involved in every stage of curriculum development. They also wanted to see in-service workshops incorporating a strong element of curriculum development.

## 5.2 DISCUSSIONS

It seems probable that involving primary school teachers in workshops lends credence to the fact that a majority of them were never involved in the initial curriculum development process. Further, it would seem that institutions, which develop curriculum, have had the traditional view that they should determine curriculum content with little or no teacher input.

Although the respondents indicated that the majority of the primary school teachers are never involved in the initial curriculum development process, this situation does not seem to be only common to Botswana. Lee in Ashcroft and Lee (2000:17) quoting Kenneth Baker, the then British Secretary of State for Education indicate that the British Government determined the content of the curriculum alone. One would then argue that even in the developed countries, teachers still have little room to manipulate curriculum issues. They are expected to implement curriculum decisions made by other officials.

The assertion by Marsh (1997:139) that 'various policy discussions are made by other officers without input necessarily from teachers' is yet another clear indication that the system of 'good governance' in education systems could be prone to manipulation by those who intend to benefit from it in one way or the other. When researching on policy issues and practice in primary education, (Alexander, 1992:31) found that the exclusion of class teachers from policy and

decision-making was just as counterproductive as excluding heads from the curriculum decision-making processes. Alexander argues that this exclusion has the aspects of professional life where teachers need to think for themselves. He points out that their interview and questionnaire survey programmes provided clear evidence of a culture of professional dependency.

The researcher is left stunned by regular reports of teacher alienation from curriculum development matters. The primary school classroom teacher is a known survivor in difficult teaching and learning situations. The teacher is able to improvise in hard situations where the necessary teaching resources are not available. Quist (2000:20) says this about the primary school teacher:

*Even in a school with very few resources, a good teacher can create a well ordered classroom that encourages learning. Teachers are able to arrange curriculum areas in different parts of the room as follows:*

- a reading corner for story telling and quiet reading*
- a nature/science table for displaying collections and experiments*
- subject display areas with simple teaching aids and displays of work.*

The primary school teacher is capable of using to the maximum, locally available resources to replace what the Ministry of Education could not provide to school. What is interesting is that the teacher does this sometimes with little or no complaints, as would employees outside the classroom.

One would argue that even the panel, which is tasked with the responsibility to develop curriculum, appears to be cognizant of this. Involving teachers in workshops of this nature therefore appears to prepare them to implement the decisions of the stakeholders other than themselves, a situation which could be tantamount to rubberstamping official decisions. The number of teachers, who are panel members, is too small to represent the views of the majority of the teachers adequately.

It could be argued that some notable involvement of teachers in curriculum development is in respect of pupil or student activities which amount to the expected role of the teachers that would implement curriculum. Hargreaves (1990) in Galton and Patrick (1990:95) studied teacher involvement in curriculum in small schools in the UK. Her study revealed that teachers, especially those teaching infant classes, were more involved with the children's activities. She cited the activities as times when the children were listening, involved in vocal work as class discussion, and so forth.

It appears apparent that for a long time, primary school teachers have resisted (even though not so vehemently) the arrangement in which they were not consulted when decisions on curriculum development activities were made. Moorad's (1989) research lends support to this that teachers' decisions, even in workshops, are a mere formality; which is not binding on the part of developers of the curriculum. The following quotation, which Moorad picked up from one of

the teachers during his research, is a testimony that teachers' views are neglected and underestimated. The teacher had commented thus:

*Our views aren't considered at all. We are only expected to receive and deliver the goods. We are never consulted in the decision-making itself. For example, why are they changing the syllabus? What about our views on this issue (174-75)?*

The responses from the teachers indicated that they wanted to be involved fully in curriculum decisions. That is why they even suggested the idea of introducing school based curriculum development workshops. The concept of school based curriculum development workshops would serve to address the expressed needs of the teachers because the arrangement could be made part of the orientation programme for newly employed teachers. The new teachers would be oriented towards developing new curricula and reviewing old ones. Primary school teachers already in service would have their skills updated on a regular basis.

