TEACHERS’ PERSPECTIVES OF A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM IN LESOTHO HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

MATSELISO LESAOANA

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SUPERVISOR: Dr B. B. MOREENG       June 2018
DECLARATION

Student number:

2008054013

I declare that this thesis, ‘Teachers’ Perspectives of a Transformative History Curriculum in Lesotho High Schools’ represents my own work and that all sources I have used have been indicated and acknowledged by use of in-text referencing and a complete list of references. I further declare that this work has never been submitted to any other university for the purposes of obtaining a degree.

Matseliso Lesaoana (Ms)                                             June 2018
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late mother, Rose Lesaoana and my late sister Bopane Lesaoana-Tshabalala. I pursued the dream in memory of your great words Mom, “Thuto ke lefa le sa fe leng”
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I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude to the following people:

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- All the teachers who besides their overloaded timetables volunteered to be participants and engaged in dialogue to help achieve the aim of the study.

- My children, Senate and Katleho with whom throughout the programme I spent very little time with. The programme took me longer than anticipated but thank you for your encouragement to persevere despite the hardships.

- A dear friend, Lucky Lethoko, who kept me in his prayers.

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- All Glory to God Almighty, The One who holds all things together. Thank you Father for wisdom, You carried me through the programme.
Summary of the study

The study was undertaken with the aim to determine teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The interest was brought by the realisation that the Lesotho Government through its Ministry of Education and Training published the revised curriculum in 2008 and implementation started in 2013. The review of literature suggests that curriculum change would also mean a shift in pedagogy. Hence the interest to establish the understanding that teachers have and if the methods they used addressed the requirements of the revised curriculum.

The Lesotho Curriculum and Assessment Policy Framework displays characteristics of transformative curriculum, hence the phenomenon of investigation in this study was transformative learning. Literature review suggests that transformative learning is a learning theory that challenges students’ thinking and highlights the importance of cultivating a process of critical reflection. Transformative learning places emphasis on students to become actively engaged in new awareness of social justice. Consequently this study was guided by critical pedagogy, a philosophy of education that applies concepts from critical theory.

Critical pedagogy is praxis in nature and in a classroom situation it requires those teachers who employ it to act as model for democratic process and to offer empowering education. Critical pedagogy therefore assisted the researcher to determine the meaning attached to and how effective teachers were implementing a transformative History curriculum.
Critical pedagogy is further aligned to constructivism and interpretive paradigm in that knowledge is a social construct. Essentially this study employed qualitative methodology because of its interpretive nature. Qualitative methods namely interviews and observations were used for data collection and they allowed for conversation and interpretation of the actions and feelings of History teachers in three Lesotho high schools.

Document analysis was another qualitative method used for data collection and it offered an opportunity to interpret documents, which among others included the History curriculum and lesson plans. A Coding system was used to analyse data where themes were created to facilitate for interpretation of the findings.

Findings from empirical research pointed to lack of sufficient knowledge and skills of a transformative curriculum. Lack of understanding resulted in ineffective implementation because teaching did not address skills and was not in a manner that addressed a transformative History curriculum.

The implications and conclusions drawn from the results pointed to a need for a concerted effort by policy makers and the leadership of schools to provide the necessary support to teachers for the effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The study is however limited in that the sample was selected using non-probability sampling therefore the sample was small and thus the results might not be generalised.

However the credibility, reliability, validity and transferability of the results can be found in the use of purposive sampling. This type of sampling seeks saturation whereby participants were selected to
specifically understand and learn from them. The rigour of qualitative research through triangulation methods also allowed for confirmation, as data collected corroborated and complemented each other.

Key words: Transformative learning, critical pedagogy, praxis, curriculum, curriculum change
# Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES .............................................................................................................................. XII
TABLE OF FIGURES ............................................................................................................................ XIII
APPENDICES .......................................................................................................................................... XIV
LIST OF ACRONYMS ............................................................................................................................ XV
MOET – MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING ................................................................... XV

CHAPTER ONE ...................................................................................................................................... 17
INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION ................................................................................................. 17
  1.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................................................... 17
  1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .............................................................................................. 23
  1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK .................................................................................................... 24
  1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION ............................................................................................................. 26
  1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ..................................................... 27
  1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND METHODS ........................................................ 27
  1.7 DATA COLLECTION .................................................................................................................. 29
  1.8 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS ....................................................................................................... 34
  1.9 DATA ANALYSIS ...................................................................................................................... 35
  1.10 PILOT STUDY ........................................................................................................................ 37
  1.11 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH .................................................................................................... 37
  1.12 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY ................................................................................................ 37
  1.13 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS .................................................................................................. 38
  1.14 CONCLUSION .......................................................................................................................... 38

CHAPTER TWO ................................................................................................................................... 40
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ON TEACHERS’ PERSPECTIVES OF A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM FOR SCHOOLS IN LESOTHO ................................................................. 40
  2.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................................................... 40
  2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK .................................................................................................... 40
    2.2.1 What is a conceptual framework? ....................................................................................... 40
    2.2.2 Critical pedagogy as a conceptual framework ................................................................. 43
    2.2.2.1 Critical Pedagogy and Constructivism ......................................................................... 46
    2.2.2.2 Principles of critical pedagogy ...................................................................................... 49
        2.2.2.2.1 Dialogue ............................................................................................................... 49
        2.2.2.2.2 Interactive Processes ............................................................................................. 50
        2.2.2.2.3 Anti-authoritarian ................................................................................................. 51
        2.2.2.2.4 Learner-centred .................................................................................................... 52
        2.2.2.2.5 Liberating classroom ............................................................................................. 54
        2.2.2.2.6 Critical consciousness ............................................................................................ 55
        2.2.2.2.7 Praxis .................................................................................................................... 56
  2.3 CONCLUSION .............................................................................................................................. 58

CHAPTER THREE ................................................................................................................................. 59
LITERATURE REVIEW ON A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM ........................................... 59
  3.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................................................... 59
  3.2 CURRICULUM ........................................................................................................................... 59
    3.2.1 Definition of curriculum ..................................................................................................... 60
    3.2.2 Approaches to Curriculum ............................................................................................... 64
        3.2.2.1 Traditional approach/Curriculum as product ........................................................... 64
CHAPTER FIVE ............................................................................................................................. 181
PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH DATA TOWARDS
ESTABLISHING TEACHERS’ PERSPECTIVES OF A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY
CURRICULUM IN LESOTHO HIGH SCHOOLS................................................................. 181

5.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................................................... 181
5.2 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS’ PROFILES ...................................................................................... 182
5.3 DATA ADDRESSING THE FIRST OBJECTIVE: DETERMINE TEACHERS’ UNDERSTANDING OF A
TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM ........................................................................ 186
5.3.1 Management of curriculum change ................................................................................... 186
5.3.2 Understanding of a transformative History curriculum ..................................................... 196
5.3.3 Conceptualisation of History as a school subject ............................................................... 200
5.4 DATA ADDRESSING THE SECOND OBJECTIVE: ESTABLISH HOW EFFECTIVE TEACHERS ARE
IMPLEMENTING A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM ........................................... 202
5.4.1 Teaching methods and approaches ...................................................................................... 202
5.4.2 Conducive environment ...................................................................................................... 208
5.4.3 Makes assessment an integral part of learning .................................................................... 213
5.4.4 Uses resources meaningfully .............................................................................................. 219
5.4.5 Curriculum Leadership and support ................................................................. 222
5.5 CONCLUSION ............................................................................................................ 223

CHAPTER 6 ................................................................................................................... 226

DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS .... 226

6.1 INTRODUCTION ........................................................................................................... 226
6.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ........................................... 226
6.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ....................................................................................... 227
   6.3.1 Critical pedagogy guided the study in order to achieve the main aim and objectives 227
   6.3.2 Qualitative methodology ..................................................................................... 227
6.4 THE FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ..................... 228
   6.4.1 Objective 1: Determine teachers' understanding of a transformative History curriculum
       228
       6.4.1.1 Managing curriculum change ........................................................................... 229
       6.4.1.2 Understanding a transformative History curriculum ........................................... 231
       6.4.1.3 Conceptualisation of History as a school subject ................................................ 232
   6.5 OBJECTIVE 2: ESTABLISH HOW WELL TEACHERS ARE IMPLEMENTING A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM .............................................................................. 235
   6.5.1 Teaching Methods .................................................................................................. 235
   6.5.2 Conducive classroom environment ...................................................................... 236
   6.5.3 Assessment ............................................................................................................ 237
   6.5.4 Resources ............................................................................................................. 238
   6.5.5 Curriculum leadership and support ..................................................................... 238
   6.6 OBJECTIVE 3: SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTING A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM ............................................................................ 239
   6.6.1 Managing curriculum change .............................................................................. 239
   6.6.2 Teaching Methods ............................................................................................... 240
   6.6.3 Assessment ........................................................................................................... 241
   6.6.4 Resources ............................................................................................................ 242
   6.6.5 Conducive learning environment ......................................................................... 243
   6.6.6 Curriculum leadership and a support .................................................................. 244
6.7 CONCLUSION ........................................................................................................... 245
6.8 ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH AND SUGGESTIONS ........................................... 246
6.9 PERSONAL REFLECTION ........................................................................................... 249

LIST OF REFERENCES ..................................................................................................... 250

APPENDICES .................................................................................................................. 281
List of Tables

Table 3.1 Curriculum levels and curriculum products .............................................. 62

Table 5.1 Participating History teachers’ profiles .................................................. 183

Table 6.1 A History Framework to use as an intervention for a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools ........................................................................ 247
Table of figures

Figure 1: Learner Centred Learning ................................................................. 54
Figure 2: The curricular spider web ................................................................. 63
Figure 3: Traditional Curriculum Design ......................................................... 67
Figure 4: Tyler Objective Model ..................................................................... 67
Figure 5: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs ............................................................ 73
Figure 6: Definition of History as a Subject .................................................... 101
Figure 7: A Classroom in School 1 ................................................................. 189
Figure 8: A picture of one of the books used in School 1 ............................... 190
Figure 9: Textbook for School 2 .................................................................... 191
Figure 10: Textbook in School 3 ..................................................................... 192
Figure 11: Scheme of Work for Teacher A .................................................... 193
Figure 12: Scheme of Work for Teacher B .................................................... 195
Figure 13: Assessment Paper for Teacher A .................................................. 215
Figure 14: Assessment Paper for Teacher B .................................................. 216
Figure 15: Assessment Paper for Teacher C .................................................. 218
Appendices

Appendix 1  Ethical Clearance
Appendix 2  Letter to the Ministry requesting permission to conduct research
Appendix 3  Reply letter from the Ministry
Appendix 4  Letter requesting permission from principals to conduct research
Appendix 5  Letter to participants
Appendix 6  Participants consent form
Appendix 7  Interview schedule
Appendix 8  Observation schedule
Appendix 9  Document analysis schedule
List of acronyms

ACT – Advanced Certificate in Teaching
CAPF – Curriculum and Assessment Policy Framework
CIE – Cambridge International Examinations
CIS – Council of International Schools
COE – Council of Europe
COSC – Cambridge Oversees Secondary Certificate
CREDE – Centre for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence
ECOL – Examinations Council of Lesotho
ESD – Education for Sustainable Development
IBIS – International Baccalaureate Information Systems
IBO – International Baccalaureate Organisation
ICT – Information Communications Technology
IUS – Indiana University of Southeast
JC- Junior Certificate
LGCSE – Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education
MoET – Ministry of Education and Training
NCDC – National Curriculum Development Centre
NICD – Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development
OECD – The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PGDE – Post Graduate Diploma in Education
QHTA – Queensland History Teachers’ Association
RWJF – Robert Wood Johnson Foundation

SMT – Senior Management Team

UNDESD – United Nations Development for Education for Sustainable Development

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION

Teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The interest to undertake this study emanated from the implementation of the Revised Curriculum Policy for Lesotho schools in 2013. According to the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET, 2008: 2 & 6), the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Framework (CAPF) is an attempt to end the uncoordinated curriculum activities that are no longer responsive to the aspirations of Basotho people. The above-mentioned CAPF is also influenced by the Basotho philosophical statements and Vision 2020 which supports justice and participatory democracy (MoET, 2008: 3). In addition the curriculum highlights some aspects of life challenges and context in which the learner is expected to function not only as an individual but as a member of the larger society (MoET, 2008: 4).

CAPF emphasis is on application of knowledge and functional skills rather than on memorisation and reproduction of knowledge. The above-mentioned skills become essential in life to address current and new situations and CAPF is informed by Vision 2020 which among others emphasises the need for a stable democracy (MoET, 2008: 5-7). Guided by literature it seems the nature of curriculum that is advocated by the Lesotho government is skill-based and requires students to have experiences in society as they address real-life situations.

The above view is supported by Graig (2010: 1)'s and International Baccalaureate Information Systems (IBIS) (2014: 1)'s contention that a curriculum that requires and encourages learners to engage in social actions is transformative and skill-based. Based on the above statement it seems Lesotho curriculum is transformative in nature because of its aspiration to incorporate activities that are compatible with individual and social development (MoET, 2008: 7). The other aspect that is addressed in CAPF is the need to equip learners with technological skills in order to
prepare them for world of work and to enable them to further their studies (MoET, 2008: 9). This last aspect of CAPF is directly addressing the Third Generation, which is a generation of learners living in the digital and information age which requires application of knowledge rather than memorisation of information (Graig, 2010: 1), (Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh, 2014:2) and (Janov, 2015: 1). It is evident that CAPF puts emphasis on relevance in the education sector (MoET, 2008: 2) to address the needs of the society it serves and to equip learners with skills relevant to the demands of the 21st century.

All the above mentioned changes and requirements of the CAPF seem to have implications on both teaching and learning. First this suggests that there is to be change in both pedagogy and assessment in Lesotho high schools. The above view is supported by Findlay (2010: 1)’s and Passmore (2016: 10)’s assertion that the change in curriculum has a great impact on classroom teaching and learning. The CAPF seems to be addressing the issue of teaching and assessment in that it emphasises that pedagogy should shift to methods that can develop creativity, independence and for learners to develop greater responsibility for their learning (MoET, 2008: 6).

The second issue that needs to be understood is that the methods that encourage learners to develop creativity are learner-centred in nature and include the following practices: group work, dramatisation, case studies, information finding activities, problem solving, project-based approach, inquiry-based, presentations, field trips and showing documentaries (IBIS, 2014: 1) and Watanabe-Crockett (2017: 1). The above-mentioned transformative pedagogies are learner-centred and according to Passmore (2016: 10) transformative education embraces learning as process where the individual cannot be separated from own context.

It is with regard to the above view that many writers including McGonigal (2005: 1) and Watanabe-Crockett (2017: 1) encourage the use of project-based learning due to its ability to bring real-life situations and learners’ neighbourhood as part of learning. The effectiveness of project-based learning lies in its ability to encourage learners to directly link what they learn in school with reality of their immediate environment. It is imperative to mention that there is consensus by authors including University of Wisconsin (2008: 1), IBIS (2014: 1) and McGonigal (2005: 1) that
transformative learning requires teaching and learning practices that encourage critical reflection. Hence project-based learning is among those practices that are considered critical in transformative learning. Considering that CAPF encourages transformative learning suggests that the above consensus has implications on teaching and learning in the History classroom in Lesotho.

It is for this reason that CAPF encourages pedagogy to move from teaching to facilitating learning and this is how it is structured in the framework:

“...from transfer of facts to students’ construction of knowledge; from memorisation of information to analysis, evaluation and application of information; from didactic teaching to participatory, activity-centred and interactive methodologies” (MoET, 2008: 6).

Regarding assessment the CAPF encourages formative assessment that is both diagnostic and continuous in nature (MoET, 2008: 6). In this study assessment that is diagnostic is embedded in assessment for learning and the processes that are intended first, for learners' learning, and secondly for teachers to adjust instruction and improve an instructional program (Baldwin, 2016: 1). The above-mentioned process shifts the attention from the teacher to learning as the focus is on how learners receive and use the information (Greenstein, 2010: 1; Passmore, 2016: 10 and Watanabe-Crockett, 2017: 1). Formative assessment information is descriptive and it provides learners with clear learning targets because the purpose is to enable learners to reflect and set goals (IOWA Department of Education, 2018: 1). To this end Popham (2017: 1) asserts the much accessible information on formative assessment points to the view that both teachers and senior management teams in schools have at least a basic understanding of what the phrase entails.

Considering that formative assessment is intended to adjust instruction Popham (2017: 1) and Baldwin (2016:1) posit that there is need to raise awareness that formative assessment is a process and not just any particular test. The formative assessment process as argued by Popham (2017: 1) supports transformative learning because it can encourage the development of skills which among others include critical reflection and autonomous thinking. The above mentioned skills are encouraged by CAPF and so this suggests that the formative assessment process is fundamental in contributing to the achievement of the aspired educational goals by
the Ministry of Education and Training in Lesotho. In order for formative assessment to contribute to the aspired goals by MoET, this study views and adopts an assertion by Greenstein (2010: 1) and Author and Ramsey (2016: 1) that the formative assessment can be used as a teaching tool that to encourage classroom discussions, development of self and peer assessment and to prepare learners beyond the life of school.

Essentially Greenstein (2010: 1) and IOWA Department of Education (2018: 1) argue that as teachers gather information from formative assessment the process can further enhance learning. Both Greenstein (2010: 1) and IOWA Department of Education (2018: 1) agree that formative assessment is a process which encourages and enables learners to reflect on learning itself and to take responsibility for their own learning. The ability to reflect and take responsibility for own learning assists learners to become what literature refers to as autonomous thinkers. Therefore the process of formative assessment and the development of autonomous thinking are crucial in transformative learning.

Literature suggests that the development of autonomous thinking is a necessity for democratic societies because governments in the 21st century require people who are able to fully participate and have ability to make decisions (Lambrechts and Hindson, 2006: 7) and (Mintz, 2015: 1). It is important to highlight that CAPF which is transformative in nature emphasises reflection and autonomous thinking and as such both are among many other aspiration of the Lesotho Government through its Ministry of Education and Training. It is to this end that the formative assessment process can go a long way to assist MoET to achieve its aspirations for assessment to provide feedback to improve the teaching and learning processes (MoET, 2008: 11).

The above forms of teaching and assessment were mentioned, because principles of justice and participatory democracy contained in the Lesotho Vision 2020 and the CAPF require that teaching and assessment practices become learner-centred. Learner-centred and interactive approaches are principles of a transformative curriculum and the purpose of such a curriculum is to empower learners with critical skills, values and attitudes (IBIS, 2014: 1 and Mykra, 2015: 1). Transformative curriculum therefore situates teaching and learning within supportive and dynamic
environments simply because transformative education is education for change and this change includes all aspects of human social, cultural and economic life (Cochrane, Antoncza & Guinibert, 2014: 1).

At this point it is worth noting that literature contends that curriculum is guided by two differing perspectives namely progressive and traditional paradigms. Sherrington (2014: 1) and Kennedy (2017: 1) argue that progressive perspective is fundamentally associated with transformative curriculum and exemplifies learner-centred and interactive practices. Secondly that progressive perspective is transformative in nature because those who employ it help learners to participate in democratic processes and as such students begin to be responsible citizens. Wingra School (2012: 1) and Cochrane et al., (2014: 1) and share the same view that transformative curriculum involves interactive practices and creates opportunities for learners not only to question issues of power in social, economic and political structures but to also encourage initiatives in changing them.

The above statement seems to be in accordance with Cochrane et al., (2014: 1) and Mykra (2015:1) when they attest that interactive practices are framed as participation within communities and such practices draw on both real-life experiences and social learning and are guided by social constructivism. It is within such environments that creativity thrives and autonomous learning occurs and as such learners are prepared to function effectively in global communities (Lambrechts and Hindson, 2006: 6), (Indiana University Southeast, 2012: 1) and (Watanabe-Crockett, 2017: 1).

Lambrechts and Hindson (2006: 7) and Filho, Raath, Lazzarini & Vargas (2018: 1) offer another view and attest that progressive perspective and transformative curriculum are about Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) in a complex and changing world. This perspective demonstrates that there is consensus that both transformative curriculum and ESD are about preparing the learner for an active role in society towards sustainability. In a context of active citizenship in society a key point is therefore to develop deep understanding of which sustainable issues are at stake, now and in the future (Lambrechts and Hindson, 2006: 6); (Indiana University Southeast, 2012: 1); (Cochrane et al., 2014:1).

The above-mentioned environment is able to produce autonomous learners because it has the ability to encourage interaction between learners, reflection, open-
mindedness, risk taking and imagination (Watanabe-Crockett, 2017: 1 and Cochrane et al., 2014: 1). However Gravett (2004: 261) and Mykra (2015: 1) are quick to point out that, the success of such an interactive environment and transformative curriculum requires the re-conception of the roles of both the teacher and learners. In transformative curriculum the role of the teacher is no longer that of a sole provider of knowledge but shifts to that of a facilitator and that necessitates for the teacher to allow for an environment that is effective for learning (McGonigal, 2005: 1 and Filho et al., 2018: 1). To this end there is evidence to suggest that progressive perspective supports transformative curriculum.

Traditional perspective on the other side is fundamentally teacher-centred in nature (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). Rudduck (1995: 1) and Kennedy (2017: 1) highlight that many critiques of teacher-centred approaches including (Stenhouse 1975), argue that the teacher-centred approach discourages critical thinking and open-mindedness. This implies that traditional perspective may not support transformative curriculum.

The discussions on traditional and progressive perspectives were necessary to enable the researcher to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in schools of Lesotho. This is because the shift to transformative curriculum brings with it some challenges to the teaching of History as a subject. While previously teaching of History was mainly examination focused and put emphasis on transmission of a body of knowledge (Rudduck, 2012: 1), the teaching of History in the 21st century necessitates for integrative approach and to engage learners in the process (Maxwell, 2011: 1 and Williams, 2016:1) and focus is on application of knowledge and development of functional skills, hence countries are compelled to dismantle traditional methods. The abovementioned shift in the teaching of History requires learners to be critical of information they receive and this requires History teachers in Lesotho to possess a deep understanding of how a historical inquiry is conducted.

The success of the foregoing begins with a system which is complete in terms of firstly, availability of relevant resources, secondly, teachers are empowered through professional development and thirdly, the availability and accessibility of the curriculum guides and other resources that are necessary for teaching and learning.
Gravett (2004: 262) highly recommends that the process should begin with workshops which focus on assisting teachers to acquire knowledge about the demands of the curriculum. The School, Students and Teacher Network (2016: 1) expresses similar view and posits that changing teacher practice is complex and training is necessary.

It is for the above-mentioned reasons that Gravett (2004: 262) and The School, Students and Teacher Network (2016: 1) contend that the success of the implementation of the changes in any curriculum depends on a supportive environment that encourages teachers to develop together. Supportive environment is necessary because context affects the way teachers teach and so Price et al., (2009: 40) contend that pedagogy and assessment needs to be congruent with student-centred learning practices.

On the same note, Marion (2015: 2) and Gravett (2004: 261) assert that since teachers are central to the learning process, it is critical to fully invest in teachers as learners. This kind of support through training is crucial because the process can create space for teachers to reflect on their own assumptions. Teachers may then change or improve those assumptions to align with the teaching and learning theory that supports a transformative curriculum. Investing in teachers is also crucial in that it offers opportunities for teachers to have the knowledge and skills to fully support their students.

It is indeed against this backdrop that the purpose of this study is to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Framework (CAPF) encourages transformative curriculum and teaching in schools of Lesotho. Transformative curriculum requires student-centred approaches and environments that are warm and encourage openness. Transformative curriculum also requires schools and institutions of learning to have materials and resources for teaching and learning (McGonigal, 2005: 1; Jones and Duckett, 2016: 1; The School, Students and Teacher Network, 2016: 1 and Price et al., 2009: 40).
The main problem is the lack of ability by teachers to respond to the requirements of a transformative curriculum in Lesotho. This lack is demonstrated through pedagogy that seems not to use a range of possible educational responses to create space for learning to be a constructive process (New York University, 2017: 1 and Keesing-Style, 2003: 1). Pedagogy therefore seems to exemplify the teacher-centred approach (Alsaleh, 2012: 1). The teacher-centred approaches do not support a transformative curriculum because they are not able to assist learners to develop critical and autonomous thinking and do not allow for open-mindedness (De Gialdino, 2009: 1; Rudduck, 1995: 1 and Kennedy, 2017: 1).

The other contributing factors may include lack of appropriate use of resources, lack of appropriate planning and professional development and situations whereby most teachers are left behind when curriculum changes are taking place, which exacerbate the situation (Jensen, 2000: 84 and Gravett, 2004: 259). All of the abovementioned factors contribute to most teachers to continue to struggle in adapting and implementing the new ways that are required by the changed curriculum. Literature review seems to suggest that, while there is much literature on transformative education, there is not much research done on the topic of a transformative History curriculum in particular.

The other point worth mentioning is that despite the efforts of many countries to integrate Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) into their curricula, Filho et al., (2018: 1) contend that changes have been little and that they have been occurring at a slow pace. Considering that the Lesotho Government envisages comprehensive guidelines and practices that support transformative curriculum (MoET, 2008: 3 and 6) compels the researcher to bring to light an understanding of a transformative History curriculum. The foregoing therefore makes it necessary to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

1.3 Conceptual framework

In order to achieve the above mentioned aim this study employs critical pedagogy as conceptual framework within which the study is structured. Critical pedagogy traces its origins back to critical theory and to the philosophers among others including, Paulo Freire, Henry Giroux and Joan Wink (Sarroub and Quadros, 2015: 252). The
study is structured within critical pedagogy because proponents highlight that critical pedagogy applies concepts from critical theory and this implies that critical pedagogy utilises different approaches to help create supportive learning environments and to liberate students from oppressive classroom conditions as argued by Sarroub & Quadros (2015: 252) and New York University (2017: 1). Guided by the foregoing it seems critical pedagogy is suitable for this study because it helps establish the understanding of the teachers regarding a transformative History curriculum and how they address issues of power in their classrooms.

Since critical pedagogy utilises concepts from critical theory it is worth mentioning that the goal of critical pedagogy is about well being of human beings and liberation for learners from oppressive conditions through raising awareness regarding social injustices (Keesing-Style, 2003: 1; Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014: 81-82 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). Considering that practices that encourage awakening of critical awareness and ability to recognise authoritarian tendencies and the ability to take constructive action are some of the principles of praxis (Aliakbari and Faraji, 2011: 1) implies that critical pedagogy is praxis in nature.

Fundamentally critical pedagogy encourages those who employ it to act as a model for the democratic process and to offer empowering education (Daily Struggles, 2017: 1 and The Guardian, 2014: 1). Critical pedagogy is deemed suitable for this study because it helps the researcher to determine the levels of dialogue in the History classroom and if students are active members of the class. This is because critical pedagogy just like transformative curriculum is based on multiple perspectives, on dialogue and therefore learning negates a one-sided relationship (Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014: 81-82 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1).

Furthermore critical pedagogy is empowering because it offers opportunity for teachers to carefully consider their assumptions regarding teaching and learning process (Abrahams, 2005: 1). Critical pedagogy is therefore suitable for this study because it allows the researcher to establish the type of relationship that exist between teacher and learner and addresses the issues of interaction among learners.