Earlier in the beginning of the report, the researcher indicated how teachers in Botswana contributed immensely to curriculum development through conferences. Lankshear and Knoble (2004:5) see this as a means by which teachers could develop their capacity for making sound autonomous professional judgement and decisions appropriate to their status as professionals.

From a practical premise, Hopkins (1993:69) believes that the teacher derives his or her knowledge of teaching from continual participation in situational decision-making and the culture in which they and their pupils live out their daily lives.

Considering the nature of the work of primary school teachers, their involvement would purely have to be made on the basis of moral principle as well as practical necessity.

Shortage of primary school teachers is likely to cause a serious strain on teachers in primary schools. The research revealed that the shortage makes it difficult for more primary school teachers to be involved in curriculum development.

Centralisation of curriculum does not seem to offer any choices for primary school teachers to be more creative and articulate in curriculum development, except to channel them according to their role of curriculum implementation. Sixty-eight (68) respondents, which accounted for nineteen point two six percent (19.26%), advanced this particular view. One would then believe that the centrality of curriculum development restricts primary teachers' performance strictly to curriculum implementation.

Primary school teachers seem to be adamant that they should be involved in all and every stages of curriculum development. They appear to have now realised their neglect by the authorities not to involve them in curriculum development

activities. Not to involve primary school teachers in all the stages of curriculum development process is a gross mistake or an oversight on the side of the authorities. It appears that if primary school teachers were involved fully in all curriculum development stages, their performance as implementers would be more enhanced since they would be implementing the plans that they would have taken part in, hence being familiar with them. In fact as Bowen and Hobson (1987:8) indicate, teachers must attain a high degree of awareness and understanding of the issues involved. It appears that if primary school teachers were involved in the initial development of the curriculum, they are likely to develop their capacity to implement curriculum successfully more than they do currently. Coulby (1990:1) holds the view that 'without this active engagement on the part of the practitioners the national framework will never be successfully filled out'. Carl (2002:250) links up with this by arguing that 'those who are involved in the implementation of successful curriculum development should play an active role from the design and planning thereof to the evaluation aspect'.

However, it appears that curriculum developers seem to be aware of the fact that not involving teachers in curriculum activities could have negative consequences on the teaching and learning process.

It emerged from the findings that primary school teachers are not qualified to develop the curriculum. There is also further evidence that primary school teachers are never invited to take part in curriculum development work. The

responses were with respect to the question that sought to find out why primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development. Again, some primary school teachers appeared to be uncertain about the activities that they are to take part in, as they left blanks unfilled in the questionnaire.

The results of the study indicated that primary school teachers are not so much conversant with curriculum development. There is therefore a dire need; according to Huebner in Reynolds and Webber (2004:241) that critical inquiry should begin with curriculum reform in teacher training programmes where school curricula are designed by curriculum experts and teachers, as opposed to the ones crafted by politicians and bureaucrats.

In this section, important aspects about what had been done in the past were explored. The results of the study have clearly answered the original question of investigation. The contribution of this study will hopefully inform policy and current practice in the Department of Primary Education.

### **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The study has generally indicated that involvement of primary school teachers in curriculum development issues is only limited to activities which are subject to the final decisions of institutions such as the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education's Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation (DCDE) has a mammoth task ahead of it to involve primary school teachers fully in curriculum development issues. The Department obviously seems to recognise the fact that teachers are the primary actors on the ground. However, the following recommendations are made with the hope that they will strengthen the Department's effort to involve the teachers fully in matters pertaining to curriculum development.

There is no way in which curriculum development and implementation could be successful without the input of teachers. In view of the responses made by teachers with respect to the research questions, the researcher presents the following recommendations:

### **5.3.1 Membership of primary school teachers**

Membership of primary school teachers in the National Curriculum Panel should be made rotational so that other teachers should have the opportunity to get exposed to curriculum development issues.