Transformative learning is another theory that is relevant for this study because it relates to the broader area of teaching and learning, but limits the scope of this study
to a transformative History curriculum. Pappas (2016: 1) and Culatta (2018: 1) share the same view that transformative learning theory is a constructivist theory that encourages learners to be active members in the teaching and learning process. In addition, transformative learning theory encourages reflection and leads to a change in the behaviour, mindset and beliefs. Transformative learning theory essentially forms the theoretical framework of this study because it is directly linked to the research question and main aim of this study, to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

It is imperative that this section also defines a transformative curriculum. Many authors including Vera (2012: 1) and Luckett and Shay (2017: 1) agree that a transformative curriculum is curriculum that is skilled-based, thinking-centred, encourages lifelong learning, and enhances personal and social integration. Furthermore, transformative curriculum encourages collaborative learning, sharing learning responsibilities, problem-solving, critical and creative learning and utilises project-based learning. All the discussed characteristics of transformative curriculum are relevant to assist the researcher to highlight interventions that promote transformative teaching and learning and so establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

Guided by the foregoing, the next sub-sections introduce the main research question and secondary questions

1.4 Research question

- What are teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools?

This main question was supported by the following questions

- What is the teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum?
- How effective are teachers in implementing a transformative History curriculum?
- What suggestions and recommendations can be made for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum for Lesotho high schools?
1.5 Aim and objectives of the empirical research

The main aim of this study was to

- Determine teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum for Lesotho high schools

This aim was supported by the following objectives:

- To determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum.
- To establish how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum.
- To present suggestions and recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum for schools in Lesotho.

1.6 Research design, methodology and methods

The purpose of this study was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum for schools in Lesotho. The nature of the main aim required rich data in terms of the attitudes, behaviour and actions and to understand why teachers teach the way they do. The nature of the research aim necessitated for qualitative methodology because qualitative research encourages researchers to interact with participants in their natural environments (Nieuwehuis, 2007: 51). Secondly the aim of the study required a descriptive research because the purpose was not to generalise and predict causes and effects but to firstly, establish how teachers in Lesotho high schools teach, secondly, to understand the reasons they give regarding the way they teach and thirdly to determine the meanings that History teachers attach to a transformative History curriculum. Edirisingha (2012: 1) argues that motives and meanings are time and context bound and the descriptive research allowed for interaction with the participants in their natural settings.

In this study the three high schools in Maseru Lesotho became the context to collect the necessary information. The research design was relevant for this study because according to Gravett (2004: 262; The Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001: 1 and Lynn University, 2005: 1) context affects the way teachers teach and therefore being in schools in Lesotho, afforded the opportunity to determine if teachers possess knowledge and skills to implement a transformative
History curriculum. This is because it is in context that researchers are able to see and hear actors in action and such evidence goes a long way to assisting researchers in understanding why teachers behave and act in the manner they do. It is in the manner described above that one is able to define perspectives and to construct meanings (De Gialdino, 2009: 1 and Edirisingha, 2012: 1). In line with the foregoing, literature emphasises that it is not easy for those who conduct research in social sciences to separate actors (participants) from their context.

The choice for three schools as context was further encouraged by an assertion by Edirisingha (2012: 1) that interpretivists believe the reality is multiple and therefore relative. The choice for three schools in Lesotho was also influenced by the Research Methodology (2016: 1) contention that the interpretive nature of qualitative research emphasises that knowledge cannot be constructed from one reality. Considering that the aim of this study was embedded in an interpretivist paradigm necessitated for collection of knowledge from multiple realities. This is fundamentally due to the fact that knowledge acquired offers opportunity for knowledge to be a social construct. In addition the multiple realities allow for considerations for emerging issues and therefore the interpretivist paradigm does not view knowledge as objective with what can be called one right response to the problem (Lauer, 2006: 17 and Edirisingha, 2012: 1). The employment of multiple realities therefore enabled the researcher to determine the nature of support that was available to the teachers to implement transformative History curriculum.

The other factor was that data collected in this study required narrative descriptions. Qualitative research was therefore suitable because interest was in the stories and narratives of the participants. Getting the stories directly from the participants was crucial in ensuring that the meaning was transcribed in the direct words of the participants to avoid misrepresentation (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). Qualitative interpretivist methodology seemed suitable because the purpose of this study was to understand and interpret the meaning that was given by teachers in Lesotho regarding transformative History curriculum. Interpretivists avoid approaches that are rigid that is the reason multiple realities are fundamental steps in data collection unlike with positivists that hold the view that both knowledge and reality are objective and can only be understood through the use of scientific knowledge that is based on principles of reasoning (Mastin, 2008: 1).
The above contention reveals that the epistemology in positivist research employs objective approach and is closely connected to verifications of knowledge (Mastin, 2008: 1) and replication of results in research. This study followed interpretivist research because just like interpretivists the need was to interact with History teachers in the place where phenomenon was occurring and to make sense and capture meaning that was attached to a transformative History curriculum. Such interactions were necessary because according to Lauer (2006: 17) and Edirisingha (2012: 1) the interactions assist researchers to make sense of what is understood as reality by the actors.

Lastly the above described research design assisted to yield rich data that did not only help to achieve the main aim of study but led to important recommendations of what could be done to implement a transformative History curriculum in schools of Lesotho.

Qualitative research design and methodology suggests the use of qualitative methods. The next sub-section introduces the data collection methods that were utilised in this study.

1.7 Data collection

Considering that qualitative methodology underpinned this study necessitated for the use of qualitative data collection methods. (Drawing from Denzin and Lincoln 1994; Creswell 1998) De Gialdino (2009: 1) argues that qualitative research is interpretive, inductive and uses multiple methods. Consequently this study employed observations, document analysis and interviews as data collection methods. As Institute of Public and International Affairs (Utah University) (2009: 1) discusses, interpretive methodologies focus on the making meaning and offering descriptive explanation of the practices of the participants.

There seems to be consensus as De Gialdino (2009: 1) and Edirisingha (2012: 1) also add that qualitative research relies heavily on multiple realities and different types of information that is provided by participants. In this regard History teachers from three different schools in Lesotho participated in this study. It is these multiple realities that contributed to making meaning from the actions and words of the participants. The interpretive methodology created space for the researcher to
concentrate on understanding and the interpretation of teachers’ feelings and reasons that governed their actions.

The descriptive nature of this study allowed observation of the participants in their natural settings and as such assisted in the collection of information of the context without changing the environment (The Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001: 1). In this study it was important to observe pedagogy and assessment to establish re-alignment with a transformative History curriculum. Descriptive study firstly provided information about the teaching and learning practices that were utilised in the History classroom in Lesotho. Secondly descriptive design offered opportunity for the researcher to understand behaviour as well as attitudes of the participants. The descriptive design was encouraged by The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (2001: 1) and Lynn University (2005: 1) contention that descriptive studies are vital if the purpose is to make meaning of the phenomenon in relation to the context of the participants.

The descriptive design of this study afforded the researcher the opportunity to observe first-hand the relationships between the History teachers and students. This study employed participant observations because it is typical of qualitative research paradigm and because data is narrative rather than in figures (Strydom, 2011: 329). The aim was to understand how History teachers make meaning of transformative education. The use of participant observations was vital in achieving the aim through understanding participants’ words, expressions and observing their actions in their natural place, which in this study was the History classroom in Lesotho. Observations concentrated on

- How teachers taught History; methods and strategies used; availability of resources and how they were used; how assessment was conducted; lesson planning; what learning activities were employed and, what challenges teachers experienced.

The decision to utilise participant observations was based on the contention by Radnor (2002: 48) and Strydom (2011: 329) that outsiders cannot easily understand or interpret people’s conceptions of reality therefore, methods that affords the opportunity to capture participants’ reality and viewpoints as accurately as possible are required. Hence participant observations were considered suitable for this study.
because literature suggests that people cannot study social life without being part of it. Secondly the participant observation afforded the opportunity to record the nature of class activities, feelings, physical settings and interactions in the History classroom through looking rather than asking.

The procedure followed during participant observations in this study was guided by (Strydom, 2011: 329) contention that the researchers should observe and record interactions, behaviour, actions and make field notes in a manner that is not rigid but semi-structured manner. Thirdly participant observation was influenced by (Radnor, 2002: 48) assertion that watching and listening can give us a sense of social life of others and phenomena is studied as it arise and so the first-hand information allowed the researcher to gain additional insight on the perceptions of History teachers on a transformative History curriculum.

Another point is that descriptive research allows for interaction with the participants in the form of interviews to collect the necessary information (The Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001: 1) and (Lynn University, 2005:1). This study is structured within critical pedagogy and this theory is based on dialogue and negates one-sided relationship (Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014: 81-82) and (Daily Struggles, 2016:1). The dialogic nature of critical pedagogy allowed this study to employ interviews as qualitative data collection methods. In this study semi-structured interviews were utilised because fundamentally they allowed the participants to even discuss some of the issues that were not asked but were closely related to the research problem (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smith, 2004: 5). Semi-structured interviews played a significant role in assisting the researcher to achieve the main aim of this study.

In addition interviews were guided by Radnor (2002: 50) assertion that to be able to understand what makes people do what they do, we need to ask them. It was therefore essential for the researcher to understand verbatim from the participants why they taught History the way they did. Consequently interviews with each participant were conducted within the premises of the school in a place convenient for open conversation and each lasted between thirty and forty minutes. This study employed semi-structured interviews because they are in-depth interviews and the purpose of such interviews as argued by Strydom (2011: 347) is not to get answers
to questions but an understanding of meaning that people make to an experience. The open-ended questions guided by critical pedagogy as the conceptual framework of this study encouraged and increased conversation and deep understanding of meaning given to a transformative History curriculum by teachers in Lesotho high schools. Semi structured interviews, as pointed out by Maree (2007: 257) allow the researcher to obtain verbatim responses and to follow up on any new topic that participants may introduce.

The employment of interviews in this study was further encouraged by Mertens (2010: 370:371) argument that while observations create opportunity for researcher to observe phenomenon in the natural setting, it is not easy for all researcher to observe all aspects of an inquiry in depth and interviews therefore can validate the data being collected. It is imperative to mention that although voice recorders are highly recommended for use in interviews, the pilot study that the researcher conducted indicated that many of the participants did not like to be recorded. Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89) emphasises that while tape recorders should be utilised researchers should get permission from the participants before they begin recording. In the same way the participants in this study did not approve the use of the voice recorder. The researcher therefore relied on note taking. According to Kawulich (2005: 1) and Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89) the importance of taking notes should not be undermined in that the researchers can use the notes to formulate other questions for interview session, with the purpose to further understand behaviour and actions.

Both the participant observations and semi-structured interviews as data collection instruments afforded the researcher the opportunity to achieve the aim and all the objectives of this study. Through observations the researcher was able to establish the environment, nature of resources and materials available to support the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The success of the observations depended on the fact that the observer was a teacher who had experience in teaching at both local and international schools in Lesotho for more than twenty years. For this reason the researcher could interpret the situation far better and within a shorter space of time than could otherwise be in any other setting that did not share similar characteristics with the researcher’s profession.
To this effect Radnor (2002: 49) elucidates that in an educational context it is often the case that the observer is an educator. In such a case the participants and the researcher share a common culture and understand each other in the sense that they are all part of the educational system. Another important factor was that the researcher focused mainly on the role as an observer in the situation and remained uninvolved and did not influence the dynamics of the setting as recommended by (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 85). Hence in this study the actions, words and expressions were of more importance than the actions of the researcher. The semi-structured interviews on the other hand gave an insight on the issues relating to support in terms of training and professional development and why teachers did things in the way they did.

Document analysis was another important data collection method used in collecting data for this study. This study analysed CAPF to determine the nature of curriculum envisaged by Lesotho government. Through this procedure it became evident that CAPF advocated for transformative learning. Document analysis was therefore fundamental in achieving the aim of the study because according to Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1) teachers may not follow policies established by the government or it may be that policies contradict teachers' philosophical assumptions of education. In document analysis many writer normally question the number of documents that the researchers should gather and literature suggests that a large number and a variety of documents is better.

However in this study, four documents considered to be of the main focus were analysed. They included schemes of work, lesson plans, textbooks and assessment documents. The decision was influenced by Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) contention that the focus should be more about quality of documents rather than quantity. One of the objectives was to determine the understanding and meaning that was attached to a transformative History curriculum by teachers in Lesotho high schools.

All of the foregoing then assisted in addressing the problem of what contributed to the inability of teachers to implement a transformative History curriculum and further led to the recommendations of what could be done to make the implementation a success for schools in Lesotho. The above view is supported by Goddard and
Melville (2001: 10) and Pellissier (2007: 20) assertion that qualitative approach research seeks to explore where and why practice does not work. Document analysis therefore formed part of the triangulation process as it confirmed and addressed the issues of reliability and validity.

It is the expected procedure in research that when data is collected it should then be analysed as a way of answering the research question. Hence the next sub-section discusses research participants including population and sampling.

1.8 Research participants

Research participants are usually referred to as human subjects or study subjects. These are people who participate in inquiry as people whom the researcher has access to observe and interview them (Wikipedia The Free Encyclopedia, 2017: 1). In order to determine the population in this study the researcher utilised Strydom (2011: 332) contention that the choice of the problem is automatically linked directly to the particular field in which the inquiry is to be undertaken. In this study the problem lies in the implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The nature of the problem was therefore located within the Ministry of Education and Training in Lesotho making teachers in Lesotho high schools the population for the study. According to literature the above-mentioned is regarded as theoretical population.

From the theoretical population the researcher selected History teachers that were accessible for the study. Two teachers were selected from two government schools and one teacher from an international school, bringing the total sample to three teachers. The process was motivated by Trochim (2006: 1) assertion that once researchers have identified the theoretical population they have to get a sample. A sample is a list of members of the accessible population and the group that the researcher selects to be in the study. In this study therefore the sample consisted of three History teachers in Lesotho high schools.

The small number of sample in this study was directed by purposeful/purposive sampling. The fundamental aspect of purposive sampling is that the judgement of the researcher guides the type and size of the sample (Pellissier, 2007: 24). For this reason the sample was three teachers of Basic Education [Form A and C] and these
teachers assisted the researcher to establish the meaning and understanding that was given to transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools. It is important to highlight that previously Form A, B and C were known as a secondary school, but in the CAFP they now constitute Basic Education and is known as Grade 8 – 10.

The reason for one teacher to be selected from an international school and the other two from local schools was all based on literature presented in previous sections that perspectives are made in context. The selected contexts were suitable because they were settings where specific processes regarding implementation of a transformative History curriculum were most likely to occur. Different contexts allowed the researcher to collect rich data and deep understanding why teachers taught the way they did. Indeed the decision for small sampling was guided by Springer (2010: 283) who attests that qualitative sampling typically focuses on small numbers of individuals who are likely to provide deep insight regarding the phenomenon. In this study the number of sampling and location were also encouraged by accessibility in terms of finances, distance between schools and the availability of time. To this end Coyne (1997: 624) and Pellissier (2007: 24) attest that sampling is based on convenience where participants are selected because of their availability, convenience and proximity to the researcher.

Hence three teachers became the sample in this study because purposive sampling was employed and the sample is small (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 79). The choice of participants is regardless of gender, race, age and cultural background.

1.9 Data analysis

Data analysis is an important step in research and Premium Survey Service (2011: 1) suggests that before analysing results, researchers should look back at the objectives they were trying to accomplish. The main aim of this study was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The analysis should make clear the way in which teachers teach, methods and strategies used, as well as the resources to implement transformative curriculum. In order to achieve the aim of this study the information that was collected from observations and interviews was reduced in a way that facilitated interpretations of the findings.
The process was encouraged by the fact that this study was guided by interpretivism and interpretivism is qualitative in nature and it utilises qualitative data collecting methods (Edirisingha, 2012: 1). Merrian (1998: 104) and Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003: 5) elucidate that interpreting the data is attaching meaning to data collected from empirical research and that meaning is not detached from the point of view of the people being studied. In this study the researcher took notes of signs, words and actions of the participants. Full notes were then written and typed soon after the observations and interviews to preserve information and the coding system was utilised to analyse the data.Coding is when the researchers locate meaningful parts using different symbols or descriptive words that are determined by the researcher (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 104; Research Methodology, 2016: 1; Lauer, 2006: 48; Creswell, 2008: 244 and Johnson and Christensen, 2012: 93).

In this study data collected was labelled and assigned meaningful titles regarding understanding and effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The procedure described above was important because De Vos (2005: 120) argues that the answers should not be removed from the context in which they appear, because when that happens the social meaning and significance can become distorted. Hence participants were observed and interviewed in the place of work. The procedure of coding assisted the researcher to identify similarities or consistencies across all transcripts from observations, interviews and document analysis.

The next step was to compare the findings of the observations, interviews and document analysis with the findings of the literature review. This enabled the researcher to link research findings to research main aim and objectives and to identify gaps in the body of knowledge concerning implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

The final step was then to write a complete report. The report was a narrative and not in figures because this study was guided by qualitative methodology. The report highlighted those suggestions and recommendations for effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools.
1.10 Pilot study

A pilot study is a first step and initial procedure that is conducted in order to explore interventions and pilot allows the researchers to determine the feasibility of the study when it is conducted at wider context (Leon, Davis & Kraemer, 2012: 1). This first phase is necessary because Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001: 1) and Leon et al., (2012: 1) assert that a pilot study assists to prepare for the larger empirical research. Secondly it is to establish consistency and success of the procedure and methods selected for data collection.

Guided by the foregoing a pilot study was considered an important first stage in this study and was conducted in one of the schools, which was not selected as a sample.

1.11 Value of the research

Information obtained from this study is crucial to the Ministry of Education and Training in Lesotho, the teachers and the learners because it provides knowledge in which to implement a transformative History curriculum. The study further becomes valuable to support the paradigm that emphasises for the development of skills and critical thinking. In addition the study brings to the attention of the stakeholders, the importance of the relationship between schools and community as an aspect that is highly encouraged by transformative curriculum.

Policy makers should understand that change in paradigm requires full support structures in terms of training and resources. The study further helps the researcher to improve own practice as a teacher to successfully implement a transformative History curriculum in own school. Not only that but proper implementation of a transformative History curriculum is a step in the right direction towards achieving Education for Sustainable Development as aspired by the United Nations and all countries of the world.

1.12 Limitation of the study

This study did not include all History teachers in Lesotho because of purposive sampling which encourages a small sample. The nature of the study made it difficult to generalise the findings to a wider population of teachers in Lesotho.
It is important to note that the purpose of this study was not to generalise findings but to obtain deep and rich information that could help answer the research question. This therefore might act as the limitation of this research.

1.13 Ethical considerations

In this study the researcher first obtained clearance and permission from University of the Free State Ethics Committee. Following that the Ministry of Education and Training allowed the researcher to conduct empirical research in high schools in Lesotho. Permission was further obtained from Principals of selected schools and those teachers who volunteered to be part of the study.

The procedure followed above was to ensure that the researcher conformed to a code of principles, rules of conduct as well as the standard of conduct (Strydom, 2011: 114). Hence in this study the following ethical principles were observed by the researcher:

- Privacy/anonymity/confidentiality
- Informed consent
- Voluntary participation

These principles as argued by Strydom (2011: 114) serve to discourage the lapse of ethical procedure which may cause harm to the participants. Strydom (2011: 115) reiterates that research should be conducted in a manner that does not bring or expose participants to either physical or emotional harm. The author further argues that participants can be harmed in a physical and/or emotional manner. Guided by the foregoing in this study, it remained the responsibility of the researcher to protect participants from harm and that was done through the use of the abovementioned procedure.

1.14 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the purpose of the study ‘teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools’. The interest to pursue this aim was influenced by the change in Lesotho Curriculum which encourages a move towards student-centred practices. The aforementioned practices tend to be transformative in nature hence critical pedagogy underpins this study. This is because critical pedagogy just like transformative curriculum is empowering and
emphasises principles of democracy. The study follows descriptive design and employs qualitative methodology and methods because the aim is to interpret meaning that is given to transformative History curriculum by the teachers in Lesotho high schools. The study is not only valuable to the policy makers but to the participants and the researcher because it helps in improving and implementation of a transformative History curriculum.
CHAPTER TWO

Conceptual framework on teachers’ perspectives of a transformative history curriculum for schools in Lesotho

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss conceptual framework and explain how it is relevant to this study. The discussion of conceptual framework does not only help the researcher to point out own position on teaching and learning but to give direction to the study. The understanding of conceptual framework is also necessary because it assists in achieving the main aim of the study which is to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. This chapter therefore defines and introduces the conceptual framework namely critical pedagogy that guides this study.

2.2 Conceptual framework

Many authors in educational research including Magher (2018: 1), Regoniel (2015: 1) and Hathaway (1995: 541) agree that conceptual framework is utilised in research to introduce the research question and problem statement of the study. This study requires conceptual framework to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. In order to build the conceptual framework the researcher referred to Swanson (2013: 1) assertion that the purpose of a theory in research is to assist the researcher to select appropriate methods and to locate the study within a suitable research paradigm. According to Hathaway (1995: 541) paradigms are important because they set and determine what researchers should consider knowledge and what role they play in research.

It is in this light that the next sub-section introduces conceptual framework of this study.

2.2.1 What is a conceptual framework?

Conceptual framework of a study consists of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that supports and informs the research and guides the researcher towards realising the objectives of the study (Magher, 2017: 1;
McGaghie, Bordage & Shea, 2001: 1 and Regoniel, 2015: 1). In this study conceptual framework is directly linked to the research problem which is the lack of teachers’ ability to respond to the requirements of a transformative History curriculum. Therefore the conceptual framework of this study enabled the researcher to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

As indicated in the previous paragraphs in this study the phenomenon is transformative History curriculum and so having a conceptual framework first assists the researcher to explain transformative learning as the theoretical framework that guides this study. Transformative learning is a constructivist theory that encourages learners to be active members of the teaching and learning process (Culatta, 2018: 1). Transformative learning theory focuses attention on instrumental learning which fundamentally is task oriented, encouraging learners to communicate their feelings, needs and desires. In addition transformative learning theory encourages reflection, which typically is the ability of learners to understand themselves, content of the problem and the process of problem solving.

The above view is supported by Pappas (2016: 1)’s contention that transformative learning theory is based on principles that personal experience is an integral part of the learning process. Hence reflection creates space for learners to interpret and to give meaning to situations, which then leads to a change in behaviour, mindset and beliefs. Transformative learning theory is suitable for this study because it is directly linked to the research question and this study’s thesis that, the main problem in achieving the aspired MoET goals, is the lack of ability of teachers to respond to the requirements of a transformative History curriculum.

Secondly the conceptual framework helps to describe the teaching and learning practices that align with a transformative History curriculum. The two points mentioned in the preceding paragraphs then help direct the researcher (during empirical research) to be able to determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum as well as how effective they are implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. In this way the researcher then realises and achieves the main aim of this study as indicated in (1.5). This kind of understanding and discussion is directed by (Magher, 2017:1; Regoniel, 2015: 1;
Swanson, 2013: 1 and Jabareen, 2009: 1) assertion that conceptual framework helps to explain a phenomenon and to describe the actions that the researcher is to take to answer own research question.

There is consensus that conceptual framework makes it possible to answer own research question in that it offers concepts which are directly linked and related and all of them are used together to provide a deep and clear understanding of a phenomenon. For this study the conceptual framework was utilised to identify those concepts that are related to transformative teaching and learning and this was done with the purpose to assist the researcher to comprehensively understand a transformative History curriculum and what is required to effectively implement it.

Another aspect is that conceptual framework invites one to articulate a moral and intellectual purpose and Quinlan (2012: 1) and Magher (2017: 1) argue that conceptual framework shapes the thinking decisions and helps direct learning and teaching. Although conceptual framework influences practice in the classroom, experiences should not be neglected because they also play an important part (Quinlan, 2012: 1). In this study conceptual framework is a foundation on which to describe the knowledge, skills and values that teachers possess regarding a transformative History curriculum. However it is important that the researcher puts into consideration the experiences of the teachers while conducting classroom observation because the experiences play an important role in determining perception regarding teaching and learning.

In this study the learner is at the core of the conceptual framework followed by the teacher (instructional leader) and then transformative History curriculum. The circular representation symbolises the interconnectedness among the themes and that they need to be integrated throughout teaching and learning in the History classroom in Lesotho. The teacher is seen as the agent who is supposed to implement change which in this study is a transformative History curriculum effectively. The teachers are referred to as instructional leaders because it is understood that they share the same vision as the Ministry of Education and Training in achieving the aims that are listed in the CAPF. In view of the above, the actions, practices and perceptions of teachers regarding teaching and learning of History become important because they
impact on learners. Hence it is the aim of this study to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

The discussion of conceptual framework in this section was therefore necessary because it was used to inform the direction of a research project, to determine a theory that guides the study and methodology for a research project. This is supported by Jabareen (2009: 1); Magher (2017: 1); Regoniel (2015: 1) and Swanson (2013: 1) assertion that conceptual framework is the researcher’s ideas on how the research problem will be explored. As such this study employed a qualitative approach with observations, document analysis and semi-structured interviews.

Having described conceptual framework it is necessary that the next sub-section presents critical pedagogy as the conceptual framework that guides this study.

2.2.2 Critical pedagogy as a conceptual framework

Guided by the discussions presented in the previous sub-sections the research adopted critical theory with modifications to allow critical pedagogy to underpin this study. The decision to employ critical pedagogy as conceptual framework was guided by Anderson (2013: 1) assertion that each research paradigm embodies its own different ontology, epistemology and methodology. In this study the researcher understands that people have different aims and attitudes and that interaction is fundamental to reality. Secondly the researcher views knowledge as socially constructed and can be constructed using different ways of knowing. Hence critical pedagogy was selected as the conceptual framework for this study.

It is worth mentioning that critical pedagogy is about liberation and as such it rejects any form of social injustices in the classroom situation (Wink, 2005: 1 and Kincheloe, McLaren & Steinberg, 2011: 164). The origins of critical pedagogy can be traced back to the philosophers including Paulo Freire, Henry Giroux, Joan Wink (Breunig, 2009: 248). According to literature presented it seems critical pedagogy aligns with constructivism and interpretive paradigm in that knowledge is a social construct. For this reason critical pedagogy allows for qualitative methods to collect data thus allowing the researcher to employ observations and interviews.

Critical pedagogy originated from the criticism that education serves the interests of those who have power and thus advocated for progressive approaches (Wingra
School, 2012: 1; IBIS, 2014: 1 and Sherrington, 2014: 1). In this study the power may seem to rest with the teachers who in positivism are guided by traditional assumptions that regard themselves as the only sources of all information and students are seen as absorbers of information (Mack, 2010: 9 and Kincheloe et al., 2011: 164, 166, 169). In addition positivists highlight that the function of schools is to reproduce these inequalities and maintain the status quo (Pasha, 2012: 1 and Ebert, Ebert & Bentley, 2013: 1). It is with regard to the above-mentioned that critical pedagogy rejects classroom inequalities discussed above. Hence there is agreement by many authors including Mack (2010: 9), Kincheloe et al., (2011: 164) and Pasha (2012: 1) that the ontological assumptions of critical pedagogy emphasise that educational research in critical paradigm should challenge these reproductions of inequalities.

Considering that this study is guided by critical pedagogy suggests that the researcher carries the assumptions that the teaching of History in Lesotho high schools should create space for learning to be a constructive process. Borrowing from (Educational Broadcasting Corporation, 2004: 1; Mack, 2010: 9 and Kennedy, 2017: 1) the researcher further understands that the activities in the History classroom should encourage learners to collaborate and take control of their learning and to reflect on their experiences. The above mentioned practices do not allow learners to become passive recipients of knowledge but encourages them to learn from their peers and develop communication and critical thinking skills.

Guided by the presented discussions, the issues of power in teaching of History in which the teachers regard themselves as the only sources of information are addressed, as learning moves from teacher-centred to become a learner-centred process. It is this nature that makes critical pedagogy a theory that requires multiple teaching and learning practices which create opportunities for learners to be open-minded and to question and address the social structures and relations that are unequal and oppressive (New York University, 2017: 1; Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82 and Daily Struggles, 2015: 1). The assertion above supports the view that critical pedagogy is relevant for this study in order to determine teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.
To further support the discussion in the preceding paragraphs literature emphasises that the ontological assumption of critical theory are based on realism and so views reality as alterable by human action (Scotland, 2012: 13). Secondly both Scotland (2012: 13) and Anderson (2013: 1) view the epistemology of critical theory knowledge as socially constructed and that the focus of critical theory is fundamentally on power relations from within society. It is in this regard that critical theory seeks to address these issues of social justice and marginalism in order to realise a more democratic society (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82, Anderson, 2013: 1 and Scotland, 2012: 13). Since critical pedagogy draws many of its characteristics from critical theory this suggests that these ontological and epistemological assumptions when brought into the classroom situation would have significant impact on teachers’ approaches to the teaching of History.

Having discussed critical pedagogy and its application in classroom situation it is imperative to mention that critical pedagogy can be utilised as a framework in research. As discussed in the preceding paragraphs, the main purpose of critical methodology and methods which among others include semi-structured interviews and open-ended observations is to expose injustice and emancipate the disempowered (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82; Anderson, 2013: 1 and Scotland, 2012: 13). In order to achieve the foregoing critical methods involve making people critically aware of their situation (conscientisation) through praxis, which is repeated action informed by reflection (Aliakbari and Faraji, 2011: 1). The use of the above-mentioned methods then helps to produce qualitative data because the methods fully promote dialogical relations of equality between the researcher and participants.

This study adopts critical theory which has been described in the previous paragraphs because the research question requires qualitative data and dialogue between the researcher and the participants. Furthermore the study is embedded in critical pedagogy because literature presented in the previous paragraphs points to the fact that well established critical pedagogy takes many of its characteristics from critical theory.
2.2.2.1 Critical Pedagogy and Constructivism

As already mentioned in the previous sub-section, critical pedagogy is about liberation and is aimed to reject social injustices in the classroom situation. Critical pedagogy aligns with constructivism in that knowledge is a social construct and learning is an active constructive process (see 1.1). Critical pedagogy challenges teacher-centred methods and practices of authoritarian teachers that encourage learners to remain passive and to learn by memorisation (Brown-Jeffy and Cooper, 2011: 70). Critical pedagogy encourages knowledge to be critically analysed and it is grounded in dialogue and reflection (The Guardian, 2014: 1). To this end Brown-Jeffy and Cooper (2011:77) and Kincheloe et al., (2011: 164, 166, 169) posit that critical pedagogy supports learner-centred relationships which include caring, interaction and classroom atmosphere that allows questioning and open-ended questions.

There seems to be consensus that critical pedagogy is directly linked to constructivism in that focus shifts from teacher to learner. Constructivists’ perspectives on learning and teaching are grounded in the research of Piaget, Brunner, Dewey & Vygotsky. The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work (2008: 1) and Kaufmann (2010: 459) attest that Piaget’s constructivism is not a specific pedagogy but has a wide ranging impact on learning theories and teaching methods in education. Both the above mentioned authors also share the view that constructivists believe that learners should be given complex and challenging situations that require the use of high order skills instead of simplified problems that require the use of basic skills. For this reason the teachers require extensive planning time to achieve the above and to create a constructivist classroom and atmosphere.

Educational Broadcasting Corporation (2004: 1), The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work (2008: 1) and Anderson (2013: 1) share the view as above and add that people’s experiences are fundamental in constructing their own knowledge for it is the experiences that affords and encourage reflection. Secondly there is an understanding that the way people view the world is different and unique from others, simply due to different experiences encountered by different people. The presented information is evidence enough to suggest that there is consensus
that critical pedagogy is congruent with constructivism as both concepts emphasise the necessity for learners to construct their own knowledge and to reflect and control their own learning process.

The foregoing is therefore an indication that when Piaget’s constructivist theory is applied in the classroom situation, teaching practices should be varied in order to support learning (Educational Broadcasting Corporation, 2004: 1). This is essentially because just like critical pedagogy, constructivism is not a specific pedagogy but encourages the use of active techniques that involve real-world problem solving and encourage reflection (The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work, 2008: 1). Both critical pedagogy and constructivism point to History teachers in Lesotho high schools to guide the activity and to employ practices that encourage reflection and development of problem solving skills.

In view of the foregoing it is evident that constructivism modifies the role of the teacher so that teachers can guide learners to construct knowledge actively rather than memorising and reproducing knowledge from the textbook (Educational Broadcasting Corporation, 2004: 1 and Culatta, 2018: 1). Considering that Piaget’s theory of constructivism continues to affect what goes on in many classrooms, (Aldridge & Goldman, 2002: 71) suggests that in a History classroom teaching activities should encourage learners to be critical of knowledge and not just memorise factual information.

In the History classroom therefore constructivism encourages the use of inquiry-based activities that should encourage learners to construct knowledge and to develop critical thinking and decision making skills that are necessary in the 21st century (Standler, 2013: 1 and Queensland History Teachers’ Association (QHTA), 2018: 1). The understanding from the presented discussion is that, while the use of the text book is still important in the teaching of History, constructivism suggests that the teacher should facilitate learning and direct and guide learners towards construction of knowledge and not to memorise it.

In order to achieve the above-mentioned aim The Educational Broadcasting Corporation (2004: 1) attests that it is necessary to create collaborative environment that allows learners to learn from their peers. Collaborative environment transforms learner from being treated as passive recipient of information by the teachers as they
become active participants in the learning process. Reflection is an important aspect of constructivism because IBIS (2014: 1); Educational Broadcasting Corporation (2004: 1) and The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work (2008: 1) contend that reflection allows learners to control their own learning process.

The presented information above seems to highly suggest that many authors agree that it is important to address differentiation learning because learners learn in different ways. Teaching in the History classroom should therefore not rely on one style of teaching, but should employ different teaching and learning styles throughout to allow learning to take place. The discussions presented emanate from the fact that CAPF emphasises that teaching and learning should assist learners to be autonomous critical thinkers. Considering that this study is embedded in critical pedagogy, suggests that History teaching should be guided by pedagogy that encourages and allows learners to question knowledge and to be involved in discussions regarding what was learned. This is because according to Culatta (2018: 1) discussing what was learned, offers and provides opportunity for deeper understanding of the subject matter.

The discussion of constructivist theory in this section was important because it is directly linked to critical pedagogy as demonstrated in the preceding paragraphs. For this reason both critical pedagogy and constructivism are relevant to this study because, together they are used as parts of a conceptual framework in the collection of data. Both concepts allow the researcher to have conversations with the participants and to highlight teaching practices that are necessary to implement a transformative History curriculum.

In addition the decision to employ critical pedagogy as the theory that underpins this study was based on literature that, there are different types of approaches to curriculum namely, traditional and progressive. Realising that CAPF has an aspect of a progressive curriculum encouraged the decision for critical pedagogy because of its liberating nature. The study required a theory that supports open-ended practices that do not seem to oppress students. Essentially critical pedagogy employs methods and pedagogy that are transformative in nature and this goes a long way to liberating the students who may be oppressed by use of teacher-centred methods (Hein, 1991: 1). Critical pedagogy therefore created space for the researcher to
answer the research question and to achieve the objective to determine teachers’ perspective of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

2.2.2.2 Principles of critical pedagogy

According to Contestable (2010: 7) critical pedagogy is concerned with defending schools as democratic public spheres and linking education with public life. Literature presented in the previous section highlights that, critical pedagogy fundamentally addresses liberation in education and as such is guided by principles which include dialogue, interactive processes, anti-authoritarian, learner-centred, liberating classroom that is empowering.

2.2.2.2.1 Dialogue

Dialogue is an important aspect of critical pedagogy and Shor and Freire (1987: 97-98) definition is that dialogue is a method for freedom and it is against domination inside or outside the classroom. IBIS (2014: 2) and Author (2015: 1) concur and add that dialogue in a classroom is necessary and central to meaning making. This implies that debate and discussions become some of the important teaching practices in the History classroom to allow learners to make meaning of the content and not to memorise information. Furthermore, the issue of reflection raised in dialogue continues to emphasise the point which was raised in the previous paragraphs that reflective students control their own learning process.

The other important aspect of dialogue is that it is not only verbal but affirms or challenges the relationship between the people communicating and further challenges the existing domination (Sarroub and Quadros, 2015: 252 and Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014: 81-82). Thus dialogue encourages teachers to practice openness with their learners because this gives dialogue a democratic character (Shor and Freire, 1987: 97-98 and The Guardian, 2014: 1). This view suggests that in the History classroom, teachers should create opportunities for discussions and for learners to ask questions. Literature suggests that learners should be placed in small groups to create space for dialogue. This is because dialogue allows learners to consider and respect the viewpoints of other peers and it offers an enabling environment for students to develop communication skills (Shor and Freire, 1987: 97-98) and (Abrahams, 2005: 1).
It can be summarised that critical pedagogy explores the dialogic relationship between teaching and learning and that teaching through conversation is one way to encourage dialogue (Centre for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence, (CREDE) 2017: 1). Secondly dialogue fosters thinking and emphasises that learners should have the ability to exchange ideas. In this way dialogue promotes the development of communication skills. In this way learners are able to share knowledge while the teacher listens and through the use of formative assessment the teacher adjusts responses to advance learning. The foregoing means that both the teacher and learners do participate in discussions and both have a chance to reflect on their answers (Abrahams, 2005: 1).

2.2.2.2 Interactive Processes

Interactive processes are other important principles of critical pedagogy. According to Scholastic (2018: 1); IBIS (2014: 1) and Cochrane et al., (2014: 1) interactive learning is more on real world process and participation within communities than just relaying information in a classroom situation. Through interactive learning learners are expected to participate in conversation by way of technology or through role playing and groups. This view suggests and asserts that interactive processes just like dialogue, emphasise for freedom and negates domination inside or outside the classroom. Interactive processes are important for this study because this principle encourages teaching practices in the History classroom to include among others, the use of technology through emails, whatsapps groups, face book and other social and formal media platforms (Williams, 2012: 1 and Scholastic, 2018: 1). In addition it seems interactive processes include group work as it encourages conversations and discussions and for individuals to be heard as they put forward their point of view.

Interactive learning is further encouraged as a way of teaching because many authors including Lambrechts and Hindson (2006: 6); Scholastic (2018: 1) and Indiana University of Southeast (IUS) (2012: 1) argue that it sharpens critical thinking skills which are fundamental to the development of analytical reasoning. This argument resonates with the definition of History, which indicates that History is a process of investigation which uses particular methods and skills which encourage learners to analyse and interpret sources of information. It is through the above described process that historian and History students are able to offer an explanation
of the past (QHTA, 2018: 1). Consequently the foregoing suggests that the teachers of History in Lesotho high schools should utilise open-ended questions, which according to Scholastic (2018: 1) and Cochrane et al., (2014: 1) bring about imagination and logic into learning and promote decision making skills.

Finally interactive learning encourages learners and teaches them how to collaborate and work in group (Shor and Freire, 1987: 97) and (Scholastic, 2008: 1). This point helps to emphasise the need for and importance of group work in a History classroom. The employment of group work challenges a traditional classroom because the teacher is no longer seen as the only source of information and yet at the same time students begin to develop the necessary skills for the 21st century.

2.2.2.2.3 Anti-authoritarian

The above-mentioned contention leads to another principle that critical pedagogy revolves around an anti-authoritarian approach (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). Anti-authoritarian approach negates one-sided relationships and relates to progressive teachers (The Guardian, 2014: 1 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). For instance according to Shor and Freire (1987: 101) the lecture method in most cases sets the teacher as an authority who transfers knowledge to learners. In such a classroom knowledge is already formed and must be verbally delivered to the learners. As such learners in a traditional classroom are expected to absorb and memorise information. This kind of approach tends to render learners as passive and discourages critical thinking (De Gialdino, 2009: 1 and Scholastic, 2018: 1).

In contrast critical pedagogy, as mentioned above negates one-sided relations and encourages teachers to practice openness and engage learners in learning through dialogue. This is as mentioned in the previous paragraphs that dialogue is an important principle of critical pedagogy (Keesing-Styles, 2003:1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). In the same way it is evident that an anti-authoritarian principle encourages dialogue as a method for freedom and it is against domination inside or outside the classroom as argued by Shor and Freire (1987: 101). The foregoing is an indication that discussion groups become a necessity in a History classroom to avoid the teachers being the only sources of information and
imposing their perspectives on the learners. Hence engaging learners in open-ended questions may encourage students to be active and critical thinkers.

Critical pedagogy is anti-authoritarian, because of its constructivist nature. Under the theory of constructivism teachers encourage cooperation between learners and their peers as well as the learners and the teacher (Hein, 1991: 1). In this study therefore History teachers should plan and prepare their teaching strategies to allow for discussions and collaborative work to encourage learners to share different perspectives when they analyse, interpret and predict information. The above-mentioned activities promote extensive dialogue among learners and support them to extend their understanding (Hein, 1991: 1 and Kim, 2001: 3). Hein (1991: 1) posits that in a constructivist classroom the teacher should create a community of learners in which autonomy rather than obedience is encouraged. This could be achieved through creating opportunities for learners to work in groups as discussed in the previous paragraphs. Fundamentally collaboration creates an opportunity for learners to share their thoughts and feelings and subsequently assists learners to develop critical thinking skills.

2.2.2.2.4 Learner-centred

Another feature of critical pedagogy is that it is learner-centred. Critical pedagogy encourages learner-centred practices and for teachers to become facilitators and to act as models for a democratic process (Daily Struggles, 2016: 1 and The Guardian, 2014: 1). Learner-centred approach is not about one method of teaching but it involves and emphasises a variety of different methods. According to Blumberg (2009: 3); Brown-Jeffy and Cooper, (2011: 77) and Kincheloe et al., (2011: 164) the learner-centred approach negates methods that encourage the teacher to act as the sole provider of information. Instead the learner-centred approach points to the teachers to facilitate learning and the teachers can make use of technology in teaching so that students become active in constructing knowledge (Williams, 2012: 1; Educational Broadcasting Corporation, 2004: 1 and Culatta, 2018: 1). The foregoing seems to directly link the learner-centred approach to interactive processes that were discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

Learner-centred further encourages the inter-relationships between teachers and learners (Blumberg, 2009: 5). In this case the teacher is encouraged to use activities
which enable learners to find information as this encourages learners to directly interact with material. Teachers are also encouraged to allow learners to interact with each other and such interaction should be with those learners with whom they would normally not (Blumberg, 2009: 7). In this way as highlighted by Weimer (2002: 1) the learner-centred methods shift the balance of classroom power from the teacher to learner thus fostering active learning and engagement among peers. This view seems to imply that in the History classroom, there should be interaction and dialogue not only among learners but between all members of the class including, the teacher with learners just like it was highlighted in the previous sub-section.

Furthermore Weimer (2002: 1); Blumberg (2009:1 2); IBIS (2014: 1) and Cochrane et al., (2014: 1) seem to share the same view that in learner-centred the teacher uses inquiry methods as a way of assisting learners to develop critical thinking and learners learn to solve real-world problems. Secondly there is consensus that the learner-centred methods encourage the use of peer and self-assessment because the two offer opportunity for reflection and subsequently enable learners to become autonomous learners. This principle seems to support constructivism (discussed in previous paragraphs) and the assertion that learning is a constructive process.

The mentioned view suggests that the teaching of History in Lesotho high schools should create space for learners to make meaning of knowledge acquired and for this reason as highlighted by Blumberg (2009: 12) the teacher cannot construct knowledge for learners. The teacher should therefore create situations that motivate learners to accept responsibility for their own learning. The motivation becomes important part of learning because Blumberg (2009: 18) and Luter, Mitchell & Taylor (2017: 1) assert that when learners are motivated they become self-directed, lifelong learners and become aware of their own abilities to learn.
2.2.2.2.5 Liberating classroom

Liberating classroom is another principle of critical pedagogy. In a liberating classroom there is dialogue and communication between all members of the class like indicated in the preceding sub-section. In a liberating classroom, the teacher employs democratic communication and negates domination (Shor and Freire, 1987: 99; Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1 and Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82). Consequently as indicated in the previous sections, in a liberating classroom the learning process challenges the unchanging position of the teacher as an authority who transfers knowledge to passive learners. The foregoing is an indication that a liberating classroom is anti-authoritarian because it encourages dialogue as a method for freedom and it is against domination inside or outside the classroom as described in the preceding paragraphs.

The potential outcome of a classroom environment that is liberating is that, learners themselves tend to take responsibility for their own learning as highlighted by literature presented in previous sub-sections. A liberating classroom encourages the development of functional skills which among others include critical thinking growth and as such a liberating classroom environment negates reproduction of knowledge (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Nouri and Saijadi, 2014: 81-82; The Guardian, 2014: 1 and Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). The above-mentioned environment is understood to be
transformative in nature and therefore becomes relevant to a History classroom of Lesotho. The above assertion is based on the notion that CAPF emphasises that pedagogy should encourage students to develop creativity and to assume greater responsibility of their own learning (MoET, 2008: 6). The analysis of the principles of critical pedagogy leads the researcher to the conclusion that critical pedagogy is praxis in nature. This is because just like praxis, critical pedagogy is committed to emancipation of human beings and in praxis learning negates one-sided relationships and encourages interactive approaches.

2.2.2.6 Critical consciousness

Critical consciousness is yet another of the many principles of critical pedagogy. There seems to be consensus that critical consciousness is the state or condition of being conscious about the world and the need to seek to change, and that leads to freedom from oppression (Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia, 2017: 1 and Lyman, 2018: 1). Kaufmann (2010: 459) uses Giroux and McLaren’s work to highlight that throughout the 1990’s schools have been in the service of maintaining the status quo about and learners had to accept that the teacher is the authority. This approach demonstrates features of traditional perspective which are not congruent with a transformative curriculum.

Consequently in a classroom situation teaching that demonstrates imbalances to maintain the status quo of the teachers as authority is regarded as oppressive. This is because such teaching denies the learners the opportunity to think for themselves, but encourages them to simply receive and repeat information that is imparted to them. To liberate learners from this oppression necessitated for dialogue and the development of critical consciousness (Sarroub and Quadros, 2015: 252; Nouri and Sajjidi, 2014: 81-82 and Kaufmann, 2010: 459). When applied in the History classroom situation, critical consciousness becomes practice that goes beyond accumulation of facts to meaning making and empowering learners through dialogue.

Dialogue is fundamental because critical consciousness requires understanding of relation between facts and the reason for their existence, suggesting that in a History classroom learners cannot be treated as passive objects. Classroom practice should allow learners to participate actively, share ideas and voice views, hence dialogical
practice becomes necessary (Sarroub and Quadros, 2015: 252 and Nouri and Sajjidi, 2014: 81-82 and Kaufmann, 2010: 458). Critical consciousness therefore encourages the move away from passive to reflective and autonomous learners. Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia (2017: 1); Lyman (2018: 1) and Kaufmann (2010: 458) regard critical consciousness as essentially awakening because it is learner-centred, it encompasses being aware of power relations and encourages taking initiative for change.

Considering that the goal of critical pedagogy is emancipation from oppression and to raise awareness about oppressive conditions (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1, Nouri and Sajjidi, 2014: 81-82; Daily Struggles, 2016: 1; Lyman (2018: 1) and Kaufmann (2010: 458) seem to suggest that critical pedagogy is important to assist in implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

2.2.2.2.7 Praxis

In this study the last principle to mention is praxis. Praxis is dialogic, reflective and grounded in action (Kaufmann, 2010: 458). In addition, praxis encourages autonomy in the learning process. Critical pedagogy is praxis because it is situated in the life world of the participants and is committed to emancipation of every individual (Yek and Penny, 2006: 7). Consequently this study is structured within critical pedagogy because its nature enables the researcher to establish how effective the teachers are in implementing a transformative History curriculum.

Literature presented in the preceding sub-sections helps emphasise that critical pedagogy is based on the assumption that learners cannot be treated as passive, they have to be actively involved in learning. Therefore, there is consensus by authors that dialogue in the classroom creates opportunities for learners to reveal the knowledge, skills and values they possess. To this effect Centre for Research Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE), (2017: 1); Blumberg (2009: 5) and Hein (1991: 1) share the same view that teachers who employ dialogic teaching allow for collaborative activities and those activities subsequently lead to the development of communication skills and interpersonal skills. This goes a long way in the teaching of a transformative History curriculum as the nature of History as a subject, requires that learners should learn History through a variety of inquiry-based
interpretations (Fru, 2015: 2) and not as just a story through memorisation and recitation of facts.

Furthermore Littlejohn (2013: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) agree that the subjective nature of History requires human interpretation of the past. Considering that the evidence about the past may include artefacts, which are mute, implies that dialogue is necessary to facilitate for discussions in order to allow for human interpretation. In the case of the written accounts, Littlejohn (2013: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) argue that they reflect the point-of-view of the author and this necessitates for dialogue because it allows learners to express their own point of view and perspectives. It is in this regard that History provides opportunities for learners to engage in dialogue or debate and achieve perspective. This helps to emphasise that the teaching of History should help learners develop strong creative and problem solving skills. Hence critical pedagogy underpins this study because it creates space for researcher to answer the objectives and the main question of this study.

The presented principles of critical pedagogy are evidence enough to justify its employment as the conceptual framework that guides this study. Critical pedagogy firstly allows for qualitative data collection methods including interviews. The employment of the interviews suggests that the researcher is not to dominate the proceedings, but to construct knowledge together with the participants (Keesing-Style, 2003: 1; Kincheloe et al., 2011: 164,169 and Breunig, 2009: 248). The interviews should allow the participants to describe the philosophy that guides the teaching of History in their own classrooms. In this way critical pedagogy as the conceptual framework of this study helps to increase freedom in conversations and assists the researcher to make sense of how teachers deal with a transformative curriculum, in terms of the methods they use and how do they organise their classrooms.

Secondly critical pedagogy is progressive and negates one-sided relationships and does not support education where there is only one correct way to teach (The Guardian, 2014: 1). When applied to this study critical pedagogy allows for the mastery of the procedural knowledge and not just content because content on its own can never be objective but the procedures of History can (Fru, 2015: 3).
2.3 Conclusion

This chapter introduced, defined and discussed origins of critical pedagogy as the conceptual framework that underpins this study. It was presented that constructivism is directly linked to critical pedagogy because both consider knowledge as a social construct. This chapter also discussed principles of critical pedagogy and the chapter explained that critical pedagogy was relevant for this study not only to generate data but to allow the researcher to make sense of how teachers deal with transformative curriculum, what method they use and how do they organise their classroom. This is because the study of critical pedagogy gives an insight into the current practices in implementing a transformative History curriculum.

Critical pedagogy serves the purpose of highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the practice in the teaching of History and the foregoing then forms the basis upon which suggestions can be made in order to implement a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW ON A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a literature review on a transformative History curriculum in order to enable the researcher to achieve the main objective, to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The chapter starts by defining curriculum, then goes further to discuss different approaches to curriculum. The discussion is necessary because it enables the researcher to identify and determine curriculum models which are transformative in nature and to highlight the principles of a transformative curriculum. The transition by Lesotho from one model to another in the early 2000's, is another factor that necessitates the discussion of teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum because the change from one model to another has implications on teaching and learning processes. In order to understand perspectives in curriculum development, this chapter starts by defining first, curriculum, then curriculum change, History as a subject and transformative education. The above definitions help to direct and limit the scope of research to teaching and learning of a transformative History curriculum.

3.2 Curriculum

The idea of curriculum is hardly new and Smith, (1996, 2000: 1) suggests that the way it is understood and theorised has altered over the years. As such the term seems to convey different meanings to different people. Considering that curriculum as a concept is without boundaries and that according to Toombs and Tierney (1993: 1) the idea of curriculum has been differentiated across a wide range of meaning, suggests that some of these meanings/definitions will be considered in this study to discuss those perspectives that can affect positively and/or negatively the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The discussion on curriculum is encouraged by Toombs and Tierney (1993: 1) when they argue that curriculum is an instrument in change and so is meaning must be clear.
3.2.1 Definition of curriculum

There are many definitions of curriculum and some definitions provide a limited context while some expound on the concept. It is against this that Ebert, Ebert & Bentley (2013: 1) point out that it is important to recognise that curriculum entails different meanings and not just a simple definition. It is therefore evident that curriculum can be defined from different perspectives and according to Ornstein (1987: 1) curriculum can be defined as subjects to be taught at school. This definition seems to describe curriculum at school level (meso level), because the definition is limited to only the subjects taught. All other aspects of a school life in and outside of the school premises are not addressed.

The Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (2009: 9) views and adopts (Hilda Taba, 1962) curriculum as a plan. The Institute argues that this definition is not narrow in perspective, but adequate enough to elaborate for curricular levels, context and representations. This seems to be addressing curriculum at national level (macro level), for there is contention that it is in the plan that the intended/written curriculum are reflected. On the same note, The Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1) explains that this intended curriculum consists of lessons and learning activities that students participate in, it also entails knowledge and skills taught in school. There is consensus among the authors that the intended curriculum is presented in the official documents namely curriculum framework, which in a way may be referred to as the plan.

In the case of Lesotho the intended curriculum is presented in the CAPF and well stipulates the need for development of critical thinking skills, as well as for students to be reflective and autonomous learners (MoET, 2008: 8). The foregoing makes CAPF an important document because the subjects which are to address the wider context are listed in it. Furthermore the document indicates as to how teaching and learning process should be carried out in order contribute to the attainment of the wider goals (UNESCO, 2017: 1). The researcher regards CAPF as the plan that introduces curriculum at national level and it is at this level that the core objectives and examinations programmes are stipulated. Having gone through the document it is clear of the objectives it aspires to achieve and the philosophy it advocates.
On the other hand Toombs and Tierney (1993: 1) and Zenor (2017: 1) offer a different view when they say curriculum can be defined in terms of approach, namely, traditional or progressive. In addition each approach reflects philosophy and a learning theory at different levels, that of the person, school and at national level. Zenor (2017: 1) and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2017: 1) contend that curriculum is not a textbook because a textbook is a resource to support the curriculum in order to achieve the national objectives. Guided by the foregoing in this study a History text book is not a curriculum, but it is considered as a guiding tool to the content that is supposed to be taught in this subject.

Secondly, in the case of Lesotho, the CAPF clearly highlights the approach and the learning theory that is to direct teaching and learning in Lesotho schools and as indicated in chapter two, the philosophy seems to be progressive in nature. So in line with Toombs and Toombs (1993: 1) and Zenor (2017: 1) in this study, it is clear that CAPF is a plan at macro level and it is at this level that the core objectives and examinations programmes are stipulated. Having gone through the document, CAPF articulates the objectives it aspires to achieve and the philosophy it advocates. Like mentioned in the above paragraph History is one of the subjects that are within CAPF and the implication is that it should be taught to achieve the aspirations of the Lesotho government as highlighted in the curriculum document.

Another definition at meso level is offered by Zenor (2017: 1); Crossman (2008: 1) and The Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1) that curriculum is what the school (meso level) wants the students to learn and what happens in the classroom. In this way curriculum can refer to those lessons in school that may not be part of intended curriculum and refers to such as hidden curriculum. These lessons among others include interactions among all members of the school society.

Consequently, The Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (NICD) (2009: 10) argues that the implementation of the plan at the classroom level (micro level), may have challenges because people operating at different levels, namely macro, meso and micro, may have different interpretations of the official plan. It is in this regard that The NICD (2009: 10) emphasises that, the way the users (teachers) perceive and interpret curriculum, that is how it shall manifest itself in the classroom
situation. Hence it is the aim of this study to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

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<th>Level</th>
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<tr>
<td>SUPRA</td>
<td>International</td>
<td>• Common European Framework of References for Languages</td>
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<tr>
<td>MACRO</td>
<td>System, national</td>
<td>• Core objectives, attainment levels</td>
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<tr>
<td>MICRO</td>
<td>Classroom, teacher</td>
<td>• Teaching plan, instructional materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Module, course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NANO</td>
<td>Pupil, individual</td>
<td>• Personal plan for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Individual course of learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1 Curriculum levels and curriculum products
Adopted from The Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (2009: 9)

The Table is utilised to highlight and summarise the levels of curriculum. It should be understood in the context of Lesotho and emphasis is on the four last curriculum levels and curriculum products.