### **5.3.2 Panel**

The arrangement where primary school teachers do not exercise their independence is skewed. The researcher would support a situation in which primary school teachers dominate membership of curriculum development panels. It would appear unhealthy for primary school teachers to be outnumbered by non-teaching members of the panels. By the very nature of the primary school teacher's work, he or she is a curriculum developer. It would be pleasing if this could be done in practice, not as acts of mere rhetoric. The primary school teacher implements approved syllabus. It is for these reasons therefore, that primary school teachers should constitute the majority in the panels and make prompt decisions.

The number of primary school teachers in the panel should be increased to two per subject area.

### **5.3.3 Annual inventory**

A yearly inventory of pre-service primary school teachers who graduate from institutions should be kept so that an induction programme could be run for them. The aim of the inventory exercise would be to determine the number of primary school teachers who may have not done curriculum studies in their initial training, as some respondents have claimed. Then institutions, which offer curriculum studies, would be found where the teachers would study for short and long term courses.

### **5.3.4 Teaching practice programme**

Teaching practice programme should be intensified so that it incorporates a strong element of curriculum development activities. A collaborative effort in this regard could be made between the teacher training institution and the 'host' schools where trainee teachers are to do their internship so that host schools expose trainee teachers to practical curriculum aspects. This could be done by incorporating the envisaged practical aspects in the lesson plans and other relevant school activities.

### **5.3.5 Primary education regions**

Primary education regions in collaboration with the Ministry of Education should prepare a schedule of workshops for primary school teachers, the purpose of which would be to sensitise the teachers on curriculum development issues such as schemes of work, lesson plans and syllabus development.

### **5.3.6 Decentralisation of power**

More power should be devolved to regions so that they could start to run capacity building school based curriculum development workshops. The focus of such workshops should, inter alia, aim at developing teacher leaders who will be able to train others afterwards. It is hoped that if such workshops are run in the regions, they will be cost effective.

### **5.3.7 Consultation**

When decisions are made on curriculum, primary school teachers should always be consulted well in time. This would make the primary school teachers to prepare themselves before hand for curriculum work.

### **5.3.8 Ownership**

Primary school teachers, irrespective of their positions, should be involved in all stages of curriculum development. This would help them to develop a sense of ownership in the curriculum.

## **5.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Since there appears to be little research studies done in the area that is being investigated, suggestions are made for further research in some aspects of the curriculum like curriculum planning and design.

The findings of the study have shown that primary school teachers are generally not involved in curriculum development activities, notwithstanding the Botswana example of the curriculum development model.

### **5.4.1 Research on syllabus development in which primary school teachers are involved**

Since the preponderance of evidence indicates a mixture of responses regarding curriculum development and syllabus development, further research on syllabus development is recommended to establish the actual understanding of the concept by the primary school teachers.

#### **5.4.2 Research on the curricular content of primary teacher training institutions**

Since evidence from the study indicates that primary school teachers are not involved in curriculum development, even though there is a strong indication that curriculum development is taught at primary teacher training institutions, further research is recommended to establish the position of this view.

#### **5.4.3 Research on primary school teachers' knowledge and understanding of curriculum development**

Since the study revealed response categories indicating lack of knowledge and understanding by the primary school teachers in respect of curriculum development, it is recommended that a study be executed that will establish whether or not the teachers understand curriculum development.

#### **5.4.4 Research on curriculum development taught at primary teacher training institutions**

The study has revealed that curriculum development is part of the academic programme at primary teacher training institutions. It is recommended that further study be undertaken to establish the extent to which curriculum development is taught at the primary teacher training institutions.

## **5.5 How primary school teachers could be involved in curriculum development: A Botswana Model**

Wiles and Bondi (1989:10) define curriculum as 'the planned and guided learning experiences and intended outcomes, formulated through systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experiences, under the auspices of the school, for the learners' continuous and willful growth in personal social competence'. The major processes of curriculum, which could be planned to actualise it, are: curriculum planning, curriculum development, implementation and curriculum evaluation. Of course, intermittently, curriculum research is carried out as an ongoing process. The nature therefore, of the teachers' work makes their involvement in it absolutely imperative. It is however notable that the main activity by the teachers in curriculum issues is curriculum implementation.