The definitions presented in this sub-section emphasise that curriculum as a concept can be viewed from different perspectives and the definitions further emphasise that curriculum is a dynamic process. In line with the above statement, Alvior (2015: 1) is of the view that a good curriculum is drawn to meet the needs of a modern and dynamic community; it provides the proper instructional equipment conducive to learning; it includes the student-centred relationships, guidance and counselling program, community projects, library and laboratories. Ebert et al., (2013: 1) on the other hand posits that whereas perceptions of the term may vary, curriculum remains fundamental to the educational process, and so it should be understood that its scope is extremely broad.

When all of the above different definitions are put together it becomes evident that curriculum is what happens in and out of school and the classroom. All the things that the teachers do to engage students and all other relationships make up the curriculum. According to (Farooq, 2013: 1) curriculum seems to mean the totality of
all the learning activities to which learners are exposed to during study. Exposure does not only include classroom activities but also involves among others laboratory, library, playgrounds, and association with parents and community.

In this study the definition of curriculum resonates with both, curriculum as plan and curriculum according to approaches, because the two seem to give a broader scope that allows for this study to achieve its main aim. Some teachers may be guided by traditional philosophy while others may follow progressive philosophy. The philosophy that is held by individual teachers has implications on the classroom environment and the activities that are carried out.

Figure 2: The curricular spider web
Adopted from the Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (2009: 11)

The above figure represents the summary of the broader scope of curriculum discussed extensively in the preceding paragraphs.

At this point it is necessary to present and discuss the approaches to curriculum.
3.2.2 Approaches to Curriculum

The approaches to curriculum form the basis in determining the understanding that teachers have of a transformative curriculum. The approaches further help to establish how change in curriculum as well as implementation is managed. As discussed in the previous sub-section a person’s approach to curriculum reflects the philosophy or beliefs about how curriculum should be created or implemented. There are different approaches and it is important to mention that some approaches could have multiple names as is to be demonstrated in the discussions that follow. Among the most established curriculum approaches, there are: curriculum as product, curriculum as process, humanistic curriculum and curriculum as praxis.

3.2.2.1 Traditional approach/Curriculum as product

In traditional approach curriculum is determined by curriculum developers at the macro level and sets goals and objectives (Smith, 1996, 2000: 1; NICD, 2009: 9 and Ebert et al., 2013: 1). In traditional approach, knowledge is observable, measurable and can be organised and transmitted. Smith (1996, 2000: 1) and Pasha (2012: 1) highlight three underlying assumptions that guide traditional approach. Firstly, there is need for pre-determined goals, secondly, learning is a linear process and thirdly, expert knowledge is important.

To this effect, National Centre for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy (2003: 1) argues that in a classroom situation there is evidence of lesson plans, homework, sequenced text books or work books and grades are the most important way of assessment. Wingra School (2012: 1) and Ebert et al., (2013: 1) also share the view that in traditional approach, school is a preparation for life and learners are passive absorbers of information. Furthermore students do not participate at any level of implementation of education because the teacher is the only source of information and authority. In line with the above, it is evident that there is consensus that traditional approach makes instruction linear and is largely based on correct answer. Pasha (2012: 1) emphasises that when learning is considered to be a linear process, frequently the text book or the teacher provides only narrow content area and learning is an individual process.
It is necessary to mention that the text book is one of the important resources in the process of teaching and learning (Mahadi and Shahrill, 2014: 149; Zenor, 2017: 1 and UNESCO, 2017: 1). However, the problem with this approach is that, it renders students passive and they can end up with little or no voice. The approach also overlooks the learning that occurs as a result of the students’ interactions. It is in this light that many authors including Pasha (2012: 1) and Ebert et al., (2013: 1) agree that emphasising outcomes rather than experiences is very much in keeping with accountability in schools and maintenance of the established systems.

On the same note Educational Research Techniques (2014: 1) alludes that traditional approach is guided by Tyler’s (1949) model of Curriculum as product model. Tyler graduated with a PhD in 1927 and his approach to education research emphasises pre-determined objectives (Smith, 1996, 2000: 1 and Educational Research Techniques, 2014: 1). It is for this reason that some authors including Maheshwari (2015: 1) refer to Product model as Objective model. Literature presented in the previous paragraphs highlights that curriculum as product is often presented in curriculum framework. This leads to the point that curriculum as product cannot be disregarded for it is a plan similar to (Taba 1962) in which the national aspirations are published.

It is imperative to highlight that (Taba’s 1962 model), was a build-up and continuity of (Tyler 1949) Product/Objective model. In this study the official document is the CAPF at macro level as indicated in the previous sub-sections. Another document is the History syllabus which facilitates the implementation of CAPF at classroom level (micro level). However Farooq (2013: 1) and Alvior (2014: 1) attest that teachers who approach curriculum as product tend to direct focus on content and employ practices that encourage transmission of knowledge through memorisation. In addition assessment is objective and based on observable scientific means.

The problem with the above discussed product model as argued by Pasha (2012: 1) is that at higher level, behavioural objectives can be difficult to define. The affective domain being more about attitude, may not be well articulated as part of the objectives. Furthermore product model can discourages creativity and can be restrictive because the idea is to teach for the examinations (Pasha, 2012: 1). To this effect Jorgenson (2006: 1) is of the view that curriculum as product is increasingly
obsolete as a way to prepare and equip learners with the skills that are necessary in the 21st century world.

However UNESCO (2017: 1), NICD (2009: 9) and the Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1) hold a different view, that despite the above discussions, curriculum as product still holds some important place in education. This is fundamentally because it is a plan/written/intended curriculum at macro level and it represents the vision of the society. Hence there is consensus that the written curriculum should be expressed in documents such as the curriculum framework, syllabuses, teachers’ guides and assessment guides. This is because all the above-mentioned documents play an important role in ensuring quality of education.

In the case of Lesotho the CAPF is aligned to transformative education as is driven by the principles of justice and participatory democracy that are contained in the Lesotho Vision 2020. However, to some extent the reality is that there are still some aspects of traditional approach in teaching and learning process. Traditional approach as highlighted in the previous paragraphs, seems not to support and encourage transformative curriculum.

In summation of this part it can be mentioned that curriculum as product views teaching as transmission and Johnson (2015: 1) argues that from this perspective teaching is based on teacher-centred activities and it becomes the act of transmitting knowledge to students.

Against this backdrop it seems traditional approach to curriculum might not support a transformative curriculum.
3.2.2.2 Progressive approach/Curriculum as process

Progressive approach is another way of looking at curriculum. The proponents of progressive education are John Dewey and Rousseau. Of the two Dewey (1849 –
is regarded as the Founding Father of progressive education theory for He advocated that education must prepare students to participate in a democratic global society (The Children’s School, 2017: 1).

Nager and Shapiro (2007: 1) and The Children’s School (2017: 1) share the view that the main focus of progressive education is to raise critical thinkers rather than passive students. According to Cothran (2016: 1) and The Children’s School (2107: 1) critical thinking enables individuals to understand and participate in the affairs of the community. The importance of critical thinking and participation in community is based on assumption that knowledge is dynamic and not static as highlighted by Slideshare (2012: 1) and Kennedy (2017: 1). It is the above described nature of knowledge that makes it necessary that students should be allowed to learn freely in an enabling environment.

To provide for an enabling environment for critical thinking, teachers should become facilitators and support curiosity and internal motivation. Such an environment is clearly progressive and student-centred in nature. Cothran (2016: 1) and Barnes (2013: 1) assert that a student-centred classroom encourages respect for diversity, employs project-based learning and practices that promote collaborative effort and dialogue. The above-mentioned described environment promotes critical thinking and problem solving skills and encourages creativity as well as the ability to take responsibility for own learning (The Children’s School, 2017: 1; Barnes, 2013:1 and Smith, 1996, 2000: 1).

There is also a view that Laurence Stenhouse (1975) was pivotal in the development of progressive approach. According to Smith (1996, 2000: 1) and Wingra School (2012: 1) Stenhouse model of curriculum as process is regarded as one of the best known process model of curriculum theory and practice. Smith (1996, 2000: 1), Wingra School (2012: 1) and Slideshare (2012: 1) highlight that progressive methods include inquiry, filed work, use of tools like computer, discussion, group work, research, drama and debate. These methods are essential because they encourage interaction and allow learners to be active members of the class. In this way the teacher facilitates learning and does not become the sole provider of information (Smith, 1996, 2000: 1). Through the discussions there seems to be evidence that many authors agree that progressive approach is fundamentally embedded in student centred methods.
Considering that (MoET, 2008: 6) encourages a shift to student-centred approaches implies that CAPF is guided by progressive approach. Secondly progressive approach resonates with CAPF in that the latter encourages teaching to promote autonomous and critical thinkers (MoET, 2008: 6 and 10). The foregoing makes progressive approach different from traditional approach on student-centred methods which among others include, inquiry and project-based learning. These methods focus on students' direct participation in learning and so the role of the teacher shift from sole provider of knowledge to that of facilitator who fosters thinking (Wingra School, 2012: 1 and Pasha, 2012: 1). In line with the foregoing it seems progressive approach negates teacher-centred methods and there is agreement among writers that it resists conformity.

As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, the process model is normally associated with Stenhouse (1975), one of the leading figures in the curriculum development in the 1960’s and 70’s. Rudduck (1995: 1) points that Stenhouse was born in Scotland and completed his M.Ed. in 1956 and his secondary education had shaped him in a way that emancipated him. It is mentioned that he had attended a privileged school where knowledge was a right and that influenced his ideas which were based on the right of the student to knowledge. On the other hand (Rudduck, 1995: 2 and Smith, 1996, 2000: 1) highlight that although Stenhouse was a critic of objective model he however, to a limited extent regarded the objective model as appropriate for some of learning activities.

James (2012: 2) and Pasha (2012: 1) share the same view as above and add that Stenhouse rejected the idea of the objective model that portrait the teacher as authority, expert and the sole source of information. The process model advocated for learners’ participation in real world roles learning and so resonates with constructivism in that knowledge is a social construct and may not be passively received (Johnson, 2015: 1). As such, the learning goals require activities that are usually of problem solving nature and according to James (2012: 1) in order to achieve the above-mentioned aim, education reform process should be an on-going process and curriculum should undergo constant change. The key factor as articulated by Smith (1996, 2000: 1) is that process model encourages critical thinking rather than uncritical acceptance of information.
While the aim of traditional approach seems to encourage memorisation and reproduction of information, progressive approach on the other hand seeks to emphasis respect for diversity (Cothran, 2016: 1). Both Rudduck (1988: 31) and Cothran (2016: 1) contend that schools should not be allowed to maintain the status quo at the expense of critical thinking, ability to question knowledge and the means to discover knowledge by students themselves. It is in this regard that Rudduck (1988: 30) and (Alsaleh, 2012: 1) highlight that the goal of the work of Stenhouse is to liberate young people from oppressive classroom conditions.

Unlike the product model the teacher employs different methods to assist individuals to get to their destinations. Consequently Smith (1996, 2000: 1) and Johnson (2015: 1) mention that teachers are not expected to transmit knowledge to learners, but they are expected to facilitate experiences which enable learners to create meaningful knowledge and promote the development of critical thinking skills. This becomes necessary because essentially as argued by Johnson (2015: 1) from a constructivist perspective academic achievement translates into students’ ability to apply knowledge in different situations to solve real-world problems.

Considering that progressives see the purpose of school as that which is to prepare students for realities of the modern life, goes a long way to making CAPF relevant because it advocates for pedagogy to encourage development of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes rather than just acquisition of knowledge (MOET, 2008: 6). It is also evident that CAPF is aligned to progressive approach because the framework emphasises a move from traditional subjects to integrated knowledge and from didactic teaching to interactive methodologies (MOET, 2008: 6). However the challenge remains in that most times the process is regarded as complete when learners demonstrate only certain skills (Smith, 1996, 2000: 1). In a classroom situation liberal conditions can be achieved through student-centred approach and learner-centred approach emphasises low learner-teacher ratios (The Children’s School, 2017: 1).

3.2.2.3 Humanistic approach

Humanistic approach is about both knowledge and feeling in the learning process because Vardal, Cakli & Duman (2010: 1) and (Al-Khalidi, 2015: 170) are of the view that this theory of teaching is rooted in human nature. This humanistic theory
suggests that human beings have needs that are different from animals’ instinct and that these needs include psychological needs, safety needs, belonging needs and self actualisation needs (Al-Khalidi, 2015: 171). The contributors of the idea of basic need are Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers and Malcolm Knowles (Weaver, 2008: 21). A humanistic approach to educational development is therefore based on the foundations of an integrated approach to knowledge, learning and development. making it the holistic approach to education (Trenducation, 2016:1). The purpose of humanistic approach is to support the learner as a ‘whole person’ socially, physically and academically (Vardal et al., 2010: 1 and Weaver, 2008: 21).

In humanistic approach the teacher supports learners’ inner curiosity and fosters motivation (Children’s School, 2017: 1). Inner motivation enables students to learn better because, as the phrase mentions, motivation is inwardly driven. The fact that humanism relies on intrinsic motivation separates it from traditional approach because the latter relies on extrinsic motivation. Weaver (2008: 21), Vardal et al., (2010: 1), Trenducation (2016: 1) and (Al-Khalidi, 2015: 171) posit that motivation is crucial in learning because, if children feel good about themselves then that is considered to be a positive start. As important is the need for learners to understand ways and context in which the knowledge can be applied because according to Hein (1991: 1) this can act as motivation for learning.

Some core principles in humanistic approach include respect for life and human dignity, equal rights and social justice, respect for cultural diversity. These principles resonate with progressive approach in that individuals should be recognised for their own abilities and cultural identity (Cothran, 2016: 1). Humanistic approach, just like progressive approach emphasises a sense of shared responsibility and a commitment to international solidarity to help produce learners who are able to direct their own learning (Vardal et al 2010: 1 and Trenducation (2016: 1).

Humanistic approach is also an important approach in teaching and learning because Weaver (2008: 21), Vardal et al., (2010: 1) and (Al-Khalidi, 2015: 171) posit that a supportive and non threatening classroom environment is essential for learning. These principles are core in a humanistic approach because, the fundamental purpose of education is to sustain and enhance the dignity and promote welfare of all human beings (Cothran, 2016: 1). Furthermore, humanistic approach is known to be learner-centred in nature, and Vardal et al., (2010: 1) and Broome
(2014: 5) contend that it is typified by responsible learners and autonomous learning. If learners have to take responsibility for their learning it means they have to be active participants in learning. This helps bring the evidence that humanistic approach is congruent with constructivist learning theories in that they both encourage learners to construct knowledge through interactions with others and through direct experience. The approach points to the teacher to be a facilitator and not dispenser of knowledge to passive learners.

It is for the reasons given above that Al-Khalidi (2015: 172) and Broome (2014: 1) allude that, the humanistic oriented teachers employ methods that allow for learners to participate in learning and to discover knowledge in an effort to develop child’s self esteem. Guided by literature presented in this section it is evident that the success of humanistic approach is directly attached to the ability of the teacher to create an environment that supports creative thinking, encourages dialogue and in which all learners feel safe to participate. It is in such environments that learners are expected to demonstrate respect for diversity and development of critical and other social skills.

Another important aspect of humanistic approach is that, just like the progressive approach, it requires low teacher/learner ratio because according to Weaver (2008: 21) and Broome (2014: 1), the most important person is the learner and not the teacher. The practices that support humanistic approach among others include peer and self-assessment because these two practices encourage learner to reflect on what they have learned. The other practices include cooperative learning, independent learning, and putting learner in small or large groups to promote cooperation (Vardal et al., (2010: 1). Humanistic approach utilises assessment not only to measure performance but to diagnose the difficulties faced by the learner and try to find meaningful solutions (Al-Khalidi, 2015: 172). The nature of assessment in humanistic approach is congruent with formative assessment that the teacher uses to improve the instruction process.
3.2.2.4 Curriculum as praxis/Critical approach

Curriculum as praxis is another way to approach curriculum. (Borrowing from Grundy 1987) Yek and Penny (2006: 7) posit that curriculum as praxis is derived from the orientation towards human well being and as such praxis is committed to emancipation of every individual. In praxis learning negates one-sided relationships and encourages an interactive approach (see 2.2.2.2.7). Praxis may be considered critical approach because in praxis just like in critical approach, the teachers lead the class while at the same time they learn together with learners (National Centre for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy, 2003: 1). The other point is that in both praxis and critical approach, knowledge is not fixed but instead is dependent upon interactions. In this way knowledge is created rather than taken in like it is the practice with traditional approach.

Guided by the foregoing it seems the Lesotho CAPF aligns with curriculum as praxis because the framework calls for pedagogy to shift towards interactive methodologies. Consequently praxis moves the teaching and learning process to
critical pedagogy. It is for this reason that this study employs critical pedagogy as conceptual framework because it allows the researcher to establish how well teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

Critical pedagogy is dialogic (see 2.2.2.2.1) and encourages both the teacher and learner to think and reflect critically. In working together both the teacher and learner come to understand the role each is to play in the teaching and learning process (Yek and Penny, 2006: 7). The teachers lead the class and remain the authority and act as a model of democratic process (The Guardian, 2017: 1) while at the same time they follow the lead of the learners (New York University, 2017: 1).

Drawing from Freire Institute (2017: 1) dialogue is one of the most important principles of critical pedagogy that enables people to gain knowledge. However in order for dialogue to be transformative there is the need for people to critically reflect upon their reality in order to transform it through further interaction. It is in the manner discussed in the previous paragraphs that in praxis knowledge is not fixed, but it is depended upon interactions among learner, text and the teacher (Yek and Penny, 2006: 7). In this way praxis just like social constructivism and progressive approach, allows knowledge to be created rather than being transmitted (see 2.2.2.1).

In view of the above presented arguments, it is evident that praxis is a development and combination of a number of approaches, mainly the progressive and humanistic approaches. Just like progressive and humanistic approaches, praxis relies on conversations and encourages dynamic interactions of action and reflection. Freire Institute (2017: 1) reiterates that dialogue in a classroom situation points to some kind of equality in the learning process among learners and between teacher and learners. Such an environment creates space for change and new knowledge to be created because critical pedagogy encourages the teacher to address the issues of power in teaching and learning (Sarroub and Quadros, 2015: 252).

Similar to humanistic approach, praxis emphasises trust among members, mutual respect, love, care and commitment. Consequently the National Centre for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy (2003: 1) and Quilan (2012: 1) posit that for humanistic environment to occur, the teacher should firstly, assists learners to
address issues related to real life situations. Secondly the teacher should encourage dialogue, and employ methods that support inquiry. It is in line with the above that many writers including Quilan (2012: 1) and Sarroub and Quadros (2015: 252) agree that in praxis, curriculum and objectives are not set in advance like it is done in traditional approach/objective model. The purpose for not relying on pre-determined objectives is to allow for emerging issues from actions and interactions of the learners and the teacher as well. Hence praxis situates learning as a conversation between learner and teacher (see 2.2.2.2.1) (Quilan, 2012: 1).

In view of the above perspectives, praxis is comparable to humanistic approach in that in both focus is on a holistic development of learners and both are also commitment to human well being. To achieve respect for diversity and to develop a holistic learner Smith (1996, 2000: 1) and Yek and Penny (2006:1) argue that every action in the classroom situation should be based on an informed decision to encourage learning. Considering that praxis takes place in the real world, in their study Luter et al., (2017: 1) encourage schools to incorporate community based learning. The abovementioned authors further argue that in most cases when school reform strategies are not directly connected to learners' neighbourhood they tend to fail.

It is for the above given reason that Luter et al., (2017: 1) consider neighbourhoods as not just passive sites but the context that effect educational outcomes. It was discussed in the previous sub-section that praxis aligns with humanistic approach and a key element in humanistic approach is motivation. Similarly in praxis motivation plays an important role in learning. Hence Luter et al., (2017: 2) attest that in order to enhance motivation learning experiences should be connected to their neighbourhood so that learners may see relevance and relationship between schooling.

Another key aspect is that in praxis assessment just like in humanistic approach is based on self-assessment instruments and portfolios and is continuous. It is for this reason that many authors including Quilan (2012: 1); Sarroub and Quadros (2015: 252) and Freire Institute (2017: 1) posit that teachers who are committed to liberation should not only consider their own reflection but the action and reflection of others in order to be able to move forward.
Against this background it seems the change in the Lesotho CAPF was necessary because as mentioned in the previous sections a good curriculum is continuously evolving. As such the CAPF becomes a relevant tool to be utilised to foster development of critical thinking, decision making abilities and to encourage learners to get involved in social issues so that they can take necessary action. It is important to note that curriculum changes are effected at the national level. However implementation that necessitates for learners to acquire the intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes, takes place in the classroom (UNESCO, 2017: 1). The foregoing seems to suggest that implementation cannot take place without the learner. It is in line with the forgoing that praxis places the learner at the centre of curriculum development.

Guided by all discussions in this section it seems Lesotho can achieve its objectives through critical pedagogy because this theory offers a range of teaching approaches which tend to liberate learners from oppressive classroom conditions (New York University, 2017: 1). In addition, critical pedagogy which is directly linked to praxis, views teaching as transformative and this is the level envisaged by the CAPF. MOET (2008: 6) emphasises that pedagogy must shift from memorisation to participatory, learner-centred and interactive methodology. Some of the core competencies identified by CAPF include problem solving, technological and creative skills, collaboration and learning how to learn (MoET, 2008: 5) all which can be achieved through praxis. It is imperative to mention that the philosophy of the CAPF is guided by the principles of justice, participatory democracy, equality and mutual co-existence (MoET, 2006: 3-4) all of which are aspects of a transformative education.

Guided by the discussions presented, it seems teaching in Lesotho schools should create conditions that support the holistic development (cognitive, emotional, social, creative and spiritual) of individual learners. Other factors include the awareness (consciousness) of self, others and environment as highlighted by Johnson (2015: 1). In order to achieve the development of a holistic person, proponents of transformative teaching attest that transformative learning invites both learners and teachers to act as learners and active members of the class and society at large (Freire Institute 2017: 1). Consequently Contestable (2010: 8) posits that at the heart of praxis is critical reflection which presents the possibilities and opportunity to
question the power imbalances that exist in different social, political and economic structures.

The discussions presented on the concept of curriculum allowed the researcher to make distinction between curriculum perspectives, traditional, progressive, humanistic and praxis. Although there are clear differences it is evident that all of them are relevant in the education system and in practice. However for the requirements of this study the researcher identified those approaches that support transformative curriculum, which according to the researcher’s conceptualisations include progressive, humanistic and praxis. Fundamentally the three above-mentioned approaches are learner-centred and demonstrate that learning is a means towards self actualisation as discussed by literature.

The next section introduces and discusses curriculum change. This is because Curriculum Policy in Lesotho as mentioned in the previous section has changed from one curriculum approach to the other and this has implications on the classroom practice. The discussion of curriculum change is also necessary because it allows the researcher to identify those aspects that are of importance for the implementation of changes that are effected in a curriculum. It is this knowledge that is necessary to establish how well teachers of History in Lesotho schools are implementing a transformative History curriculum.

3.3 Curriculum change

This section introduces curriculum change and this necessitates the definition of the concept itself. The inclusion of curriculum change in this study is important firstly because it helps to understand those reasons that encourage countries to change their curricula and to explain how curriculum change should be managed. This understanding goes a long way in assisting one to make sense of why the curriculum was changed in Lesotho and also determine if the change was managed effectively.

Secondly NICD (2009: 12) attests that when changes are made in curricula more focus is at macro level that concerns the national objectives than the actual classroom implementation that deals with pedagogy. NICD (2009: 12) emphasises that it is at classroom level that decisions regarding pedagogy are crucial for sustainable implementation of changes. It is in this light that this section helps to
establish how effective History teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

### 3.3.1 Curriculum change (Definition)

As mentioned in the preceding section, it seems curriculum can be defined from many different perspectives. One definition is offered by Reigeluth and Garfinkle (1994: v) that curriculum change means the shift in pedagogy. The shift in pedagogy is normally influenced by innovations that are forever evolving in the global world. These innovations presents challenges to society and it seems all countries of the world look to education system to address their needs. It is in this regard that countries effect changes in curriculum and pedagogy also changes to meet the requirement of the curriculum and society. UNESCO (2015: 1) offers another meaning to curriculum change and points out that curriculum change is viewed as deliberate actions to improve a learning environment. In the same light curriculum change occurs depending on the definition that is attached to the curriculum as a concept.

The meaning attached to curriculum influences the model of curriculum and for classroom implementation this has implication on teaching and learning. Considering that curriculum is dynamic as highlighted in the previous sections, implies that at one point or another there can be changes that are effected on the existing curriculum. This is because Reigeluth and Garfinkle (1994: v) and NICD (2009: 12) argue that change in curriculum is necessary because of the opportunities presented by information communications technology (ICT) and the emergence of interdependent economies. Both above mentioned factors imply that the learning environment is influential than can be imagined. It seems the proponents of change in education appear to agree that transformative education which is progressive in nature can address the challenges that societies face in the 21st century.

It is worth mentioning that literature highlights that educational practices in the 20th century were influenced by a number of different theories of development. Similarly in the 21st century a shift is still evident and it is affecting theories of child development and education. According to Aldridge and Goldman (2002: 69) some of the historical and current theories that have influenced education include Skinner’s (1974) behaviourist approach, Piaget’s (1952) constructivist theory. Although critical
theory is more of a social or political theory than a developmental one, it is applicable in education and this study because it is modified as critical pedagogy to meet the requirements of curriculum and the objectives of this study.

The presented discussions point to the consensus between Tupeni (1980: 1) and Reigeluth and Garfinkle (1994: 7) that curriculum change is systemic change which is often regarded as paradigm shift. Tupeni (1980: 1), Reigeluth and Garfinkle (1994: 7) and Sahlberg (2009: 1) agree that curriculum change means adopting a new curriculum and this involves fundamental changes in beliefs, understanding, skills, behaviours and other aspects that support the instructional system in order for it to be successful. It seems Educational Journal (2015: 1) is also of the same understanding with other writers mentioned in the previous paragraph, when it mentions that curriculum change is giving it a new direction. Both the Educational Journal (2015: 1) and UNESCO (2015: 1) share the view that curriculum change is a dynamic and challenging process and requires all stakeholders to have capacity to adopt a shared vision.

From the definitions provided it seems there is consensus on the meaning of curriculum change. Therefore this study adopts all definitions provided by literature presented. In this study curriculum change includes restructuring the curriculum according to the needs of the society. Critical to this is change in pedagogy, capacity building and availability of resources as well as material necessary for implementation of change.

The understanding of curriculum change is relevant to this study because Lesotho changed/or revised its curriculum in 2008 aligning itself to Vision 2020 and the revised curriculum was then implementation started in 2013. That change could be viewed as seeking for teaching to become learner-centred, encouraging self-directed learning, empowering students with critical skills, values and social attitudes as well as a self emancipation tool from the threat of poverty (MoET, 2008: 4) all of which are aspects of a transformative curriculum. The change in the Lesotho curriculum framework is an attempt to end the uncoordinated curriculum activities that are no longer responsive to the aspirations of Basotho people (MoET, 2008: 2 & 6).

The discussions necessitate the understanding of those factors that influence Nations, States and Communities to change their curricula.
3.3.2 Factors that influence curriculum change

Literature presented in the preceding sub-section highlights that changes that occur in our societies render curriculum to become a dynamic process. Considering that a good curriculum is expected to meet the needs of a community it serves implies that curriculum must entail and contain the educational activities that enable it to meet the demands of the community it serves (Crossman 2008: 1). Many writers including NICD (2009: 12) agree that the factors that influence curriculum are outside of the school and can be identified as the changes and/or developments which happen around the world. As mentioned above, the changes and developments in the world have implications on curricula hence curricula need to adapt educational activities that help to address the needs of a society it serves. Such influences include localisation, political, economic, social, knowledge, technology and environmental factors.

3.3.2.1 Localisation

Like many other concepts localisation has many definitions from different policy makers. This section explores the definitions of the concept because localisation has a direct impact on the classroom practice. In addition it appears in recent years many countries of the world seem to have been actually taking steps to localisation of their curricula. Mouraz and Leite (2013: 2) view curriculum localisation as a step in the right direction to linking classroom teaching and learning to the learners’ realities. These realities can be achieved only if content and activities that promote learning are understood and well organised for classroom implementation.

On the other hand, Cheng (2003: 3) emphasises that localisation is about relevance to the context and the society that is served by respective educational system. Bringas (2014: 1) shares the same view that, localisation gives school or local education authorities the freedom to adapt a curriculum to its own local conditions. Since adaptation focuses on local context, there is expectation for the school or education authorities to maximise the use of content and available materials in the processes of teaching and learning. This kind of approach facilitates for social relevance and integration with current problems of society (Kapoma and Namusokwe, 2011: 1). These problems among others may include HIV/AIDS, effects of global warming and land degradation. Some of the above mentioned problems are
international in nature but, they continue to be relevant to local societies because The Schools Project (2016: 1) argues that although localisation is used by most of the developing nations to preserve their cultures, at the same time there is necessity and relevance to integrate with the global economy.

According to The Schools Project (2016: 1) and Bringas (2014: 1) the purpose of localisation is to encourage reflection and encourage learners to see relevance between learning and real-life situations. Literature presented indicates that it is when learners see relevance that they are motivated to learn. The other purpose is to encourage critical thinking and for learners to come to have knowledge of how to address such challenges and or prevent them. The development of critical thinking directly impacts on the awareness and critical consciousness for it is this awareness that encourages learners to take active role in addressing the challenges in the society they live in (The Schools Project, 2016: 1 and Bringas, 2014: 1).

It is in line with the foregoing that Mouraz and Leite (2003: 2) contend that such educational activities which include real-life situations facilitate and emphasise the relationship between theory and practice. Considering that in localisation curriculum content is the subject matter that is taught by teachers, Kapoma and Namusokwe (2011: 1) posit that curriculum content becomes relevant when it is delivered by qualified human resource persons and there should be available resources for teaching and learning. The foregoing may be an indication that in Lesotho’s case, History should be taught by those teachers who are qualified to teach and MoET should avail relevant resources for implementation of CAPF.

Even though many authors equate localisation with content, in this study localising is not only relevance of curriculum content. Localisation of curriculum includes the activities and teaching practices that are directly linked to their context and availability of relevant resources to assist learners to address local context. Relevant resources include the use of local materials and integrating the local culture in the curriculum (Kapoma and Namusokwe, 2011: 1 and Cheng, 2003: 3). Essentially localisation makes use of project-based learning Watanabe-Crockett (2017: 1) and so the teaching of History in Lesotho high schools should incorporate aspects of Basotho culture into the curriculum for conscientisation and to achieve relevance.
Considering that the localised curriculum is based on local needs and relevance for learners indicates that there is space for its flexibility and creativity in lessons as pointed out by (Bringas, 2014: 1). Creativity in lessons is crucial because The Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1).argues that the process of localisation itself is an attempt to meet the direct needs of the society it serves. This means that in the case of Lesotho, History teachers are encouraged to make use of the resources that are locally available in and around the schools but at the same time they should accommodate and respect diversity.

The process described above is fundamental because for any country to embark on the revision of its curriculum and the process of localisation is an attempt to meet the direct needs of the society it serves (The Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1). In the case of Lesotho MoET localised its curriculum to make it accessible and relevant for Basotho Nation and to address the emerging issues and challenges of the modern global world (MoET, 2008: 2).

The following sub-section discusses the other factor that influences curriculum change.

3.3.2.2 Political and economic influences

Educational sectors and educational activities including hiring personnel, building and maintaining equipment as pointed out by Ashraf (2014: 1), in many countries of the world are funded by governments. The above mentioned responsibility taken by the governments of the world, in itself points to the direct influence that governments have on curriculum development. The above statement clearly demonstrates that all aspects of curriculum at macro level, meso and micro level have to be in line with the national political standards. It is in this context that the politics affect curriculum development and in the case of Lesotho CAPF which is produced at macro level defines goals, decides on and approves curricular materials and also designs the examination systems.

To this effect and (Borrowing from Giroux, 1993) Aldridge and Goldman (2002: 1) posit that politics are there to advance and support the interests of those in power. The foregoing seems to imply that those in power can either restrict knowledge or advance it in the manner determined by them. This assertion points to the past era (19th and 20th centuries) when curriculum was used as a tool to serve the needs of
industrialists and as such curriculum was inclined more to traditional approaches in order to produce effective workers in the service industry and professional field. According to Aldridge and Goldman (2002: 3-4) curriculum can also be utilised to serve a holistic approach to the development of human beings and for purposes of democratic understanding. In order to develop students holistically there was need for curriculum that encourages high order skills. The political needs therefore influenced curriculum developers to have alternative ways of looking at education besides the traditional conservative ways.

In Lesotho the CAPF represents an education reform from subject based to integrated curriculum because in this Framework, curriculum is organised into five learning areas, namely, Linguistic and Literature, Numerical and Mathematics, Personal, Spiritual and Social, Scientific and Technological Creativity and Entrepreneurial. According to (MoET, 2008: 17) the changes in curriculum were effected to address the needs of Basotho people and to align education with employment opportunities. In this way education and CAPF in particular, was utilised as a tool to solve the problem of unemployment and to eradicate poverty (MoET, 2008: 2).

The framework therefore allows for the development of basic skills needed in agricultural production, and animal husbandry. The foregoing suggests that attention should be given to problem solving skills and the practical application of knowledge to help living conditions of individuals. The changes in the curriculum seem to support the national educational aim of Lesotho that education should go beyond acquisition of knowledge to developing skills related to all the five above-mentioned learning area. This is to enable learners to become able citizens in the society while still in the learning process (MoET, 2008: 18).

Politically therefore the current features in Lesotho CAPF reflect issues adopted in the Millennium Declaration in 2000. The Declaration among others calls for education particularly curriculum to strive for peace and freedom for all, democracy and human rights (MoET, 2008: 18). Another point that is raised is that of the curriculum to support a strong national economic base and to this MoET (2008: 6) stipulates that education should be utilised to encourage and equip learners with functional skills which among others include entrepreneurial skills as these will enable learners to participate in national, regional and international levels.
It is worth mentioning that the Lesotho General Certificate of Secondary Education (LGCSE) developed over a period of years in three to four main stages. Localisation was important so that Lesotho could then move on to change its curriculum and assessment strategies to suit Lesotho’s political and socio-economic environment (Examinations Council of Lesotho) (ECoL). It is in this light that the MoET has developed the CAPF which its main aim is to guide the transformation of teaching and learning as well as assessment at primary and secondary level (MoET, 2008: 2) and envisages that pedagogy shifts from memorisation to analysis, evaluation and application of knowledge.

There are also social factors that contribute to curriculum change.

3.3.2.3 Social influences

Johnson (2001: 1) reiterates that the society served by an educational community dictates the needs of the educational programme. Yasmin, Rafiq & Ashraf (2013: 1) concur and add that as the state policies change they have an influence on the educational policies and schemes that they undertake. What to teach is critical in curriculum development, however it is not always easy to determine what goes in the plan as the interests are diverse as society itself. There are consideration from different groups of people including the youth, the parents, religious groups and the teachers themselves. Ashraf (2014: 1.) reiterates and encourages curriculum designers to take into account the above-mentioned societal considerations.

However NICD (2009: 14) and Ashraf (2014: 1.) highlight that while giving consideration to the abovementioned societal needs, it is crucial to promote equality and accommodate different traditional groups. Both NICD (2009: 14) and Ashraf (2014: 1) warn that this can become a daunting task in more complex societies because of a large diverse group of people. On the same issue NICD (2009: 14) posits that it is crucial to prioritise in order to avoid overloading of the curriculum and points to three main sources for selection namely; knowledge, social preparation and personal development. All the above-mentioned three sources point back to Tyler's approach to curriculum (NICD, 2009: 14). In addition there should be both horizontal and vertical coherence between subjects for which horizontal refers to the spider web (figure 1) and vertical refers to content across one or more school years.
The above procedure to determine social aspects that should form part of the curriculum is important because Johnson (2001: 1) contend that traditionally the purpose of curriculum is to offer the information which should be taught with the aim of standardising the behaviour of the society. Therefore, borrowing from (Borrowman 1989; Glatthorn 1987 and Tanner and Tanner 1995) Johnson (2001: 1) highlights that some ethnic groups developed beliefs and behaviour to foster transmission of specific skills as a way of sustaining the convictions of that culture. Hence sometimes the inclusion and promotion of gender education in the curriculum may not be acceptable to such groups and this may result in resistance and division of the society. Like mentioned in the preceding paragraphs curriculum change can be a daunting task and requires to be addressed carefully to maintain equality and to support social justice (Nager and Shapiro, 2007: 10).

Despite the challenges in as to what to include as social factors, the 21st century is presenting more rapid challenges which according to Aldridge and Goldman (2002: 67) have necessitated theoretical shift in the peoples' understanding of children. The nature of children in the previous century and last decade were more passive and traditional education was considered relevant (Hein, 1991: 1). However Aldridge and Goldman (2002: 67) attest that in the 21st century people are more interactive social being and require educational practices that create opportunity for interaction. Considering the effects of globalisation there is need for understanding and acceptance of other societies and the school is the starting point to raise this kind of awareness (The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 2012: 1 and Mulford, 2003: 4).

Under such conditions as mentioned above learning then becomes a social activity guided by principles of constructivism presented in chapter two (see 2.2.2.1). The foregoing seems to support progressive education which is embedded in conversation, dialogue, interaction with others and the application rather than just acquisition of knowledge (Hein, 1991: 1). Indeed Nager and Shapiro (2007: 10) concur and add that fundamentally education must promote participatory democracy. It is under the above discussed conditions that social factors influence curriculum change and enormous responsibility and focus turns to the role that the leaders should play in teaching and learning process (Mulford, 2003: 5).
Against this background it becomes evident that curriculum change in Lesotho was also influenced by the Vision 2020 statement that “by the year 2020 Lesotho shall be a stable democracy” (UNESCO, 2011: 1). As mentioned earlier in this section since 2005 there has been progression by MoET to align curriculum with the needs of the society and demands of the 21st century. Consequently the CAPF incorporates cultural values that are compatible with individuals and social development. CAPF further emphasises that effective participation in society requires knowledge and understanding of the civil and human rights, gender equity and equality (MoET, 2008: 9). The implications are that a History classroom should reflect democratic principles and human rights that are envisaged by the Framework. For teachers therefore education would mean reconceptualisation of the role pedagogy plays as highlighted by Rudduck (1988: 31).

It is important to understand that shift in CAPF does not negate the need for content but recasts it as a means rather than an end. If learners are to be prepared to cope with new and changing conditions they must learn how to think, communicate, organise, interact, make decisions and solve problems. It is for this reason that this study employs critical pedagogy to first establish teachers’ understanding of a transformative curriculum and secondly how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum (see 1.5).

3.3.2.4 Technology advances.

The other factor that influences curriculum change is the rapid advancement in technology and information systems (ICT) and in this regard NICD (2009: 12) and Trenducation, 2016: 1) share the opinion that the advancement in information communications technology has weakened the monopoly of textbooks. Learning can now take place in and out of classroom and school premises because of the advancement in technology. NICD (2009: 12) and Trenducation, 2016: 1) agree that these advancements in technology necessitate for teaching and learning to be approached in a manner that addresses the above mentioned challenges.

Guided by the foregoing, it appears the shift in pedagogy is much due to the ready availability of information and this seems to negate teacher-centred approaches. The new technology offers new opportunities in terms of effective searching of information and help to promote self-directed learning (Ashraf, 2014: 1). The above
mentioned context according to Mulford (2003: 1) puts pressure on national and international agendas to clearly define the role of education in helping addressing these challenges and stipulating the measures taken in supporting existing institutions in effective management of the challenges (OECD, 2012: 1).

Having analysed the CAPF, it is evident that the Lesotho Education is influenced by advances in technology. The CAPF among its aims envisages for curriculum to address the 21st century challenges in a manner that promote technological skills (MoET, 2008: 10). Jorgenson (2006: 1) argues that the advancement in ICT is an indication of a move away from an industrial economy to an era of free flow of information. Consequently the ICT renders traditional model of teaching obsolete. The 21st generation requires methods that enable them to take active part in learning and so teachers can no longer remain the only providers of information (OECD, 2012: 1). The information age requires learner-centred methods that create space for investigation and selection of relevant information. For the History classroom, ICT affords the opportunity for learners to interpret and evaluate sources of information and this goes a long way to assisting them to realise issues of bias and credibility of sources.

Indeed ICT helps to address relevance in curriculum and necessitates for many countries of the world to include it as a part of curriculum. However it is imperative that all stakeholders have an understanding of what ICT entails and this study utilises Syed (2013: 38-39) definition that ICTs does not just include computers and the use of internet but also covers libraries and documentation centres and other related information and communication activities. Ashraf (2014: 1) and Syed (2013: 38-39) posit that studies undertaken have shown that ICTs have potential to improve teaching and learning and can enhance development of technological skills which are so much needed in many workplaces. As such ICT is necessary to strengthen teaching and learning and helps schools change.

3.3.2.5 Competing demands of governments

agree that Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is not a particular programme but that (ESD) is an attempt to raise consciousness and equip learners with functional skills so that they can be able to address the challenges that societies and the world as a collective face in the 21st century. These challenges are not only political but are also of economic and environmental nature.

In line with the foregoing this vision of ESD necessitates education to go beyond the presentation of facts and it encourages learning experiences that are transformative to encourage learners to be autonomous thinkers (UNESCO. 2011: 1). Higher Education Academy (2018: 1) concurs and expresses the view that, ESD does not suggest that there is any particular pedagogy to promote functional skills but emphasises that ESD necessitates for learner-centred approaches. This approach engages learners in learning and so contributes to the development of the necessary skills.

In summation Lesotho is a member of a larger community of the world and the United Nations and by that virtue the country is obliged to follow trends in education and espouse the Declaration of the organisation. It is against this backdrop that Lesotho and other countries of the world embarked on the process of reviewing their curricula.

3.3.2.6 Environmental factors

Environmental factors are other elements that influence curriculum change. Considering that global warming is a global issue necessitates the need to raise global world awareness regarding its causes and effects. Consciousness raising plays an important role in education because it fosters reflection and so when students are for example aware of the causes of global warming they may begin to think of the way in which to reverse the situation (Ashraf, 2014: 1).

In order to address the environmental factors and other global issues there is need to raise awareness and this requires critical thinkers and not passive learners. Consequently The Children’s School (2017: 1) is of the view that project-based learning can assist in the development of critical thinking and as such has potential to raise critical consciousness. In their study Luter et al., (2017: 5) argue that project-based learning deepens knowledge and understanding of neighbourhood in which learners live. Project-based learning also encourages learners to show how they can
bring about change in their local societies. The use of local environment may be a good starting point to address environmental issues hence one of the objectives of this study is to determine how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

Considering that the context of this study is Lesotho, implies that at this point it is imperative to understand how the abovementioned factors influenced curriculum change in Lesotho. There has been progression since 2005 as the Government of Lesotho through its Ministry of Education and Training embarked on revising the curriculum. According to Sunday Express (2013) the LGCSE that was implemented in 2013 was a result of the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) disinterest in continuing to produce the examinations for Lesotho. At this point it is necessary to mention that from different sources that the researcher consulted it is not clear what brought this lack of interest but what can be mentioned is that the attitude of CIE compelled Lesotho to localise the curriculum. It seems also that the changes that were made in the curriculum were not only to meet the pressure put by CIE but to also align with the demands of the 21st century including ESD. These demands and challenges resulted in the publication of a comprehensive in 2008.

The overall goal of the MoET in CAPF is to ensure relevance in the education sector (MoET, 2008: 2). The purpose of such initiatives is further to bring to an end the uncoordinated curriculum development activities that were no longer responsive to the aspirations of Basotho people. It therefore seems there was indeed a change in curriculum because the CAPF makes reference to progressive education and emphasises learner-centred approaches, autonomy and survival of learners in school and as members of a broader community.

The other point is that CAPF emphasises that education should foster social attitudes and civil values and should act as a self emancipation tool from poverty and diseases. The Policy document further highlights the priority to attain among others national identity, tolerance and democracy (MoET, 2008: 5). To indicate that there is change in curriculum, the CAPF uses words from proponents of progressive education that “integrity education is not preparation for life but life itself.”

Whatever the influences are for curriculum changes the challenge, as mentioned in the previous sub-sections, remains with the implementation at the classroom level.
This aspect is well articulated by MoET (2008: 6) that education shall strive to equip learners with skills in conserving and maintaining their environment for the benefit of all. Consequently this study strives to determine if these MoET aspirations are translated into teaching and learning processes.

The discussion on curriculum change and management in the next sub-section is of importance because change in the curriculum has implications on teaching and learning and implementation at the classroom.

The understanding of curriculum change and management serves as a guide to establish if curriculum change in Lesotho was managed effectively.

3.4 Managing curriculum change

Change in curriculum is simply a systematic change in the form of transitioning educational curriculum (Johnson, 2001: 1). The change occurs because curriculum is defined from the modern or progressivism perspective. Sahlberg (2009: 1) offers an explanation that curriculum change is a process by which individuals gain knowledge, skills and attitudes and curriculum is vital for the success of the society. When change occurs there is no doubt that the need to assist an individual or group to gain insights, knowledge and implement change in the classroom situation also arises. There is consensus by writers including Speck (1996: 69), Sahlberg (2009: 1) and Johnson (2001: 1) that the process of change is not easy. However in many instances curriculum developers tend to undermine the process of change. It is this adoption of simplistic approaches that has led to failure for implementation of curriculum innovations.

Literature highlights that change of curriculum requires leadership, professional development, capacity building, resources and knowledge. Managing curriculum change fundamentally starts with effective leadership (Jones & Duckett, 2016: 8).

3.4.1 Leadership

Sahlberg (2009: 3) contends that the first step to manage curriculum change is to change the culture of the school and to improving the individuals’ knowledge and skills. This is because the way in which curricula are implemented depends on what are the teachers’ perspectives of the curriculum. In addition (Drawing from DOE 2009) Adu and Ngibe (2014: 983) support Sahlberg (2009: 3) and add that teachers hold certain understandings about the curriculum that are not intended by the policy.
This may be due to fear of the unknown or teachers’ attitudes and potential resistance The Schools Project (2016: 1). It is cases like the one mentioned above that require effective leadership. Effective management of curriculum change demands a systematic understanding of the new demands on individuals and organisations and (Jones and Duckett, 2016: 8) recommends capacity building to fulfil the expectations of policy makers and of the public.

According to Speck (1996: 69) and Sahlberg (2009: 1) change process requires those who are involved in it to learn. In order to learn people have to first start by accepting change and begin to adapt practices which are congruent with the innovation. Considering that all aspects of curriculum change include implementation suggests that managing of curriculum change requires the diffusion of information by the leadership to raise awareness of reform and as highlighted by NICD (2009: 27) to address issues of limited trust between management and the teachers. Jones and Duckett (2016: 8) and Sahlberg (2009: 1) share the same view and add that the implementation of a new or revised curriculum requires effective leadership.

(Borrowing from Yek and Penny, 2006) Jones and Duckett (2016: 8) contend that the fundamental duties of the leadership include: unpacking the specifications of the curriculum, assisting teachers through Head of Departments (HODs) in planning the overall schemes of work, instilling sense of safety by allowing the HODs to be part of decision making, and encouraging HODs and subject teachers to identify community links to allow the curriculum to also be embedded in a real world. Jones and Duckett (2016: 8) attest that the above described process then becomes a process of conscientisation whereby the changes in curriculum are made known to those involved in implementation and so changing the reality. The process of conscientisation mentioned above is congruent with praxis and transformative teaching and represents aspects of critical pedagogy that guides this study.

In this regard it seems Jones and Duckett (2016: 4) are in agreement with Speck (1996: 70) that the power relationships must shift if change is to take place within a school. Jones and Duckett (2016:4) reiterate that most successful change comes about when staff has had some months to plan and prepare.

Effective curriculum management also requires the use of professional development.
3.4.2 Professional Development

Professional development is one way to build human capacity for it involves taking measures that help staff to improve skills so that they can in return assist students to attain outstanding results (Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2005: 1).

There is consensus among writers including Speck (1996: 69), Sahlberg (2009: 1), Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2005: 1) and Darling-Hammond, Hyler & Gardner, 2017: 1) that professional development is necessary because the success of any educational innovation depends on members that have skills to successfully implement the change. Considering that in the 21st century schools are looked upon as institutions that can help address the emerging challenges suggests that teachers require ongoing professional development that deepens their content knowledge and pedagogical skills.

On the note Jita and Mokhele (2014: 1) and Author (2015: 1) emphasise that if education experts or policy makers aim to improve teaching and learning they should invest in professional development because it helps improve teachers’ instructional practice. One way to achieve the above according to Author (2015: 1) is firstly, for leaders to consider and focus on acquiring new skills in a more formal manner. Secondly, there should be ongoing sharing of ideas and best practices in a less formal learning community.

The above contention is shared by Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) when they mention that the traditional way of offering professional development yields no outcomes for teachers’ knowledge or learners’ achievement outcomes. This is because in such workshops teachers sit and information is delivered to them, so the practice tends to treat teachers as objects and passive participants. There is also a difference between reading about a new teaching practice and seeing it and so literature encourages watching someone do it or practice it themselves. Consequently Author (2015: 1) and Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) discourage one or two-day workshop and recommends for collegiality which is a process of intensive, sustained and continuous professional development and collaboration with peers around the work on particular content or pedagogy, for both novice and long service teachers.
There is consensus that the best professional development is on-going, experiential and collaborative because George Lucas Educational Foundation (2008: 1) and UNESCO (2015: 1) reiterate that training and supporting both new and experienced teachers is crucial if the aim is to improve teaching and learning process. This contention comes out at the realisation that the challenge for teachers’ professional development with support for beginning teachers has been uneven, inadequate, and limited in scope and ambition. This is evident in a number of cases where teachers have received copies of the framework but no training in the use of the framework itself (UNESCO, 2015: 8). Furthermore where training has been offered, it generally remained of short duration and most importantly there are no follow-up events. Hence there is need for more systematised reinforcement.

The discussion above suggests that teachers are a fundamental element to successful implementation of curriculum and to learning. Therefore introducing new and complex themes such as transformative teaching and learning is a tremendous challenge which can only be overcome by training and on-going professional development. It is in the manner described above that Nager and Shapiro (2007: 9) argue that professional development can be used as a tool to support the teachers’ growth not only professionally but also at a personal level. Guided by literature presented it seems teacher development program is needed in Lesotho schools to prepare teachers in terms of how to implement a transformative History curriculum.

UNESCO (2015: 15-16) and Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) support the idea of on-going professional development and add that this should not be for teachers only, the head teachers too should be considered and provision made for them to attend in-service training for the head teachers. The purpose to hold training for head teachers and leadership of the schools is to enable them to understand the concepts. UNESCO (2015: 15-16) and Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) attest that the likelihood is that when the leadership itself is comfortable with the concepts the more likely it is that they will support teachers regarding teaching.

The use of on-going professional development is seen as a critical step in involving teachers in a reflective participation regarding CAPF. Secondly professional development programmes can assist History teachers in Lesotho to understand their role regarding teaching and learning. The Schools Project (2016: 1) indicates that there may be a number of constraints implementing change in general and these
challenges include lack of competent staff, the inadequate preparation of principals and teachers for curriculum change. It is for this reason that Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) suggest that this challenge can be overcome through collaborative planning and long term commitment from policy makers and the success depends on capacity building.

3.4.3 Capacity building/human resource

Many authors including OECD (2012: 2) and UNESCO (2015: 1) define capacity building as one of the initiatives taken to disseminate information to the actors. The purpose of capacity building is to ensure successful policy implementation. Capacity building still points to effective leadership because it is not just about disseminating information, it is also concerned with developing skills and promoting understanding of those responsible for curriculum implementation. In this study it is both the teachers and the head teachers who need to be exposed to the demands of CAPF. However UNESCO (2015: 1) highlights that there is also need to include all other stakeholder beside the two mentioned above because if they are excluded they might oppose change.

Literature presented in the preceding section indicates that different ethnic groups have different ideas on what should be regarded as knowledge (see 3.3.2.3) and so these are among groups that may oppose changes in curriculum. Therefore keeping different groups in dialogue regarding curriculum change and building capacity as mentioned above seems crucial for the implementation and management of curriculum change. The activities that promote and support capacity building range from training workshops, follow-up activities and school-based capacity building initiatives (Sahlberg, 2009: 1; UNESCO, 2015: 1 and Darling-Hammond et al., 2017: 1). The activities presented above are varied because Jita and Makhele (2014: 2) argue that though professional development share common purpose continuing professional development vary widely in their format and content due to context.

Sahlberg (2009: 1) argues that curriculum change has implication in the classroom situation in schools for it is at this micro level that implementation is carried out. It is for this reason that a range of capacities is required to facilitate curriculum implementation and understanding core concepts. In this study the teachers in Lesotho high schools need to understand CAPF and its requirements, learner-
centred approaches and transformative History curriculum. With this in mind it seems policy makers are required to play a leading role in facilitating understanding to all other stakeholders and in particular to the teachers (UNESCO, 2015: 1). Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) share the same view and recommend that policy makers and school leaders should plan the school day and activities to create enough space for professional learning and collaboration and collaborative planning.

According to Jita and Mokhele (2014: 1) there is evidence to suggest that the progress and success of educational reforms depends capacity building, not only for individuals but as a collective of all actors. The foregoing is supported by Author (2015: 1), UNESCO (2015: 1), Adu and Ngibe (2014: 987) and Sahlberg (2009: 6) contention that collective capacity building is necessary because change does not only affect teachers and head teachers but learners as well as other stakeholders, and this impacts on relationships even at community level. Hence there is agreement that there is need for capacity building to help increase the collective power.

To this end Sahlberg (2009: 6) emphasises that if curriculum change is to be managed effectively, information of the importance of the curriculum should be disseminated to all stakeholders and in particular teachers because these are people who are directly involved with the classroom implementation. This view is shared by (Adu and Ngibe, 2014: 983) for they contend that the teachers need to have a clear knowledge of what learning is to be fostered. The preceding section discussed factors that influence curriculum change, and so when information is disseminated it should be made clear how curriculum is connected to the political, economic and social development.

Jita and Mokhele (2014: 2) suggest the use of clusters to form subject groups where teachers would set their own dates according to how often they would meet to share knowledge regarding teaching and learning process. Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) share the same view and emphasise that mentoring and coaching are yet other ways in which teachers can empower themselves. As a result policy makers and school leadership should support these efforts by identifying and developing teachers so they could mentor not only novice teachers but even those among themselves.
Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1); Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) and Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2005: 1) support the view made by Jita and Mokhele (2014: 2) and add that mentoring is another way of creating a supporting culture and environment for transformative learning to occur. Such a supportive environment is essential because new teachers often lack understanding to navigate the educational environment.