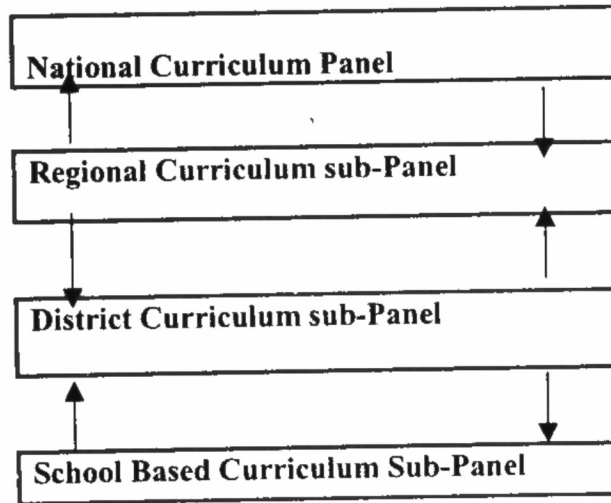
Representation of primary school teachers in the National Curriculum Panel needs to be reconsidered and stated in terms of their numbers in the panel, (for instance, the number of teachers selected to represent others in the panel. It is of course appreciable that the Department of Primary Education (DPE) promotes consultation by having teacher representatives in the panel. The argument then could be made in cognizance of the Department's effort is that consideration should be made to increase the number of teachers in the panel. This it is hoped, would not only make the voice of the primary school teachers to be heard and

stronger, it would also help to make the teachers to appreciate that they are part of the curriculum decision making process.

Since curriculum development is a mammoth task that cannot be left to individual organisation's responsibility, it may be necessary to establish a specific panel model for the Republic of Botswana constituting of a number of sub panels at the lower echelon of the structure, what could be termed 'feeder curriculum panels'. It would have a hierarchy through which lower levels would communicate with the upper ones. The hierarchical structure will be shown later in the report. According to this study, these feeder curriculum panels or 'sub-panels', would be groups of mini panels formed at school, district and regional levels. The term "feeder" is proposed because levels would be feeding into each other in the hierarchy. Their primary task would be to make curriculum plans, which they would pass on to the national level for consideration with the decisions of the main panel. If carefully planned, the decisions of the feeder panels would in future constitute what is discussed at the national level. The idea of the mini panels is likely to speed up the functions of the main panel so that it meets its targets on time. However, to avoid a possibility of haphazard decisions made, this could be preceded with evaluation exercises formatively and summatively. It could then be implemented immediately throughout the primary school system if found workable after successful evaluation exercises.

The whole process would culminate into a modified “Botswana Primary Curriculum Development Model”. The Botswana model could take the form as shown in the Table.

**Figure 15: Proposed Botswana primary curriculum development model**



At the school level, the teachers, and their school heads will hold meetings to make plans, which will be passed on to the district level panel. At the district level, decisions from school level will be discussed together with those of the district level panel. Whatever would have been agreed upon at this level would then be consolidated and passed on to the regional level panel. The same process would be undertaken where decisions from the district would be discussed consolidating final decisions and passing them on to the regional level and the main panel at the national level.

Representation should be made according to the districts. Each district should send an agreed number of representatives to the district level panel. Representatives

should include primary school teachers and some school heads. They will be joining field education officers at this level. Although no suggestion is made in terms of the number of teachers to sit in the district panel, the number should be enough to make a good representation of the primary school teachers in each district. The same thing could be done with representations at other levels. At the regional level for instance, some teachers, school heads and field education officers would be joining regional education officers. It is only at the national level that the composition of stakeholders should be varied to include book publishers, the employers and so forth. All the lower levels should constitute field practitioners only. However, the number of each level should decrease as the decisions go up the hierarchy until they reach the national level. The main reason for reducing the number of representatives as the structure goes up, will be due to the fact that the necessary decisions would have been made at each lower level. In other words, the work to be done would be easy and a number of primary stakeholders like teachers would have been fully involved in prior decisions. Furthermore, representation in the panels above the school based one could be made rotational and an audit of teacher representation could be introduced and records kept ensuring that information is available any time it is wanted.