Collaboration between schools and teachers (clusters) is yet another professional development programme that is recommended by (Jita and Mokhele, 2014: 2). Clusters encourage collaboration at both national and international levels through networking and federations (Jita and Mokhele, 2014: 2). In Lesotho context, there is the Lesotho History Teachers’ Association and this is a group of teachers who voluntarily come together to engage with matters concerning the teaching of History. This idea of clusters and collaboration becomes relevant to this study because teachers in Lesotho schools need to implement the CAPF.

The presented discussion therefore leads to the conclusion that support in the form of capacity building, collaboration and peer feedback should be ongoing and these activities as OECD (2012: 1) points out should not be overlooked if implementation is to be successful.

3.4.4 Support in terms of resources and knowledge

Another important aspect of curriculum management is the need for equipment, resources and infrastructure to implement the curriculum. OECD (2012: 1) posits that policy makers, school leaders and teachers all need the tools to implement educational policies as planned. These resources among others include; rooms, equipment, tools, ICT, books, library and other learning resources as well as teachers’ guides (Pasha, 2012: 1) and UNESCO (2015: 10).

One thing is certain that today’s learners are much more familiar with technology than students were ever before. Consequently Weaver (2008: 13) attests that learners’ expectations of technology to be made available by institutions are very high. Fundamentally Web 2.0 and the social software services such as Facebook and Myspace give this Third generation a completely different view of technology Weaver (2008: 13).
However, The Schools Project (2016: 1) indicates that there may be a number of constraints and these constraints include lack of material resources, lack of funding. Therefore the SMT need to be aware of the challenges that come with change because change has implication on the school budget. In order to successfully implement curriculum change OECD (2012: 1) posits that policy makers, school leaders and teachers need the tools and to this effect Jones and Duckett (2016: 5-6) and recommends that the SMT should channel resources to where they are most needed.

The presented discussion in this section indicates that effective leadership, professional development, capacity building and resources as well as knowledge are necessary to achieve not only change but localisation. It further is evident that all the identified aspects of managing curriculum change are interconnected and that for management of curriculum change and localisation to be achieved all aspects should complement each other, so none can work in the absence of the others. It is also important to realise that change takes time to understand and to come to accept new ways of thinking about education. According to Sahlberg (2009: 3) when the actors do not understanding the reasons for change and do not receive enough support from leadership the chances are implementation may not succeed.

In summation and drawing from Mulford (2003: 5) sustainable education reform requires effective leadership effective. Considering that in most countries of the world education is directed by government, Lesotho included, leads to the expectation that the priorities of governments is to ensure availability of resources and offer direction towards the implementation and management of curriculum change.

3.5 Change in how History teaching and learning is conducted

This section is important because it helps to understand the implications that the CAPF brought on the teaching and learning of History in Lesotho high schools.

In order to do so, this section comprises of the definition of history as a subject, goes further to discuss the nature and purpose of history and finally how history teaching has evolved overtime. The discussion is important because it creates an opportunity to establish the challenges related to the teaching of History that may inhibit the proper implementation of the revised CAPF that was introduced in Lesotho in 2008.
The definition of History as a subject plays an important role in assisting the researcher to determine whether the way the subject is defined in Lesotho context is different or similar to other countries.

### 3.5.1 History as a subject (Definition)

A simple definition provided by Corfield (2008: 1) and National Curriculum Board (2009: 4) is that History is the study of the story of the past. Hirst (2017: 1) concurs and elaborates that history is the written story of the human past and is quick to point that no one can record everything that is true about an event in the past. For this reason History is therefore a process of simplifying the story. Of all that can be said about the event is what the writer considers the most significant.

QHTA (2018: 1) shares the same view and contends that historians sort through the evidence and present only that which given their particular world view is significant. If one is to take the history of Lesotho as an example, this definition suggests that those who wrote the history identified (Moshoeshoe 1) and the building of the Basotho Nation as significant thing that happened. Many people therefore enjoy visiting Thaba-Bosiu because it tells a great story about the building of the Basotho Nation. In this view History becomes a narrative, simply sharing the great stories of the rise and fall of Kingdoms. Consequently Seiborger (2016: 1) is of the same view that the study of History allows us to understand how past human action affect the present and influence our future.

The study of History is important because it provides opportunity to understand change and what events took place in the past that shaped the society we live in. Peters (2008: 1) and Littlejohn (2013: 1) argue that History educates young minds and obliges them to reason and wonder and it also provides context to fill all other knowledge. If History is taught in an engaging manner, young people can learn about the significance of past events and personalities, (for example Moshoeshoe 1, Shaka, Hitler and many more around the globe) and can relate them to their own lives.

It is important to mention that History also provides opportunity to understand the causes and consequences of events and how they impact on society. In order to understand the foregoing, International Baccalaureate Organisation (IBO, 2015: 1) attest that History requires the use of evidence and interpretation of sources. This
approach encourages learners to appreciate the complexity of historical events by exploring multiple interpretations or explanations (IBO, 2015: 1). Interpretation in History is an important aspect because it considers multiple sources of information to arrive at informed decisions in order to avoid issues of bias.

The study of History encourages habits and behaviours that point to responsible public behaviours. Different democratic countries and constitutional monarchies depend on citizens having a good sense of history (Peters, 2008: 1). History seems to the subject that needs to be taught well in order to foster the values that are necessary for a democracy which among others include ability to assess and interpret the past examples. It is the above contention that suggests that History can be used to achieve the educational needs of the society hence it needs to be taught well (Stearns, 2017: 1). Interpretation is an essential skill for it helps provide answers to the nature, magnitude and significance of change that happened in the past (Stearns, 2017: 1).

Littlejohn (2013: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) assert that historical memory is the key to self-identity. If learners are denied knowledge of their roots and the sense of shared community then they are denied the fullest personal development and responsible citizenship because the two depend on the knowledge of the roots. In addition like mentioned in the preceding paragraph interpretation is core to learning History because it allows for dialogue and conversations and these are essential skills for citizenship and participation in a democratic society.

The definition and description provided in the previous paragraphs clearly makes History an academic discipline (Stearns, 2017: 1). For historians who define History as an academic discipline, much consideration is placed on the methods that are to be employed in the teaching of this subject. Fundamentally History utilises inquiry methods whereby learners are expected to investigate the content rather than memorising it and reproducing information (QHTA, 2018: 1). Inquiry methods promote investigation skills, analysis and ability to interpret of different sources of information (Watanabe-Crockett, 2017: 1). The aforementioned skills are essential because they allow Historians and History learners to offer an explanation of the past (QHTA, 2018: 1).
Considering that Historians publish what according to them is important necessitates for analysis, evaluation and interpretation skills. This is fundamental because some statements in a source according to Standler (2013: 2) and Hirst (2017: 1) may not be ‘true’. This can be due to two reasons; firstly in trying to simplify the story some information was misinterpreted. Secondly the writer may be influenced by issues of bias. It is for this reason that History teaching creates opportunity for information finding skills so that learners consult different sources and investigate more in order to make informed decisions. The above definition has implications on the teaching and learning of History. This is because Fru (2015: 4) argues that for History to be true it must not only be based on facts it must present those facts in a balanced, well proportioned manner.

The above presented definition of History negates the general thinking by a number of people that history is a very objective discipline. The notion that learners are expected to interpret the past, makes it clear that there are going to be different perspectives and that requires debate and dialogue. In this way content alone can never be objective but the procedure of History can as mentioned earlier in the preceding chapters (chapter one). It is in this regard that the teaching of History negates teacher-centred approaches because they do not allow for active involvement of learners in learning. Consequently Standler (2013: 2) contends that the purpose of teaching History is no longer to emphasis factual knowledge but to foster the development of a historical awareness.

In addition literature presented in the previous paragraphs indicates that one encounters conflicting facts in different sources, so a historian needs to make a choice about which fact is more credible and this can only be achieved through more investigation. From the presented discussions it seems the concept History as a subject has been defined in many different ways by different scholars. However many scholars and writers share the view that History is the process of inquiry and interpretation is at the core in order to explain the events of the past.
The way in which the subject is defined and conceptualised in the Lesotho History Syllabus seems to be congruent with definitions provided by other countries. And considering that History is regarded as an academic discipline taught in school Seiborger (2016: 1) then points out that History curriculum documents for schools often contain a statement providing a description or definition of the nature of the subject.

The current Grade 9 Lesotho History curriculum (2018) defines History in a number of ways. First the History Syllabus mentions that History is the study of change and development in society over time. Secondly the History Syllabus states that History is a distinctive and well established academic discipline that requires a process of inquiry. The third point that appears in the History Syllabus is that the study of History is essential for good citizenship. Another aspect that is mentioned in the History Syllabus is that the study of History provides learners with analytical and interpretation skills which are invaluable in many jobs. Among the many aims History teaching should create awareness about emerging technological advances in the 21st century. Taking into consideration the definitions provided in the preceding paragraphs the definition drawn from the History Syllabus seems to go a long way to
highlighting that the way the subject is defined and conceptualised is similar to other countries.

Literature presented in previous sections points that change in curriculum means change in pedagogy and assessment (see 3.3). It is indicated in the previous chapters CAPF emphasises that pedagogy should be learner-centred and promote development of functional skills (MoET, 2008: 6). In consideration with the above statement Seiborger (2016: 1) attest that any substantial changes to the definition of History would make inevitable changes to the existing subject, its textbooks and assessment. The contention implies that the definition of History has changed and it is expected that the Lesotho government should have prepared textbooks and put in place all other necessary resources to support the implementation of the CAPF. Besides the definition of the concept, teachers of history should probably have some conception of the nature of history before they can even try to teach it as argues by (Stearns, 2017: 1).

3.5.2 The Nature and Importance of History

Fru (2015: 4), Seiborger (2016: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) agree that to better understand the nature of history it is necessary to take a closer look at the historical methods and particularly at its shortcomings.

3.5.2.1 Knowledge of the past is incomplete

The method begins with an attempt to identify all relevant information about an historical episode. Because historians cannot study the past directly, they must rely on available evidence (Stearns, 2017: 1). Sometimes there is little or no evidence from many historical periods. Hence the known past is infinitely smaller than the actual past. Hirst (2017: 1) argues that the actual history is everything that actually occurred at the time and place. On the other side known history is merely the scanty evidence left behind. Hence historians can illuminate only the fragments of the past and not the past itself. Therefore Corfield (2008: 1) posits that considering that people are rooted in time it is best to gain access to the ideas and evidence of History as an integral part of normal education.

There is consensus that the past is incomplete. It is this nature of history that supports the definition provided in previous sub-section that for historians operating at the academic level history is a process of investigation to interpret sources of
evidence in order to offer an explanation or interpretation of the past. The above statement is supported by National Curriculum Board (2009: 4) that History is a discipline with its own methods.

3.5.2.2 The past keeps changing

History is not static argues (U. S. History, 2016: 1). This is because the people’s views of history are constantly changing as new discoveries are made that cast doubt on previous knowledge. This is because History traces the story of how people have developed through the ages, how they studied to use and control their environment and how the present institutions have grown out of the past.

In addition new interpretations of historical events frequently come along to challenge older views (Furay and Salevouris, 2000: 1). The issue of the Cold War for example, ‘who was to blame for it?’ historians are beginning to come up with different perspectives since the fall of the Berlin Wall. The above given example points to evidence that the nature of history is not congruent with traditional education methods which Freire call ‘banking concept’.

The nature of History requires approaches that encourage learners to make meaning and means to discover truth all of which are aspects of progressive approach and require inquiry methods (U.S. History, 2016: 1). Similarly Stearns (2017: 1) asserts that in recent times it is agreed that History provides opportunity for learners to develop the ability to assess evidence and this skill can also be applied to information encountered in everyday life.

3.5.2.3 History is subjective

Evidence about the past can include the remains which include among others; bones, architectural ruins, pottery shards, art work or written accounts. Many authors including Mahadi and Shahrill (2014: 150); Hirst (2017: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) posit that artefacts are mute and require human interpretation. Written accounts reflect the point-of-view and the biases of the author. In both cases the evidence reflects perceptions of the past not the reality of the past.

It is in this light that the historian following the historical methods tries to determine if the evidence is real, accurate or biased. After making these judgements the historian selects some evidence to include in his narrative and reject other sources. This is
highly a subjective process throughout (Corfield, 2008: 1; McDonald, 2015: 1 and Stearns, 2017: 1). Guided by the foregoing it seems this subjective nature of History is congruent with curriculum as praxis. This is because praxis views teaching and learning as a process of inquiry rather than banking in which the teacher deposits information into the learners’ heads. It seems many writers including the National Curriculum Board (2009: 4) agree that historical inquiry involves comprehension and interpretation of sources.

3.5.2.4 History is a search for truth

While some scholars might argue that history is too subjective to be of much value, Corfield (2008: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) posit that it is the subjective nature that can communicate an understanding of objective historical reality. In addition absolute truth is a rare commodity; it is no less available from history than from academic fields. Conscientious historians are aware of the pitfalls in the search for historical truth and they try to avoid them. So every precaution is taken to avoid the bias that comes with this nature of History.

Furthermore History is multisided in the sense that all aspects of the life of a social group are closely interrelated. Historical happenings cover all aspects of life, and it is not limited only to political aspect that had so long dominated history (Littlejohn, 2013: 1). History also deals with the economic and religious aspects and as such addresses a clear sense of world unity and world citizenship. Finally History is not only a narrative but places particular emphasis on the development of independent thought and analytical skills (The London School of Economics and Political Science, 2015: 1).

Guided by the foregoing then this study concludes that the importance of History is to help one to draw conclusions from the past events. In addition History sheds the light of the past upon the present, thus helping one to understand oneself, by making one acquainted with other people and it inculcates a critical and yet tolerant personal attitude (The London School of Economics and Political Science, 2015: 1). History also offers the learners the opportunity to acquire creative and critical thinking, awareness of environmental interaction, values and norms necessary for national unity and development all of which have been identified as a priority in the CAPF.
Finally, History preserves the traditional and cultural values of a nation and serves as a beacon of light, guiding society in confronting various crises. History is indeed a bridge connecting the past with the present and pointing the road to the future (Corfield, 2008: 1). It is necessary then to establish teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum. Based on the presented discussions there is consensus that History is based on available evidence but remains open to further debate and future re-interpretation (National Curriculum Board, 2009: 4). This consensus points to debate as one of the practices that should be utilised in the History classroom.

### 3.6 How the teaching of History evolved

The presented arguments about History as a subject necessitate the discussion of the factors that encouraged the methods of teaching this subject to improve during the last 30 or so years. Maxwell (2011: 1) asserts that while History teaching originally focused on the facts of political history such as wars and dynasties, contemporary History education has assumed a more integrative approach. The teaching of History encourages integrated approach in which all other subjects/areas of learning are incorporated to facilitate for a better understanding of change and continuity.

Many authors including Corfield (2008: 1), Maxwell (2011: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) posit that the current pressures on History did not come out of a vacuum. In the past History has been justified for reasons that are no longer acceptable in that emphasis was placed on dates or names of people who came up with theories or kings and queens (Stearns, 2017: 1). Like it is highlighted in the previous paragraphs in recent times there is need for History to create opportunity for students to develop a number of skills necessary to address the challenges in the 21st century.

It is for this reason that UNESCO (2017: 1) argues that the educational system is built to perform demands of social development. A Changing environment creates new educational demands. That is why all educational institutions have to constantly upgrade their curriculum. In the 21st century the overarching aim of teaching History is no longer seen as that of giving learners detailed and solid knowledge of the past. The aim tends rather to be seen as that of developing and refining the historical consciousness (see 2.2.2.2.6) of children and teenagers (Jensen, 2000: 84).
The Council of Europe (COE) (2000: 8) concurs and adds that History teaching in Europe has had to face challenging new developments during the last decade. In the countries of East and South-east Europe the process of political reforms has greatly changed the role of History teachers as well as the significance of History teaching at school and university. It is important to highlight that the changes regarding History and the teaching of this subject were not only limited to the countries in transition: History in Africa and Lesotho in particular has also had to cope with the growing complexity of political, social and economic systems. The challenges of urbanisation, political upheavals and reconciliation have forced countries to reconsider the content that is to be taught in History and to reconsider methods that encourage dialogue (see 2.2.2.2.1) because dialogue has potential to lead to healing (COE, 2000: 8).

These complexities affect young people so that History teachers are confronted with these problems in the classroom too. Consequently new approaches to History both on the content level and on the methodological level need to be implemented in classroom teaching, and teachers need to be prepared for these forms of dealing with the past (Furay and Salevouris, 2000: 1) and (COE, 2000: 9). In addition the complexities of the 21st century require the teaching of History to enable school children to gauge the reliability of the sources. In short the teaching of history should enable learners to develop critical faculties, interpretation and ability to evaluate sources. The aforementioned skills require learner-centred methods and environments that are conducive for learning (see 2.2.2.2.5). The need therefore for these skills in the 21st century have made teacher-centred approaches obsolete like mentioned before.

Consequently many historians are interested in knowing which of ways of dealing with the past are best suited to foster peaceful development not only in Europe but across all continents of the world (COE, 2000: 9). Consequently (Kirkaldy, 2006: 1) encourages teachers and educators to look for ways of using History to encourage self-consciousness and cultural identity in the next generation and to use technology to find information.

In the case of Lesotho (Sunday Express, 2013) argues that the fate of Lesotho lies in young people because this is a generation that is living in a world of immense and increasing complexities. The challenge and expectation is for education to equip them with capacity to meaningfully contribute in the progressive development of their
country. It is concerns like the one above that requires that History be taught in ways that can encourage skills that are necessary to address the challenges. The foregoing tends to support the aim of this study, to establish teachers' perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

Lazar (2011: 1) is of the view that there is need for History to ensure that learners gain the skills and knowledge necessary to be critical thinkers and citizens in their communities. Fundamentally the world is saturated with media and learners need to learn how to evaluate the information they encounter (see 2.2.2.2.2). Essentially this is based on where the information comes from, who is producing it and when, and its intended audience (Lazar, 2011: 1). Hence one of the objectives is to determine how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum.

Another development that led to the improvement in the teaching of History was the introduction of the learner-centred methodology (see 2.2.2.2.4) which had a major impact on all aspects of learning, teaching and teaching structures. This suggests that the subject matter of History should be open in the sense that it should include all aspects of a society (COE, 2012: 1). Guided by the foregoing it seems the purpose of History among others is to encourage self-consciousness (2.2.2.2.6) and cultural identity and develop a holistic person. In order to achieve all of the mentioned, there is a need to change how History is taught. Essentially in reflection teaching should encourage humanistic approaches and liberating environments (see 2.2.2.2.5). Hence it is the aim of this study to establish the teachers' perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

3.7 Reflections on the challenges/problems to the teaching of History

The purpose of this section is to reflect on the challenges that face the teaching of History in schools. Once the challenges are identified and discussed then the section proceeds to demonstrate how these challenges indicate the teachers are not operating in line with the demands of a transformative curriculum.

3.7.1 Skills and knowledge

History is very much a process of investigation using particular methods and skills to find, analyse and interpret sources of evidence in order to offer an explanation or interpretation of the past (QHTA, 2018: 1) and Standler (2013: 2). Therefore in the History classroom opportunities should be created for learners to analyse and
evaluate sources of information in order to determine credibility of the sources themselves. Evaluation of sources can be achieved through the process of finding the credentials of the author, the purpose of publication, value and limitation of the source (Origin, purpose, value and limitation). The procedure above makes History a process of inquiry and highlights that History is not just facts but presentation of facts in a balanced and well-proportioned manner (Fru, 2015: 4). The contention presented suggests that a transformative History curriculum is therefore seen as that of developing and refining the historical consciousness of children and students at large (Jensen, 2008: 84).

Considering that History is about interpretation suggests that there should be opportunities in the History classroom for learners to interpret sources of information. This is where knowledge of the story of the past is required and deducing meaning is directly linked to support with facts. Literature presented in preceding sections contends that in order to assist learners to make meaning, teachers should make use of both primary and secondary sources. This is important because History is a process of inquiry in which learners need to actively engage with and investigate the content outlined in the curriculum and not just learn it as highlighted by presented literature.

Standler (2013: 2) and (QHTA (2018: 1) assert that the process of inquiry encourages learners to think historically which involves chronological thinking, historical comprehension, historical analysis and interpretation and leads to decision making. The foregoing therefore suggests that content alone can never be objective, but the procedure that is followed in history can be (Fru, 2015: 4) and it is the procedure that allows learners to make informed decision. It seems many writers including University of Nebraska (2018: 1) agree that knowledge and skills gained through learning of History as a subject strengthen critical thinking and problem solving abilities, helps develop communication and presentation skills, and to learn the dynamics of analysis and interpretation through research.

History taught in schools is open to being simplified and biased presentations (Cole and Barsalou, 2006: 1; Mahadi and Shahrill, 2014: 150; Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli, 2002: 118 and Stearns, 2017: 1). This could be due to teachers who lack skills and knowledge of the nature of History as a subject. Such teachers do not possess the knowledge on how a historical inquiry is conducted and subsequently employ
teaching methods and practices that encourage History to be regarded as a narrative only. For this reason Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1) attest that how schools navigate and promote historical narrative through history teaching partly determines the role they and those who control the schools play in promoting conflict or reconstruction. This is as so because according to Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1) countries tend to suspend the teaching of History immediately after widespread violent conflicts because they cannot agree on what to teach.

This last point resonates with the situation in Lesotho in that after the 1998 upheavals in the country, many schools stopped offering History and the subject was instead replaced by Development Studies. It can also be assumed that the decision to drop History as a subject in Lesotho high schools was based on lack of knowledge of teaching approaches. This therefore suggests that pedagogical issues in the teaching of this subject are not appropriate to sustain the teaching of History as learners could not identify any importance in learning it in schools (Mahadi and Shahrill, 2014: 150). Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli (2002: 118) and Stearns (2017: 1) offer a view that throughout the middle years of the 20th century History was viewed primarily as a narrative of past events with emphasis on names and dates and this perspective committed learners to memorising important dates and names.

Schools which utilise the above-mentioned approach portray a clear picture that teachers are not operating in line with the demands of a transformative curriculum. The presented views necessitate the discussion of how History should be taught.

3.7.2 Teaching methodologies and strategies

History is an important school subject which conveys invaluable lessons from the past and so such a subject needs to be taught well in order to make learners gain deep appreciation of the relevance of their learning (Boadu, 2016: 38). As important is that a transformative History curriculum is seen as that of developing and refining the historical consciousness of children and learners at large (Jensen, 2008: 84).

Many authors including Standler (2013: 2) share similar view that no teaching method can be said to be the only best in the teaching of this subject because each method has its own strengths and weaknesses. However recent research in the teaching and learning of History advocates for instructional approaches that engage
learners in active learning and emphasising the use of primary sources and conducting a historical inquiry (Standler, 2013: 2) and (QHTA, 2018: 1).

According to Corfield (2008: 1) these techniques have replaced the traditional methods where the teacher was considered the sole knower of the subject and so became the sole provider of information. This is because historians cannot study the past directly they rely on available evidence and Corfield (2008: 1) further argues that the nature of History makes it such that sometimes there is little or no evidence from many historical periods. It is this nature of history that suggests that those operating at academic level should consider and teach history through inquiry and discovery methods (Lazar, 2011: 1 and Williams, 2016: 1).

The above-mentioned methods involve teaching learners to analyse historical evidence, to consider perspectives and context and examine the intention and purpose of the author (Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli, 2002: 120). This suggests that teachers themselves must possess a deep understanding of what History is and how historical inquiry is conducted because teaching history on inquiry model requires proficiency in the skill of developing and critiquing that knowledge and how historical knowledge may be used productively in the classroom (Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli, 2002: 120; Cole and Barsalou, 2006: 1 and Stearns, 2017: 1).

It seems the above-mentioned methods are supported by CAPF because the policy emphasises that pedagogy should shift from transfer of facts to learners’ construction of knowledge (MoET, 2008: 6). Furthermore the policy seems to support the notion that learners should develop historical knowledge and understanding by historical concepts, methods and skills to their investigations of aspects of the past. This is because History is not only a narrative but places particular emphasis on the development of independent thought and analytical skills (the London School of Economics and Political Science, 2015: 1).

It is important to mention that according to U.S History (2016: 1) many people are beginning to change their views of History. This is essentially due to the new discoveries that are made and these new discoveries seem to cast doubt on previous knowledge. Based on the foregoing new interpretations of historical events frequently come along to challenge the older views. It is in light of the above that History also offers learners the opportunity to acquire creative and critical thinking,
awareness of environmental interaction, values and norms necessary for national
unity and development (The London School of Economics and Political Science,
2015: 1). It is for this reason that the nature of History is not congruent with
traditional methods referred to as banking concept because learners need to make
meaning and means to discover the truth.

Considering that CAPF encourages a move from traditional practices suggests that
pedagogy (the way teachers teach) therefore is critically important to reform efforts.
Approaches should emphasise critical thinking and Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1)
assert that approaches that emphasises critical thinking and expose learners to
multiple historical narratives can reinforce democratic and peaceful tendencies.
Guided by the foregoing, it seems that pedagogy is inseparable from content in
History education reform and so the pedagogical approaches have implications on
the role of the teacher.

It is with regard to the foregoing that Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli (2002: 120) argue that
the pedagogical skills of the teacher to encourage collaborative work become
extremely important. In addition the shift further suggests that a teacher of History
needs to have understanding of History as a discipline. Therefore the fundamental
issue here is that any discussion and teaching of history should pay particular
attention to teacher preparation in terms of on-going professional development
(Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli, 2002: 121).

Another experience from both the local and international schools in Lesotho that I
have taught in, is that when schools have a shortage of teaching staff for History, the
schools find it easy to simply allocate this subject to those that have not specialised
in History. Many authors including Fru (2015: 5) argue that this is unfortunate
because the assumption of the leadership is that History is merely the accumulation
of facts and therefore can be taught by any other teacher. This assumption about
History is unfortunate and regrettable.

However referring to the definition and nature of History, it seems this unfortunate
assumption can be turned around only if History is taught using approaches that are
progressive and represent praxis. The definition and nature of History is synonym
with progressive approach and praxis as ways in which curriculum should be
organised and that requires the employment of inquiry based learning. This
approach encourages learners to research information about a new historical topic by themselves rather than teachers supplying learners with information. Therefore when planning history lessons teachers are encouraged to identify inquiry questions that can help inspire student discussion and debate (Fru, 2015: 5).

Cole and Barsalou (2006:1) posit that there is however lack of inquiry because pedagogy sometimes receives less attention than the curriculum. This point helps to summarise the view that it seems teachers are not operating in line with the demands of a transformative History curriculum. Literature presented contends that the key methodologies should include problem posing strategies fundamentally for the reason that these strategies create opportunity for students to encourage students to be critical thinkers.

The discussions presented in the previous paragraphs seem to highlight that many authors including Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1); Lazar (2011: 1) and Fru (2015: 5) are of the same view that any curriculum that is organised purely around product reduces History to assimilation and retention of facts through memorisation. In addition teachers who deliver History as substantive subject undermine the procedural component of historical knowledge and promote a simplistic view of History that focuses on historical content only. This study therefore seeks to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

3.7.3 Assessment

Another important aspect is that in transformative education assessment of learners’ transformative growth is essential and best performed by the educator in as much cooperation with the learners (see 1.1). It is for this reason that the educator should regularly conduct a planned formative assessment together with the learners, a process in which evidence of learners’ progress and achievement is used to adjust the teaching and learning process or by learners themselves to adjust their current ways of learning (IBIS, 2014; 1). Indeed Popham (2017: 1) and Greenstein (2010: 1) just like (IBIS) emphasise that the above-mentioned process of formative assessment is used to establish how much a particular learners has mastered a particular skill and a body of knowledge (see 1.1). In all formative assessment theory explains the mediation role of an educator in learning (Baldwin, 2016: 1).
The foregoing according to IBIS (2014: 1) suggests that the teacher should adjust teaching and assessment tasks to improve instruction and to assist learners to produce outstanding results (IBIS, 2014:1 and Baldwin, 2016:1). Many writers including Popham (2017: 1) agree that embedded formative assessment is a process not a specific measure or just any particular test and emphasise that reflection becomes an important aspect of the teaching and learning process. Baldwin (2016: 1) posits that both transformative learning theory and formative assessment theory are constructivist theories. Therefore academic achievement from a constructivist perspective is seen as learners’ ability to use knowledge to solve real world problems. For this reason IBIS (2014: 1), Baldwin (2016: 1) and Popham (2017: 1) are of the same view that both transformative learning and constructivist theories together they support inquiry and as such enhance learning.