Wherever modifications are made feedback should be provided immediately. Feedback should flow in either channels of the proposed Botswana model.

Since curriculum planning involves, among others, people who are involved in making decisions with regard to occupations to be developed within the country (Ministry of Education/University of Botswana, 2000:169) it is critically important that primary school teachers are involved at the planning stage of the curriculum. Primary school teachers appear to be aware of the problems, which they encounter such as teacher-student ratio in particular which are high. They would obviously contribute ideas to the number of teachers to be trained so that in future, the high teacher-student ratio (which stands at one to forty-five, 1-45) is brought to manageable levels.

Primary school teachers teach almost the whole curriculum in their schools. They are not restricted to certain subjects like their counterparts in the secondary school system. However, primary school teachers have a rich content knowledge of their teaching subjects. If primary school teachers are involved in curriculum development, they are likely to contribute their knowledge to the National Panel about practical realities on the ground, as they know them, that is, at classroom level as informed by evolving teaching and learning events.

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## **APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**

**October 2003**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**

**THE EXTENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER INVOLVEMENT IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH AND SOUTH CENTRAL EDUCATION REGIONS OF SOUTHERN BOTSWANA.**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to establish the extent of the primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development. You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire as duly as possible. Give as much information as possible wherever you are required to do so. Where boxes are provided, tick (✓) the appropriate response.

**NB:** The information that you will provide in the questionnaire will be treated with utmost confidence.

1. In what ways should teachers be involved in curriculum development?

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2. Are you involved in curriculum development? Please tick the appropriate response in the box).

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

2.1 If your answer is 'yes', in what ways have you been involved in curriculum development?

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2.2 If your answer is 'no', why do you think you have not been involved in curriculum development?

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2.3 What do you think could be done to get you involved (or more involved) in curriculum development?

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3. At what stage (s) should teachers be involved in curriculum development?  
(Please circle the appropriate letter).

- A. All stages
- B. Early stage
- C. Implementation stage
- D. Mid-way
- E. Towards the end.

4. At what stage (s) have you been involved in curriculum development?

- A. Early stage
- B. Implementation stage
- C. Mid-way
- D. Towards the end.

5. At what stage (s) has any teacher known to you been involved in curriculum development?

- A. All stages
- B. Early stage
- C. Implementation stage
- D. Mid-way
- E. Towards the end.

6. Which of the following curriculum development activities are you currently involved in? (Circle appropriate letters).

- A. Attending workshops on the development of new syllabuses
- B. Reviewing and evaluating programmes
- C. Taking part in the production of new materials for schools
- D. Team teaching with experienced colleagues
- E. Others (Please list them).

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7. If you are not currently involved in curriculum development activities, why is this so?

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8. Is curriculum development part of the academic programme in teacher training institutions?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. If 'yes', what aspects of curriculum development are taught? (Please itemise).

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10. Indicate the categories of the teachers usually involved in curriculum development in your school/region. (Put a tick in the appropriate box or boxes).

A. All teachers

B. Heads of department

C. School heads

D. Senior teachers

11. What could be the reason (s) for involving only the categories indicated in 10 above?

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12. Are you involved directly in curriculum development? (Please put a tick in the appropriate box).

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. If 'yes', describe the curriculum development activities you are expected to carry out.

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14. If 'no', why are you not involved directly in curriculum development?

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15. Provide any other information, which you think could be vital to this study.

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Thank you very much for satisfactorily completing this questionnaire. Your assistance in this exercise is highly valued.

You are kindly requested to complete and return the questionnaire by \_\_\_\_\_  
**October 2003** to your school head.

## **APPENDIX B**

**LETTER FROM NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY REQUESTING  
PERMISSION ON BEHALF OF THE RESEARCHER TO  
UNDERTAKE THE STUDY**

**Teaching and Curriculum**

Tel: +27 18 389 2441 / 2500

Fax: +27 18 389 2038

083 736 2231

E-Mail: [Lumadim@uniwest.ac.za](mailto:Lumadim@uniwest.ac.za)

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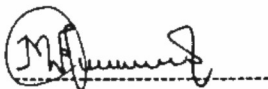
**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR A PHD: IN  
CURRICULUM STUDIES**

I wish to confirm that Mr TR MMUSI is registered for a PH D in the Department of Teaching and Curriculum, North West University, Mafikeng campus.

Mr Mmusi needs to collect data for his research studies from various schools in Botswana. I therefore request that he be given the necessary assistance in this regard.

Thank you in anticipation of your cooperation and assistance.

Yours faithfully,



**DR M W LUMADI**  
**HEAD OF DEPARTMENT**



**MAFIKENG CAMPUS**  
Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho, South Africa, 2735  
Tel: (018)389-2111 • Fax: (018)392-5775  
Internet: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>



**APPENDIX C**

**RESEARCHER'S LETTER REQUESTING DIRECTOR'S  
(DEPARTMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION) PERMISSION TO  
CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

Department of Local Government Service Management

Private Bag 0052

Gaborone

20 August 2003

The Director

Department of Primary Education

Private Bag 119

Gaborone

Dear Sir

**Request to conduct research in Primary Schools**

I am a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education (D.Ed.) at the University of the North West in the Republic of South Africa. The topic of my study is: '*The Extent of Primary school Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development: A case study of the South and South Central Education Regions of Southern Botswana*'.

I am at a stage where I should go into the field to do the empirical work. I have decided to collect the necessary data from the primary school teachers in the schools in the South and South Central Education Regions.

I write to ask for permission from you to go on with the intended study. The purpose of the study is purely for academic reasons, that is, to meet the requirements of the doctoral programme. The confidentiality of those who will participate in the study will be protected.

I hope you will give your support to the intended study.

Yours faithfully

Temba RRS Mmusi (M. Ed.)

Assistant Establishment Secretary (Training & Development)

Ministry of Local Government

Contact details: 395 1463 (h) 319 1331 & 361 2843 (w)

390 4613 (f) 71 7781 29 (m)

[tmmusi@gov.bw](mailto:tmmusi@gov.bw) (E)

**APPENDIX D**

**LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

TELEPHONE: 3655300  
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD  
FAX: 3911746  
REFERENCE: PE 1/19/15 I (2)

DEPARTMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION  
PRIVATE BAG 119  
GABORONE



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

5 September 2003

Mr Temba RRS Mmusi  
Private Bag 0052  
Gaborone

Dear Sir

**RE: REQUEST TO COLLECT DATA FROM PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

This serves to inform you that permission to research on "*The extent of primary school teacher involvement in curriculum development: A case study of the South and South Central education regions in Southern Botswana*" for your Doctor of Education degree is granted.

By copy of this letter the Regional Education Officers in charge of regions where you want to conduct the research are informed of the permission granted to you and requested to pass the information to their respective inspectorial areas as well as solicit co-operation from the schools to make your research a success.

The department would appreciate it very much if, on successful completion of your Doctor of Education, we are accessed a copy of your research so that we can benefit from it.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S Basiamang', written over a horizontal line.

S Basiamang  
**DIRECTOR OF PRIMARY EDUCATION**

cc. REO – South  
REO – South Central

## **APPENDIX E**

### **LETTER REQUESTING HEAD TEACHERS TO PILOT STUDY**

August 2003

The head Teacher

\_\_\_\_\_ Primary School

\_\_\_\_\_

Dear Sir/Madam

**REQUEST TO PILOT STUDY IN PRIMARY SCHOOL**

**Research Topic: 'The Extent of Primary School Teacher involvement in Curriculum Development: A case study of the South and South Central Regions of Southern Botswana'.**

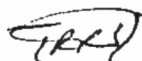
I am a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education (D. Ed.) at the University of North West (UNW) in the Republic of South Africa. I intend to start fieldwork as soon as possible. I need to pilot the research instruments before I could undertake fieldwork. I therefore request you kindly to grant me permission to pilot the instrument in your school.