In the History classroom therefore assessment should be formative assisting both the teacher and learners to adjust instruction and learning respectively. It is in order to lastly mention that there is consensus (IBIS, 2014: 1; Baldwin, 2016: 1; Popham, 2017: 1 and Greenstein, 2010: 1) that formative assessment process can enhance learning which entails the use of on-going self-assessment and reflection. Guided by the foregoing it seems the use of formative assessment in the History classroom can go a long way to achieve the aspirations of MoET for education to produce autonomous and self-directed learners. The discussion of assessment was necessary to assist the researcher to establish how effective teachers in Lesotho high schools are implementing a transformative History curriculum.

3.7.4 Availability and use of resources

An important aspect of curriculum management is the need for equipment, resources and infrastructure to implement the curriculum (see 3.4.4). These resources among others include rooms, equipment, tools, ICT, books, library and other learning resources (Pasha, 2012: 1). The SMT must be realistic about resources needed to implement effective change (Jones and Duckett, 2016:4). A study conducted by Boadu (2016: 40) indicates that lack of essential teaching resources is the most serious problem of teaching History. In most cases there is lack of funding and teachers find it difficult to receive professional development. The other disappointing factors were the absence of well equipped libraries or History rooms as well as challenges of large classes.
Considering that the nature of History is congruent with critical pedagogy suggests that the success of a transformative curriculum in Lesotho high schools depends on a complete access to resources. This is because according to Mahadi and Shahrill (2014: 150); Hirst (2017: 1) and Stearns (2017: 1) posters, charts, pictures and other artefacts adorn the classroom wall. In addition to the above-mentioned resources the History text books should have illustrations, exercises and primary sources to support the pedagogy. In this regards Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1) recommend that in resource-poor settings helping History teachers promote critical inquiry may be more urgent than reforming history books. This is because History teachers struggle instructionally and may not use primary sources to engage students in historical inquiry activities.

A study conducted by Boadu (2016: 40) corroborates other literature presented in previous paragraphs that lack of essential teaching resources is the most serious problem of teaching History. Funds to support teaching and learning were found to be lacking and that reduced the chances for teachers to attend refresher course to enhance the teaching of this subject. According to Boadu (2016: 40) the other problems include the absence of well equipped libraries or History rooms and challenges of large classes. Consequently teaching approaches that were used by history teachers were not appropriate for a history lesson and historical inquiry. Indeed it seems the delivery of history has changed beyond all recognition. However according to Cole and Barsalou (2006: 1) those who establish changes in curriculum generally pay little or no attention to whether or how history is being taught in schools. It is necessary for this study therefore to establish how effective teachers in Lesotho high schools are implementing a transformative History curriculum.

3.7.5 Planning

The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work (2008: 1) posits that Piaget’s constructivism is not a specific pedagogy but has a wide impact on teaching and learning process. Constructivists believe that learners should be given real-life challenges as this can be an appropriate practice to help learners develop critical thinking and become aware of their own local context. Consequently The University of Sydney School of Education and Social Work (2008: 1) argues that the teachers require extensive planning time to achieve the above and to create a constructivist
classroom and atmosphere. Darling-Hammond et al., (2017: 1) support the view and recommends that policy makers and school leadership should redesign the use of time to allow for both individual and collaborative planning.

The consideration above goes a long way to allow teachers to select and organise resources to utilise in a History classroom, which may include the use of primary sources and secondary sources to encourage and promote interpretation skills and analytical skills respectively.

3.7.6 School-based curriculum leadership (role of heads of departments and mentors)

Proud (2011:1) emphasises that if democratic values and respect for human rights and active citizenship are to be learned, the teaching approach needs to take into consideration the whole life of the school/educational institution. The role of the HODs is to offer direction and assistance in terms of teaching materials and organising sessions to mentor each other. The HODs should facilitate curriculum implementation and understanding core concepts and this could be achieved through departmental meetings (Sahlberg, 2009:1). The role of both the SMT and HODs is to monitor and supervise the implementation of revised and new innovations in curriculum. Therefore both need to distribute curriculum framework, syllabuses and other resources that are relevant for implementation to all staff members.

The issue of timetabling again point to both the SMT and HODs to collaborate and create space for collegiality and for teachers to prepare for their own individual lessons. Literature presented in the previous section contends that a constructivist classroom requires sufficient time for the teachers to prepare. Proud (2011:1) and George Lucas Educational Foundation (2008:1) are of the view that it is a fundamental responsibility of the school management team (SMT) to properly induct new teachers into what is required in the subject

3.8 Transformative education

This section discusses transformative education in order to understand what it entails, what its implication on teaching and learning are and how it should be implemented. Transformative learning theory, originally developed by Jack Mezirow is described as being constructivist (Culatta, 2015: 1). The theory has two basic
kinds of learning, namely: instrumental and communicative learning. Instrumental learning focuses on learning through task-oriented problem solving and determination of cause and effect relationships. Communicative learning involves how individuals communicate their feelings, needs and desires.

This is necessary, because the revised curriculum framework that was introduced in Lesotho schools in 2008, seems to advocate for a transformative education making the discussion paramount in order to establish the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

3.8.1 Transformative education (Definition)

University of Wisconsin (2008) and Guerrero (2018 YouTube) attest that transformative education is about working with communities, in a participatory process, in tackling complex issues in a way that transforms the communities. As such this makes transformative learning a highly social process that allows for self-reflection and encourages emotional maturity. From the above contention, it appears transformative learning is highly related to humanistic approach to curriculum, in that both aspire a holistic approach to curriculum. The above view is supported by University of Wisconsin (2008: 1) when it attests that transformative education recognises the importance of building trusting.

The Audiopedia, accessed 10th April 2018, offers another view that transformative education is the expansion of consciousness to the transformation of basic world view and specific capacity of the self. The above assertion seems to point to critical pedagogy and praxis in that, it mentions raising consciousness of self and the global world, which is one of the many principles of both critical pedagogy and praxis. It is in light of the foregoing that there is convincing evidence that transformative learning can be achieved through the employment of critical pedagogy. Another point that is mentioned by The Audiopedia (2008) is that transformative education encourages people learn to make their own interpretations and not to simply act on feelings, beliefs and purposes of others.

It is in the manner described above that, the researcher understands that transformative learning contributes to the development of critical thinking and analytical skills. The Audiopedia (2008) clearly states that people make the meaning
of their experiences and should not just accept explanation given by authorities without critically analysing them. The foregoing is a clear indication that transformative education does not only help people to develop critical skills but to also become autonomous thinkers. In summation of the presented discussions, University of Wisconsin (2008: 1) and Guerrero (2018: 1) agree that critical reflection is crucial part of transformative education.

Jarvis, (another Youtube source accessed in April 2018), shares the same view with the one presented above and explains that everyone has a set of meaning perspectives and the challenge is that people tend to believe that these meaning perspectives represent the way things are. Hence there is the need to raise consciousness through critical thinking and reflection, because the two play an important role in changing the way people look at and understand the world (Jarvis, 2018: 1) and (Guerrero, 2018: 1). In light of the foregoing it seems that Jarvis (2018:1) and Guerrero (2018:1) concur with Audiopedia (Youtube) that transformative education is for individuals to change the perspectives.

Another view is offered by University of Wisconsin (2008: 1) and IBIS (2014: 1) that transformative education is education that empowers learners and enables them to constructively consider multiple view points and perspectives in dialogue with others. Furthermore transformative education is concerned with interdisciplinary issues, which may include social, economic as well as environmental. All of the aforementioned issues require a concerted effort to address them and effect a positive change that benefits the global world. It is for this reason that University of Wisconsin (2008: 1) contends that transformative education emphasises a variety of approaches and negates one-sided approaches to curriculum development. Transformative education presents a variety of educational methods and tools which are relevant to confront the challenges of the 21st century. It offers opportunity and support for democratic process that includes and respects a diverse point of view and allows people to learn and act together for more creative solutions (see 2.2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2.3; 2.2.2.2.5).

Yet another view is offered by McGonigal (2005: 1) and Proud (2011: 1) and they attest that transformative education is about the development of critical thinking skills, interpretation, analysis and effective communication. This view is shared by
the University of Wisconsin (2008: 1) that transformative education is concerned with the interest to build skills necessary to affect the problem by mastering the content knowledge and building group leadership capacity. It seems there is consensus that the focus of transformative education is development of different functional skills.

In this study transformative education is regarded as education that is empowering learners in the classroom situation to be critical thinkers, analyse information and to be able to air their viewpoint and encourages for self-reflection (Taylor, 2008: 9). It seems reflection is by far the most common feature of fostering transformative learning because it was discussed in the literature presented in the preceding paragraphs. Similarly Author (2015: 1) and Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) attest that through critical reflection individuals have the opportunities to observe, revise and transform their own thinking, beliefs and assumptions.

Taylor (2008: 9), Author (2015: 1) and Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) share the same view that transformative education alters people’s beliefs about the world, the way society is organised (class, race and gender) or even certainties about the world (University of Wisconsin (2008: 1). Hence critical reflection is fundamental in transformative education because without reflection people can make no real difference to anything.

3.8.2 Principles of Transformative Education

Transformative education has a set of principles that inform how it should be applied and implemented. These principles include learner-centred, (Yeboah, 2012: 30) (IBIS, 2014: 3), learner empowerment (McGonigal, 2005: 1), consciousness raising, interactive teaching and learning and conducive environments.

3.8.2.1 Learner-centred

The learners should be able to direct their own work because transformative education requires teaching and learning to be more learner-centred than teacher centred (IBIS, 2014: 3). In this view educators should seek to help learners shift from being passive recipients of information to becoming active producers of knowledge (IBIS, 2014: 3). The presented argument suggests that learners should be engaged actively in the educational task. Yeboah (2012: 30) asserts that there are practical strategies/methods for promoting transformative learning and emphasis should be on
critical reflection and the methods include collaborative learning, collaborative writing discussions, case studies and learners’ presentations.

To this regard Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) contends that when transformative learning is the goal the role of the teacher is to provide learners with opportunities to effectively participate in the learning process. The process involves dialogue because it is through dialogue that learners are able to validate how and what they understand. In addition students begin to develop well informed judgements regarding a belief and develop communication skills. Dialogue also is important because it encourages learners to develop social skills and values which among others include respect for each other’s viewpoint. The abovementioned skills and values are necessary in democratic societies. Considering that one of the aspirations of CAPF is for education to encourage participation in democratic discourse implies that learner-centred approach is a requirement in the teaching of History in Lesotho high schools.

Just like Yeboah (2012: 30) Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) is of the view that teachers can encourage critical reflection through implementation of methods including consciousness raising and participation in social action. Teachers can also encourage dialogue from different perspectives through controversial statements or readings from opposing points of view. The approach is relevant in the teaching of History because it is congruent with the nature of History (see 3.5.2; 3.5.2.1; 3.5.2.2; 3.5.2.3; 3.5.2.4). The nature History encourages methods that support the development of critical thinking hence learner-centred supports a transformative History curriculum.

3.8.2.2 Learner empowerment – critical skills, values and attitudes

Critical thinking is the core of transformative learning. Thomas (2009: 1) and Yeboah (2012: 30) argue that critical thinking can be used to empower learners to be able to reflect and refine ideas, assumptions and values. In addition critical thinking helps learners to transform from silent members to class leaders through learning opportunities which among others, include presentations and discussions. In this way transformative education leaves no space for transmission of knowledge.
The above presented argument supports the view that transformative education is not about transmission of knowledge and conformity, but like (McGonigal, 2005: 1) puts it, it is a process that requires learners to use their knowledge base to make informed decisions and reflect on their experiences. Hence critical thinking is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective thinking (Yeboah, 2012: 30-31). The presented information implies that transformative education negates authoritarian approaches (see 2.2.2.2.3). In the History classroom therefore teachers need to employ methods that allow learners to participate actively in learning. In other words transformative education advocates for a classroom that is guided by constructivism (see 2.2.2.1)

The discussions in the previous paragraph lead to contention by Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) that while the teacher becomes a facilitator, the role of the learners is to respect and be responsibility for helping one another learn. It is evident that transformative education encourages cooperative learning and some of the methods that encourage cooperative include group work and project-based learning (see 3.6; 3.7; 3.7.1; 3.7.2). Furthermore learners must welcome diversity within the learning environment and aim for peer collaboration. The role of the learners involves actively participating in discourse. Through discourse learners are able to validate what is being communicated to them. Through collaboration and dialogue learners are empowered to critically examine evidence, arguments and alternative points of view which fosters collaborative learning Thomas (2009: 1); (Yeboah, 2012: 30-31) and (McGonigal, 2005: 1).

The methods that have been found useful for promoting critical reflection include among others reflection through discussion, collaborative learning, learner’s presentations, participation in social action and consciousness raising (Yeboah, 2012: 38). These methods help learners to actively engage the concepts presented in the context of their own lives and collectively critically assess the justification of new knowledge (Author, 2015: 1).

**3.8.2.3 Interactive teaching**

IBIS (2014: 5) and Williams (2016: 1) points out that interactive teaching can include among others: working in groups or pairs; role play; case studies, debate, creative writing and project work. It is through the above-mentioned practices that
transformative education can give learners the skills to engage in social actions because these methods stimulate critical reflection, empathy and autonomous thinking in the learner. These are also essential when the goal of education is to strengthen tolerance in learners or build trust between them. It seems interactive teaching is relevant for the teaching of History because the CAPF is guided by principles and vision 2020 and therefore seeks to promote a society that is tolerant of each other and which respects diversity (see 1.1).

IBIS (2014: 5) and Luter et al., (2017: 5) posit that one of the factors that influence education is political aspect and it can be used to create exclusion and oppression, or positive change such as equality, peace and democracy (see 3.3.2.2). Consequently transformative education advocates for use of methods that encourage interaction between teacher and learners and for teachers to act as representatives of democratic principles. The approach is seen as creating a liberating classroom (see 2.2.2.2.5). In order to promote transformative education the educator can also emphasise real world application and promote divergent thinking, by asking learners to apply skills and abilities as they would in real life (IBIS, 2014: 5 and Luter et al., 2017: 5).

In the classroom situation, project-based learning can help emphasise real-world. This is fundamentally for the notion that problem-based learning is interactive rather than developmental and raises critical consciousness (Luter et al., 2017: 5). Subsequently education can contribute to positive social, cultural and economic development because of its transformative nature (IBIS, 2014: 1). To this effect Page (2009: 5) argues that transformative learning is always changing and the resources for this learning theory are ever growing. Hence schools and curriculum developers should keep pace with all changes because change has implications on teaching and learning.

3.8.2.4 Dialogic

IBIS (2014: 2) posits that transformative education empowers and enables learners to constructively consider multiple viewpoints and perspectives in dialogue with others. Teachers should therefore provide learners with equal opportunities to effectively participate in learning through dialogue. Author (2015: 1) concurs and adds that effective participation in discourse is seen as necessary to validate what
and how one understands and as such the foregoing is central to meaning making. Discourse includes discussion, conversation, dialogue and debate and all of the mentioned according to Author (2015: 1) are social processes through which one makes sense of the world.

Consequently the role of the teacher is often replaced with that of facilitator who creates an atmosphere in which learners are comfortable and feel free to discuss with others (IBIS, 2014: 2; Yeboah, 2012: 35 and Author, 2015: 1).

Yeboah (2012: 35) and Author (2015:1) further explain that class discussions provide an enabling environment for learners to experience perspective transformation as they get the opportunities to share ideas based on their individual background experiences. This leads them to reflect and compare new information with the previously held knowledge.

It is important to highlight that dialogue does not only involve conversations between teacher and learner but amongst teachers as well. It is for this reason the teachers need to engage in conversation with others in order to better consider alternative perspectives and to determine their validity (McGonigal, 2005: 1; Proud, 2011: 1 and Yeboah, 2012: 35). The above contention helps to emphasise the need for creation of clusters, teachers associations, collaborative planning, on-going professional development and collegiality in the work place.

### 3.8.2.5 Conducive Learning environment

This aspect links well with that of dialogic discussed in the previous paragraph. Teachers using transformative learning as their instructional approach need to have a learning environment that is safe, open and trusting, environment that allows for participation, collaboration, exploration, critical reflection and feedback (McGonigal, 2005: 1 and Proud, 2011: 1). As argued by Author (2015: 1) in order to create a conducive learning environment, the teachers are required to become facilitators because in such an environment the teachers do not resemble authoritarian figures but become co-learners among a class of self-directed learners (Author, 2015: 1). The above described environment encourages learners to use critical thinking skills to question assumptions and authority in order to enhance the relationship between
teacher and learners (Yeboah, 2012: 34). It is in the manner described above that the teachers can be regarded as role players in displaying democratic principles.

Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) shares the same view that the role of the teacher is to establish an environment that builds trust and care and facilitates the development of sensitive relationships among learners. Furthermore the teacher serves as a role model by demonstrating a willingness to learn and change. Author (2015: 1), Yeboah (2012: 34) and Wikimedia Foundation (2017: 1) allude that teachers should provide an environment which allows learners to reflect on their learning experiences as well as on their own experiences. It is for this reason that professional development is seen as an important factor to assist teachers in becoming authentic and critically reflective and this goes a long way to assisting students to learn to reflect on their own experiences.

The discussions above are an indication that transformative learning and self-direction go hand in hand because both are developmental processes. It is for this reason that the environment should allow for trust, self-actualisation, collaboration, exploration, critical reflection and feedback (Taylor, 2008: 8). To the foregoing Author (2015: 1) reiterates that the above described environment can be achieved through collaborative group work, problem-based learning and project-based learning. In this way the environment builds trust and facilitates the development of relationships among learners. Literature presented in the previous sections (see chapter 3) points to such a classroom described above as humanistic classroom that contributes to the development of a holistic person.

Against this background it seems transformative education is situated within a constructivist theory of learning (Proud, 2011: 1) and situated within praxis and critical pedagogy because all the concepts are embedded in liberating human beings and in particular learners from oppressive classroom conditions. It is for this reason that McGonigal (2005: 2) encourages teachers who wish to facilitate transformative learning to create an environment that encourages and rewards intellectual openness.

The following paragraph discusses consciousness raising as a method that encourages transformative learning.
3.8.2.6 Conscientisation/liberating

Consciousness raising is another way that can be used to promote critical reflection (Yeboah, 2012: 38). Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia (2017: 1) highlights that Freire’s *consciousness raising theory* refers to a process in which learners develop the ability to analyse, pose questions and take action on the social, political, cultural and economic contests that shape their lives. *Consciousness-raising* therefore guides the desire for political liberation and freedom from all aspects of oppression.

Indeed Freire Institute (2017: 1) contends that conscientisation is the process of developing a critical awareness of one’s social reality through reflection and action. Action is fundamental because it is the process of changing the reality and for this reason praxis takes place in the real world (Yek and Penny, 2006: 1). Therefore according to McGonigal (2005: 1) and (Proud, 2011: 1) critical consciousness is a process in which learners develop the ability to analyse, pose questions and take social, cultural and economic contests that influence and shape their lives. In other words learners have the skills to transform their world through critical consciousness and be able to better themselves (IBIS, 2014: 2; Yeboah, 2012: 35 and Author, 2015: 1).

Transformative teaching therefore is a move from non-reflective habitual action to a more conscious practice; a change in perspective to a more sophisticated view of teaching and an increased sense of agency and including the concept that academic practice is an object which can be controlled and shaped rather than something externally imposed (Wikimedia Foundation, 2017: 1). Against this background it seems the change in the Lesotho CAPF was necessary, because as mentioned in the previous sections, a good curriculum is continuously evolving. As such the CAPF is necessary to empower people to think critically about their world, to develop decision making abilities, get involved in social issues and then to take action.

The above-mentioned principles help to clarify that transformative education seeks to enable learners to contribute positively to social, cultural and economic development of their societies. On the same note IBIS (2014: 2) and Culatta (2018: 1) emphasise that the role of transformative education is not only to prepare learners to become active members, but responsible citizens who are able to question existing social structures and to take part in changing their societies and to welcome diversity within
the classroom. In order to achieve the foregoing, transformative education utilises transformative pedagogies and these methods are learner-centred. IBIS (2014: 3) posits that learner-centred methods embrace the whole idea of learning as both an individual process and a process where an individual is always understood as part of a social group.

In addition, unlike the transmission approach where knowledge is considered as a body of information to be deposited into the learner’s head, in transformative learning, pedagogy engages learners and it is democratic and knowledge emerges from doing and reflecting upon what is done (IBIS, 2014: 3). Furthermore the learning process consists of action and reflection or dialectical relationship with each other (praxis). Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia (2017: 1) reiterates that education through praxis should foster freedom among the learners by enabling them to reflect on their world and thereby change it. To this effect it is through dialogue and problem posing that learners develop awareness of structures within their society that may be contributing to inequality and oppression.

The presented literature suggests that there are key concepts in transformative learning and critical reflection is one of them. Bryant and Dowman (2012: 57) and Pappas (2016: 1) argue that one goal of education should be to help learners to critically reflect on and effectively act on their beliefs, interpretations, feelings and ways of thinking. Thus transformative learning has a potential for learners to become liberated from self-limiting patterns that inhabit growth and development. Praxis therefore put educators in a direct path to help facilitate empowering individuals to become active. Luter et al., (2017: 5) contend that pedagogy in transformative learning encourages learners to question things and not just basic questioning, but that which involves higher order skills, for example the “how” question.

The above-mentioned pedagogical approaches encourage the growth of critical consciousness and motivation among students and they are indicators of students’ engagement. It seems transformative education requires teaching based on inquiry, focused on effective teamwork and collaboration, teaching developed in local and global context and questioning that is based on divergent questions. Divergent questioning, refers to ‘open-ended’ questions which encourage many answers, to generate greater participation of students and stimulate creative and critical thinking (Ebert et al., 2013: 1).
To sum up, it must be mentioned that the process of literature review played a major role in achieving the aim of this study. The process of literature review enabled the researcher to advance the arguments relating to transformative learning and to link this learning theory to a transformative History curriculum. Identifying different definitions that could be attached to the term, History played an important role in determining the how meaning can impact on teaching and learning practices. Furthermore literature review revealed that the success of the implementation of a transformative History depends on a progressive approach to curriculum. It cannot be overemphasised that the process of literature review therefore offered space and great opportunity to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

3.9 Conclusion

In order to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools, the chapter gave the definitions of concepts including curriculum, curriculum change, History as a subject and transformative education. It was necessary to understand the above mentioned concepts so that this study could determine how well the teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

In this study the success of the implementation of the CAPF which was introduced in 2008, depends on teachers’ understanding of the framework and the way they perceive it. The discussed approaches to curriculum namely traditional, progressive, humanistic and praxis give direction to how teachers may view and implement the CAPF. Curriculum organised around traditional approaches, revolves around teacher-centred methods. The accelerating social changes and complexities attest to the fact that traditional methods of dealing with problems are ineffective and inadequate as highlighted by literature presented in the preceding sections. Progressive approach on the other, hand employs the learner-centred methods and the teacher becomes a facilitator, while humanistic approach encourages classroom environment that is caring, motivating and encourages collaboration. In nature praxis builds on progressive approach because similarly it encourages dialogue and freedom and as such negates authoritarian classroom practices and methods that enable critical skills and reflection.
In Lesotho the CAPF encourages a shift to the learner-centred practices. The CAPF shares a number of principles with the definition and the nature of History. In recent years the teaching of History has evolved from the study of facts in isolation of the development of other skills including analytical and problem solving. Both the CAPF and History as a subject seem to be calling for change in pedagogy, a shift towards humanisation and transformative curriculum. Both the definition and principles of transformative education enabled the researcher to determine how effective the classroom implementation is regarding the objectives that are envisaged by the Lesotho Government through CAPF.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research design adopted and the methodology employed by this study. The qualitative nature of research that guides this study suggests that the study takes an interpretive approach and utilises qualitative methods of collective data. The way in which sample was selected and data analysed was influenced by the qualitative methodology that structures this study. This chapter therefore explains how the qualitative methods namely observations, interviews and document analysis enabled the researcher to collect and analyse data collected from Lesotho high schools. This chapter further discusses the ethical procedures that were followed to allow for the success of the empirical research.

4.2 Aim and objectives of the empirical research

The main aim of this empirical research was to:

- Determine the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools

The main aim was supported by the following objectives:

- To determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum
- To establish how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum
- To present suggestions and recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum for Lesotho high schools.

4.3 Research Design, methodology and methods

Some initial enquiries in a research process are necessary and in the words of Vanson (2014: 1, they include an understanding of research design, considering all possible approaches to the design and choosing a design that is appropriate to the research question and objectives of the research. The University of Southern California (2017: 1) and Wacker (1998: 361-2) define research design as the overall strategy that the researcher chooses to develop the study and this is guided by a
theory upheld by the researcher. The research design helps develop the study in a coherent and logical way and thereby ensuring that the research question is addressed effectively. It is important to emphasise that the research question is the one that determines the design. In this study the research question was ‘What are the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools?’

The nature of the research question in this study required that the researcher be present in the place where the phenomenon occurred. In line with and considering the notion mentioned above, that the research question often suggests a certain approach, compelled the researcher to determine the strategy suitable to answer the question. The first thing was to identify and select the methodology to employ in the study and this first step was important, because in the words of Vanson (2014: 1) researchers should be aware that the choice of philosophical approach affects the rest of the methodology. The fact that the researcher intended to be in the place where the phenomenon was happening suggests that the researcher’s philosophy was about knowledge as a social construct.

Hence this study employed descriptive design because this design helped the researcher to explore the teaching context to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum for schools in Lesotho. According to Gravett (2004: 262) context affects the way teachers teach and since observations of people in their environment is embedded in descriptive design, information of the context was collected without changing the environment (The Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001: 1).

Using The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (2001: 1) and Lynn University (2005: 1) words employment of descriptive study provided information about the naturally occurring behaviour, attitudes and other characteristics of History teachers in Lesotho high schools. Lynn University (2005: 1) also argues that descriptive studies are conducted to demonstrate relationships between things in the world around the researcher. Consequently, descriptive design afforded the researcher to observe first-hand if the relationships between the teacher and students exemplified democratic principles, humanistic approaches and all other principles of a transformative History curriculum.
Descriptive design further enabled the researcher to determine if teachers had the knowledge and skills to implement transformative History curriculum in schools of Lesotho. Not only that, but to determine the nature of support that was available to the teachers to implement transformative History curriculum. From the foregoing it is evident that descriptive research contributed to collection of rich data that, not only led to achieving the aim, but to important recommendations of what can be done to implement transformative History curriculum in schools of Lesotho.

As mentioned previously descriptive research is embedded in qualitative methodology because the mentioned methodology allows the researcher to be in the natural settings in order to make meaning of the phenomena (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). In this study the natural settings were three high schools in Lesotho.

The next sub-section discusses qualitative methodology.