I have attached a letter of permission to do the same from the Director of Primary Education in the Ministry of Education.

The researcher will use the results of the study purely to meet the requirements of the programme and for nothing else. Privacy of those who will be participating in this study will be ensured.

I hope you will help me to accomplish this study.

Yours faithfully



**Temba RRS Mmusi (M.Ed.)**

Assistant Establishment Secretary (Training)

Ministry of Local Government

Department of Local Government Service Management

Private Bag 0052

Gaborone

Contact details:      361 2843 (w)  
                                         396 1463 (h)  
                                         71 7781 29 (m)

**APENDIX F**

**LETTER REQUESTING TEACHERS TO PARTICIPATE IN THE  
PILOT STUDY**

**6 October 2003**

**LETTER REQUESTING TEACHERS TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PILOT STUDY**

**STAKEHOLDER QUESTIONNAIRE ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

**RESEARCH TOPIC: 'THE EXTENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER INVOLVEMENT IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH AND SOUTH CENTRAL EDUCATION REGIONS OF SOUTHERN BOTSWANA'.**

This questionnaire is meant to establish the extent of primary school teachers' involvement in curriculum development in the Botswana education system.

The intention of sending out this questionnaire to you is to try it out before it could be administered to those who have been sampled for the study. You are therefore kindly requested to study and understand all the questions before you answer them.

Your attention is drawn particularly to the following issues:

- i. Clarity of the questionnaire
- ii. Logical construction of the questionnaire
- iii. Order of the items in the questionnaire
- iv. Relevance of the questionnaire
- v. Language of the questionnaire.

I appreciate the fact that primary school teachers as 'all-rounders' are always busy and would not find an extra work like filling in the questionnaires unacceptable. I understand that this may require almost twenty (20) or so minutes of your time. In anticipation of the inconvenience this may cause to you, my great apologies are forwarded to all of you.

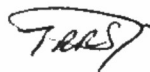
What you should also appreciate as partners in this noble profession called teaching is that it is the first time in our education system that a study of this nature is conducted. Your input as stakeholders is therefore critical to ensure that appropriate strategies to involve primary school teachers fully in curriculum development are developed. The questionnaire seeks your views on issues concerning your involvement in curriculum development.

Hoping you will participate fully.

You are kindly requested to complete and return the questionnaire to your school head by

\_\_\_\_\_ October 2003.

Yours faithfully



**Temba RRS Mmusi (M. Ed.)**

Department of Local Government Service Management

Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs Building

Block 8 Floor 8 Room 46

Contact details: 361 2843 & 319 1331 (w)

395 1463 (h)

390 4613 (f)

71 7781 29 (m)

E-mail Address: [tmmusi@gov.bw](mailto:tmmusi@gov.bw).

**APPENDIX G**

**LETTER OF REQUEST TO UNDERTAKE THE MAIN STUDY IN  
PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

**August 2003**

**The Head Teacher**

\_\_\_\_\_ Primary School  
\_\_\_\_\_

Dear Sir/Madam

**Request to undertake the main study in Primary School**

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of North West in South Africa doing the degree of Doctor of Education (D.Ed.). I am at the stage of going into the field to collect the empirical data.

You are kindly requested to permit me to undertake the intended research in your school. The information collected will be used for the purpose of this study only. The ethical principles of the research where the privacy of the respondent is ensured will be strictly adhered to.

I hope you will help me to accomplish this study.

Yours faithfully



Temba RRS Mmusi (M. Ed.)

Assistant Establishment Secretary (Training & Development)

Ministry of Local Government

Department of Local Government Service Management

Private Bag 0052

Gaborone

Contact details: 361 2843 (w)

395 1643 (h)

71 7781 29 (m)