4.3.1 Qualitative Methodology

Qualitative research is methodology that is designed to reveal a range of behaviour and perceptions of the sample in the study (Qualitative Research Consultants Association, 2017: 1). De Gialdino (2009: 1) contends that qualitative research is interested in particular in the way in which the world is understood, experimented or produced by peoples' lives, behaviour and interactions. Furthermore qualitative research is interested in the senses, meanings, narratives, life experiences, actor's language and forms of social interactions. The main aim of this study suggests that the researcher was interested in the personal narratives, meanings and perceptions that were held by History teachers in Lesotho, regarding a transformative History curriculum, hence the use of qualitative methodology.

It is important to mention that methodology is the strategy, plan of action, or process lying behind the choice and use of particular methods. Methodology also links the choice and use of methods to the desired outcome (Ahmed, 2008: 5). In the words of (Ahmed, 2008: 5) the aim of methodology is to describe, evaluate and justify the use of particular methods. Carnaghan (2013: 1) shares similar view and adds that in qualitative research methods are inductive, emerging and are shaped by the researchers’ experience in collecting and analysing data. Guided by this definition
this section presents and discusses qualitative research methodology as a way of justifying the methods that were utilised to achieve the main aim of this study.

Qualitative methodology was suitable for this study, because qualitative research enabled the researcher to engage with the participants in their natural settings (which in this case were the three high schools in Lesotho) to evidence their everyday life and experiences. This is because qualitative research is interpretive, inductive and uses multiple methods (De Gialdino, 2009: 1) to understand behaviour and perception and the results are descriptive (Nieuwehuis, 2007: 51 and Edirisingha, 2012: 1). The nature of the main aim required rich data in terms of the attitudes, behaviour and actions and to understand why teachers teach the way they do. Guided by the nature of the research aim and descriptive research this study was therefore underpinned in qualitative methodology.

Qualitative methodology was further encouraged by De Gialdino’s (2009: 1) assertion that qualitative research is sensitive to both the studied people’s special features and the social context in which data is produced and that it is relational, because it is fundamentally grounded in communication. The critical pedagogy that guides this study is dialogic in nature and encourages communication, hence qualitative methodology was deemed suitable for this study. Through conversations, qualitative research enabled the researcher to make meaning from what the History teachers in Lesotho high schools did and said. Secondly being in the school environment allowed the researcher to celebrate the richness and depth of the unfolding story (Lynch, 2014: 1) and to make meaning and establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum.

The use of qualitative research was fundamental in enabling the researcher to achieve the main aim of this study because De Gialdino (2009: 1) attests that qualitative research focuses on real located practice and it is based on an interactive process involving both the researcher and the social actors. It is important to mention that according to Nieuwehuis (2007: 51), Edirisingha (2012: 1) and de Gialdino (2009: 1) qualitative research focuses on the context as well as the observed social situations where relationships between the participants and researcher take place. In addition it is in context that senses are created, perspectives are defined and meanings are constructed. This study adopted Hathaway (195: 548) definition of
context, which refers to the complete local culture, people, resources, purposes and future expectations in a particular situation which in this case was high schools in Lesotho. Considering that this study was guided by qualitative methodology implies that the study could not separate participants from context.

It is all the above presented discussions that make qualitative methodology to be embedded in the assumption of the interpretive paradigm because the latter aims to make meaning of social action in the context of the life-world and from the actors’ perspectives (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). Therefore the next sub-section discusses interpretive paradigm in order to understand it better and how it influences the methods that are utilised in qualitative research and how the methods were employed to achieve the main aim and objectives of this study.

4.3.2 The Interpretive Research Paradigm

The interpretive nature of qualitative research emphasises that knowledge cannot be constructed from one reality (Research Methodology, 2016: 1) and rejects absolute facts, but rather suggests that facts are based on perception rather than objective truth. In other words interpretivists are of the view that knowledge cannot be constructed from one reality (Vanson, 2014: 1; Research Methodology, 2016: 1 and De Gialdino, 2009: 1) (Drawing from Denzin and Lincoln 1994; Creswell 1998). It is within approaching knowledge from multiple realities that the conclusions are derived from the interpretations of the participants rather than the abstract theories of the researcher.

This abovementioned view is shared by Edirisingha (2012: 1) that interpretivists believe the reality is multiple and therefore relative. The multiple realities also depend on other systems for meanings, which make it even more difficult to interpret in terms of fixed realities. It is these multiple realities that help to make meaning from the actions and words of the participants. Interpretive methodology therefore unpins this study, because the main aim was to concentrate on understanding and interpretations that were attached to transformative History curriculum by History teachers in Lesotho high schools. Interpretivist paradigm therefore allowed the researcher to determine the feelings and reasons that governed actions by the teachers.
Furthermore interpretivism accepts influence from both science and personal experiences and primarily it is non quantitative (Edirisingha, 2012: 1). Considering that this study was based within qualitative methodology, implies that the aim was not to generalise nor use statistics, but to understand the experiences of the History teachers in Lesotho high schools. The study also employed interpretivist research, because knowledge acquired in this manner is socially constructed rather than objectively determined and perceived (Lauer, 2006: 17 and Edirisingha, 2012: 1). Another point was that interpretivists avoid rigid structural frameworks, such as in positivist research because interpretivists need to capture meaning in human interactions and make sense of what is perceived as reality (Lauer, 2006: 17 and Edirisingha, 2012: 1).

Unlike the positivist approach which does not allow for the subjective opinion of the researcher, because the approach deals with measurable relations, interpretive approach does not apply any universal laws. This is because according to Vanson (2014: 1) and Research Methodology (2016: 1), with interpretive paradigm, the world is always being developed and re-developed by reflective, thinking and feeling beings, who are able to make a difference to their environment. In addition in interpretive paradigm the focus is on meaning and perceived realities, rather than facts.

It is important to mention that fundamental to interpretive paradigm is the belief that knowledge comes from human experience and that reality is constructed by those participating in it. Therefore the aim of interpretive inquiry is to describe in detail a specific phenomenon under study (Hathaway, 1995: 544). The abovementioned nature of interpretive paradigm encouraged the researcher to conduct empirical research in three high schools in Lesotho in order to know and understand teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum. Secondly the approach was influenced and guided by the interpretive paradigm that states that the researcher can only come to know of the reality and situation by examining the context and by being in the situation (Hathaway, 1995: 544). Being in three high schools in Lesotho, the researcher was able to examine the context under which the teachers work and to describe the stream of events and activities that were part of the school culture in detail.
Thirdly the approach was necessary because fundamentally interpretivist approaches follow that the researcher can appreciate the meanings that people place on different constructions, because knowledge comes from human experience (Vanson, 2014: 1). Consequently, being in the situation, enabled the researcher to focus on what happened in totality in each of the three schools, using multiple methods that encouraged in-depth study. Borrowing from Vanson (2014: 1) the approach was necessary in assisting to explain why people have different experiences of the world, rather than search for external causes and fundamental laws to explain their behaviour.

The researcher acted as an interpreter of the behaviour, actions and words of the History teachers, as there was interaction between the former and the participants. The process continues to emphasise that context was an important factor to ensure that in-depth data was collected from teachers in Lesotho high schools, in order to understand their motives and meanings they attach to a transformative History curriculum. This is because interpretive approaches rely heavily on naturalistic methods (observations and interviews and analysing of existing text) (Robert Wood Johnson Foundation (RWJF), 2008: 1). Therefore it is evident that it is in context that senses are created, perspectives are defined and meanings are constructed (De Gialdino, 2009: 1).

Positivists on the other hand hold the view that the only authentic knowledge is scientific knowledge based on gathering measurable evidence and employing principles of reasoning (Mastin, 2008: 1). In light of the foregoing it is evident that epistemology in positivist research employs objective approach and is closely connected to verifications of knowledge (Mastin, 2008: 1) and replication of results in research. Considering that it was not the intention of this study to generalise and predict causes and effects, but to understand motives, meanings and reason and other subjective experiences, which according to (Edirisingha, 2012: 1) are time and context bound, made interpretivist research suitable for this study. In addition data collected in this study required narrative descriptions so qualitative research methodology was deemed suitable, because the aforementioned is interested in the senses, the meanings in personal narratives and in life stories in actors’ language (De Gialdino, 2009: 1).
The employment of descriptive design and interpretive nature of qualitative methodology in this study was essential to explore the curriculum and teaching context of schools in Lesotho. This is as mentioned in the previous paragraphs it is in context that senses are created, perspectives are defined and meanings are constructed (De Gialdino, 2009: 1) and so that actors (participants) and their situations can hardly be separated in the studies undertaken by social sciences. The foregoing necessitates the discussion of the ontological and epistemological assumptions of qualitative research. The discussion is important because Vanson (2014: 1) argues that the choice of view in the research field is linked with preference of the researcher and the varieties and validities of the knowledge. For this reason the researchers are encouraged to be aware of their own bias and should constantly question assumptions and subjectivity throughout the research project. In this study as highlighted in the previous sub-sections, the preferences of the researcher were linked to the qualitative research, hence the discussion of the ontological and epistemological assumptions of qualitative research.

4.3.3 Ontological and Epistemological assumptions of qualitative research

Ontology and epistemology are very commonly used within academia and both act as the foundations of the approach to a research question. And according to Vanson (2014: 1) both range from positivist stance to interpretivist stance. Positivist stance is deductive and is a more scientific view that focuses on counting and measuring and it is associated with quantitative research. On the other hand interpretivist stance is inductive and concentrates on deeper truth and reasoning views and is associated with qualitative research (Vanson, 2014: 1) (drawing from Saundres, Lewis & Thornhill 2007).

4.3.3.1 Ontological assumptions

(Borrowing from Crotty 2003) Ahmed (2008: 2) defines ontology as the study of being and that specifically in research, ontology is concerned with what kind of world or the nature of reality, the researchers are investigating. The nature of social entities in qualitative research, suggests that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being changed and revised through social interactions as argued by Vanson (2014: 1). Carnaghan (2013: 1) states that researchers embrace the idea of
multiple realities and report on these multiple realities by exploring multiple terms of evidence from different individuals.

This study therefore used ontology which is essentially of human beings who have their own thoughts and meanings and this is clearly demonstrated by the use of the interpretive paradigm design. The purpose of the use of the abovementioned paradigm was to interpret Lesotho History teachers’ actions, behaviour, feeling and thoughts, regarding a transformative History curriculum. The described approach was necessary because Ahmed (2008: 2) and Vanson (2014: 1) contend that with the ontological assumptions, which deal with the nature of existence there are no right or wrong answers, as different people view topics differently depending on their role, value sets and background.

Another point is that in qualitative research there is a great emphasis that the participants should be regarded as subjects and not objects. According to De Gialdino (2009: 1) the reluctance of researchers to see subjects participating in the knowledge process as object, is not based on the fact of having a different view of the ontological nature of social reality, but on the fact of claiming different ontological characteristics in relation to human being identity. This identity is the foundation of their dignity and constitutes what makes them equal and making each individual unique.

In this study participants were drawn from three different schools in Maseru, Lesotho and each participant was distinguished from others in terms of who each was, regarding experiences and the context they were exposed to and served in. This approach was necessary fundamentally, because each participant and each context has its own assumptions and this has implications on the way it gives out evidence. Secondly the approach was suitable, because qualitative research is nourished mostly by the different nature of the information provided by the people participating in the inquiry (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). Moreover understanding the reality experienced by participants, guides the interpretive researcher, suggesting that an interpretive researcher would not look for laws governing reality because ultimate reality is constructed and understood differently for each individual (Hathaway, 1995: 545).

Having discussed the ontological position the researcher finds it deemed to present the epistemology of this study.
4.3.3.2 Epistemological assumptions

Ahmed (2008: 3) draws from (Maynard 1994) and states that epistemology is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know. Furthermore epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kind of knowledge are possible and how people can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate. Hathaway (1995: 544) and Vanson (2014: 1) share the same view and add that epistemology is about the information that counts as acceptable knowledge and how it should be acquired and interpreted. In addition epistemology is knowledge and understanding of participants’ aims, perspectives, assumptions and terms in which their everyday life is grasped.

Moreover epistemology is the articulation of the local social context of interaction. In the words of Carnaghan (2013: 1) and Vanson (2014: 1) knowing has its roots in social, cultural and language based interactions. Therefore epistemology usually helps researchers to adopt methods that are characteristic of that position, which the researcher accepts. The researchers are therefore guided by their own individual principles, belief systems, motives and constraints, which in turn decide the events to be noticed and events to be ignored, the evidence to be collected and the evidence to be set aside in building an argument.

So Carnaghan (2013: 1) argues that in qualitative research projects, researchers try to get as close as possible to participants being studied and then assemble subjective evidence, based on individual views from research conducted in the field. Resorting to the knowledge of others through observations and interviews is paramount in qualitative research, because the cooperative knowledge construction assures that the dissimilar ways of knowing, produce equally legitimate knowledge (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). In practice and regarding the interviews, the researcher asks broad general open-ended questions and focuses on the processes of interaction (Carnaghan, 2013: 1). Furthermore the researcher focuses on the historical and cultural settings of the participants, acknowledges their background and interprets meanings others have about the world.

This research adopted qualitative methods to acquire knowledge on teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The methods were encouraged by Hathaway (1995: 547) contention that for the
interpretive paradigm, knowledge is knowledge only as understood within the social context in which it takes place. The meaning of a particular interaction can be understood and has meaning only within the specific context in which it occurred. Therefore the three schools in Maseru Lesotho offered a platform for understanding and making meaning of the actions of the participants. Thus the next sub-section discusses research participants.

4.4 Research participants

Research participants, also called human subjects or study subjects are people who participate in human subject research by being the target of observation by researchers (Wikipedia The Free Encyclopedia, 2017: 1). The next sub-sections discuss population and sampling, because they relate directly to research participants.

4.4.1 Population

Explorable (2009: 1) argues that there are two types of population in research namely target population and accessible population. The entire group of individuals of which the researchers are interested in generalising the conclusions, is referred to as target population or theoretical population (Explorable, 2009: 1) and (Trochim, 2006: 1). Both authors contend that the entire research population has similar characteristics for the main focus of a scientific inquiry whom the researcher would like to sample from.

In order to determine the target population in this study, the researcher utilised Strydom (2011: 332) argument that, the choice of the problem is automatically linked directly to the particular field in which the inquiry is to undertaken. The main aim of this study was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools. The research question was therefore located within the Ministry of Education and so links the population to teachers in Lesotho schools.

Accessible population, on the other hand, is the population in research to which the researcher can apply their conclusions. This population is a subset of the target population and is also known as the study population. It is from the accessible population that researchers draw their samples. Once researchers have identified the theoretical population, they have to get a list of members of the accessible
population and the group that the researcher selects to be in the study and this is referred to as sample (Trochim, 2006: 1). Considering that the main aim of this study is teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools suggests that the population was History teachers in Lesotho. However because it is not always possible to involve everyone in the study, it was necessary that only some teachers were selected to participate. This view leads to the discussion of sampling.

4.4.2 Sampling

Sampling refers to how researchers select members from the population to be in the study (Khan Academy, 2018: 1). The selection of members is due to large sizes of populations and the fact that researchers often cannot test everyone in the population, because it is too expensive and time consuming (Explorable, 2009: 1). Since there is rarely enough time or money to gather information from everyone in population the goal therefore becomes finding a representative sample of that population (Khan Academy, 2018: 1).

Sample is therefore a subset of the population and it must be representative of the population from which it was drawn and must have a good size to warrant situational analysis (Explorable, 2009: 1) concurs, but emphasises that sample is a group of individuals who actually participated in the study and this in qualitative research are individuals that the researcher ends up interviewing. The definition goes further to explain that people who could have been participants in the study, but did not actually participate, are not considered part of the sample but are referred to as sampling frame.

In this study, like it was mentioned in the preceding sub-section, the population was History teachers in Lesotho, but since they could not all be included in the study, only three History teachers in schools in Maseru Lesotho became the sample. It is worth mentioning that qualitative methodology, which encourages researchers to interact with small groups of participants in their natural settings (Nieuwehuis, 2007: 51) in order to make meaning of the phenomena, encouraged the use of a small sample. Two teachers came from two government schools and one from one of the international schools in Lesotho. The three schools that participated in this study operate under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Training as mandated
by the Constitution of Lesotho. The foregoing suggests that the changes in the revised CAPF were applicable to all the three schools, highlighting that the three schools had something in common. The choice of local and international contexts in this study was encouraged by literature presented in the previous sections that contends that meaning and perspectives are made in context. This went a long way to establish the understanding and meaning attached to a transformative History curriculum.

The foregoing necessitate the discussion of the how sampling was achieved and the next sub-section presents the types of sampling

4.4.2.1 Types of sampling

Crossman (2018: 1) posits that when conducting research, it is hardly ever possible to study the entire population that the researcher is interested in. Hence researchers rely on sample techniques when they seek to collect data and answer research questions. This study has identified two types of sampling in research namely probability and non-probability samples.

4.4.2.1.1 Probability sampling (representative sampling)

Probability sampling is alternatively known as random sampling and with sampling that selects samples in such a way to be representative of the population. Surbhi (2016: 1) argues that probability sampling technique is based on the randomisation principle whereby the procedure is designed to guarantee that each and every individual of the population has an equal selection opportunity. Furthermore research that utilises probability sampling is conclusive, the methods are objective and inferences are statistical. Ladner (2008: 1) contends that the foregoing is particularly important if the researcher is following a quantitative research design.

4.4.2.1.2 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is sampling that utilises non-random sampling and some consider this type of sampling as not truly representative because some elements of the population have no chance of selection (Khan Academy, 2018: 1). It involves the selection of elements based on assumptions regarding population of interest, which forms the criteria for selection and selection is done arbitrarily. According to Surbhi
(2016: 1) with the non-probability techniques there is no probability attached to the unit of the population. Therefore the selection relies on the subjective judgement of the researcher. In addition the conclusions drawn by the researcher cannot be inferred from the sample to the whole population.

In addition researchers that employ non-probability sampling are exploratory, subjective and analytical. It is also important to mention that the assumptions of qualitative sampling are based on the notion that social actors are not predictable like objects; that randomised events are irrelevant in social life, that probability sampling is expensive; hence non-probability is regarded as the best for qualitative research (Ladner, 2008: 1). Considering that this study was guided by qualitative methods the literature cited above seem to suggest that sampling should not be like sampling that is based on statistical methods. Consequently the non-probability sampling was suitable to select the sample for the reason that the study did not seek to generalise conclusions to the larger population. Secondly the descriptive nature that is embedded in interpretive paradigm suggests that participants were considered as subjects and not objects.

There are many examples of different strategies that are used to draw a sample in qualitative research and these utilise the non-probability methods which include: convenience, quota and purposive. According to Curtis, Gesler, Smith & Washburn (2000: 1002) purposive criteria is one of the best criteria to use. This is basically because with this purposive criterion, samples are small and are studied intensively to generate a large amount of information. Surbhi (2016: 1) shares the view and further states that in purposive sampling, the researchers choose sampled units, which by their judgment, will meet the specific purpose of the study. The foregoing is necessary, because the goal of qualitative research is to deeply explore the views of a group of participants with the same characteristics. The above view is similar to Curtis et al., (2000: 1002) that sample selection is conceptually driven by the theoretical framework which underpins the research question.

Against this backdrop this study employed purposeful/purposive sampling, because the sample is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher (Pellissier, 2007: 24). The population in this study was History teachers in Lesotho. For this reason the sample was three teachers of Basic Education [Form A and C], because these
teachers could assist the researcher to establish the understanding meanings and meaning given to transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools. It is important to highlight that previously Form A, B and C were known as secondary school, but in the Revised CAFP they now constitute Basic Education and referred to as Grade 8 – 10 respectively.

One teacher was from an international school and two from local schools, all based in the Maseru district in Lesotho. The small sample and location was further influenced by accessibility in terms of finances, distance between schools and the availability of time. The population sampling was also guided by Springer (2010: 283) who attests that qualitative sampling typically focuses on small numbers of individuals who are likely to be informative. Hence three teachers became the sample in this study, because a purposive sample is small (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 79). In addition, qualitative literature asserts that researchers seek out individuals and settings where specific processes being studied, are most likely to occur. The choice of local and international settings/context allowed the researcher to establish perceptions from different settings, in order to collect rich and deep data on transformative History curriculum. The choice of participants was regardless of gender, race, age and cultural background.

It can therefore be mentioned that sampling in this study was also based on convenience where Coyne (1997: 624) and Pellissier (2007: 24) participants are selected because of their availability, convenience and proximity to the researcher. There is more evidence that indicates that purposive sampling is the best criteria to use. Research Methodology (2008: 1) posits that researchers in qualitative research select their participants according to their characteristics and knowledge and this is a feature for purpose sampling. Research Methodology (2008: 1) states that there are many examples of purposive sampling, but just like literature cited above, homogenous sampling is the best because, it selects certain people, because they possess similar characteristics. The choice of purposive sampling was therefore encouraged by the discussions above.

It is for the above-mentioned reasons and for the notion that a qualitative researcher should be reflective and explicit about the rationale for case selection (Curtis et al., 2000: 1002) that this study utilised purposive sampling as the strategy to select the
sample. The choice of purposive sampling strategy was also suitable, because it created an opportunity for the researcher to observe a fundamental feature for qualitative research for the ethical and theoretical implications, regarding the participants. Another influence for employment of purposive sampling was the fact that qualitative samples are designed to make a possible analytic conclusion applied on the basis of how selection fits with the constructs and not on statistical generalisation as stated by Curtis et al., 2000: 1002).

With probability sampling literature that was presented earlier in this sub-section, seems to suggest that the larger the size of sample, the better, because larger samples tend to be more similar to the population from which they are drawn. However, considering that the large sample requires more time for data collection and that makes it to be more costly, made non-probability with the use of purposive sample to be the best sample technique for this study. Purposive sampling was therefore encouraged by the accessibility of the participants in terms of time, financial implications, distance and their availability. Although the three schools are located in different locations, one to the north, another south and the third to the east of the capital Maseru, they are only a few kilometres away from each other. So the researcher did not have to spend a lot of time moving from one school to the other. This sample size was therefore enough and relevant, because the purpose was not to generalise the findings, but to get a rich and deep understanding of the meaning that is attached to transformative History curriculum by the teachers in Lesotho high schools.

Finally it should be highlighted again that according to Curtis et al., (2000: 1002) purposive samples are small and studied intensively to generate information. Consequently purposive sampling was used to create a sample that exclusively included three high school History teachers in Maseru Lesotho that were observed and interviewed to collect data. The three were selected, because they could fit in for the purpose of the research, which was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

The next sub-section discusses issue relating to selection of schools that participated in this study.
### 4.4.3 Site selection and situation analysis

Selecting sites for research purposes may be a difficult and seemingly overwhelming task. Familiarity with a site might help with selection, but multiple contributing factors can influence whether or not a site is ultimately chosen. Researchers are reminded by Metcalf, Kemper, Kohn & Pickreign (1996: 4) that communities to study are one of the most significant decisions in research. This is so because the decision will affect the study for its duration and will determine how the results are received as well as the ultimate credibility. Metcalf et al., (1996: 4) are quick to state that site sample design is influenced by three major issues namely, how sites are defined, how many are studied and how they are selected. Other contributing factors to consider when selecting a site can include accessibility and population (does the site have the appropriate teachers (Steinhagen, 2015: 1).

Sites in this study were simply defined as schools in Lesotho and the location of eligible schools in this study was focused in the City of Maseru. Location was influenced by issues regarding convenience in terms of time, funds and accessibility specifically. The next step was to determine which schools in Maseru, Lesotho were eligible to form the sample and in order to be eligible for inclusion in the research sample, a school had to offer History as a subject, either at secondary or high school level or both and this was influenced by King County Metro’s (2011: 1) view on site selection methods. The third step was then to determine the size of the sample and in general terms many authors, including Khan Academy (2018: 1) state that the larger the size the better, because large samples tend to be more similar to the population from which they are drawn.

However, on the other hand many authors, including Khan Academy (2018: 1) state that if the population of interest is small, then the sample can be relatively small. Ladner (2008:1) is of the view also that the number of sites is not an issue, what is really important is the deep understanding of the phenomenon by the researcher. Considering that there were a few schools in Maseru that offered History as a subject, implied that the sample size was already affected by the situation and so it was small too. It is for the contention above that this study was guided by interpretivism, which emphasises a small sample. Therefore purposive sampling was a relevant choice for this study because the sample was small and guided by the aim...
of the study to understand and make meaning of the phenomenon. Hence the number of sites sampled in this study was three high schools. The three schools were further selected because of their easy access in terms of finances and proximity to the researcher.

The process of sampling then necessitated for the researcher to decide on the number of participants. Considering that the number of schools in Maseru offering History was few, followed logic that the sample of participants was to remain few too in order to allow the researcher to acquire deep understanding of the actions, words and perceptions of teachers, regarding a transformative History curriculum. The above described sampling strategy was suitable for this study, because in the words of Curtis, et al., (2000: 1003) the sampling plan should be feasible in terms of the resources, costs of money and time and the whole practical issue of accessibility and compatibility with the researcher’s work style.

Not only that, but those schools were to offer History either at secondary level and high school or at secondary level only. Whatever the case there were History teachers that could be observed and interviewed to determine what goes on in the classroom, around the school and what were the interpersonal relationships. This allowed for the depth study of the phenomenon, in order to achieve the main objective of the study. It is important to note that only a few schools in Maseru and in Lesotho at large still offered History as a subject at the time of research. The reasons for this state of affairs are not well articulated and are not in the scope for this study.

However, from previous knowledge as member of the History Panel working under the auspices of the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) between 2005 and 2008, History was once faced off in schools and replaced by Development Studies for the sole reason that there was a claim that it was not performed well at Junior Certificate (JC) level and Cambridge Overseas Secondary Certificate (COSC) (Form E), as compared to other subjects. When it was reinstated around 2012, many principals still did not heed the call by the MOET to allow History to take its place as one of the subjects offered in Lesotho high schools.

It is against this background, that the sites that were selected were few. The selection was also guided by Ladner’s (2008: 1) assertion that the number of sites is
not an issue, what is really important is the deep understanding of the phenomenon by the researchers. The site selection was therefore guided by literature presented on sampling about non-probability in qualitative research. Consequently the issue of research site selection was not based on an effort to gain a representation sample, but to gain a purposive sample that would allow for emergent practices to understand the culture and social relationships and to enhance analytic and interpretation of data collected, to achieve the main aim of the study.

The next step was situation analysis. The Health Compass (2008: 1) argues that a situational analysis is the fundamental first step in the social and behaviour change. A situation analysis guides the identification of priorities and interventions and informs all of the following steps. It establishes a clear, detailed and realistic picture of the opportunities, resources, challenges and barriers regarding a phenomenon. The quality of a situation analysis will affect the success of the entire project. It is in this regard that The University of Nebraska (2018: 1) suggests that somebody always has to go first to be the one who explores new territory, advances the boundaries of knowledge, and sees possibilities no one has seen before. The first step in a situation analysis is a literature review, in order to help identify what is known about a particular behaviour and gaps in knowledge.

Consequently the researcher consulted literature to learn more about transformative education and a transformative History curriculum. The process created opportunity for the researcher to identify the gaps between the CAPF and the implementation of the revised framework. Hence the researcher developed an interest to determine the meaning that was attached to a transformative History curriculum by History teachers in Lesotho high schools.

The next sub-section presents the profiles of three sampled schools and those of the three sampled teachers. School backgrounds and teachers profiles are necessary, because this study involves human participants and it is important to mention where they came from. The potential participants came from Lesotho high schools, because of the nature of the research question. The selected schools became insight of the settings that had the potential to be the clue that might unlock more comprehensive understanding of the context. Different context were necessary, because they provided the researcher with different environments and the impact of
such an environment on the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. In this way the chosen sites was to offer a rich data collection.

4.4.3.1 School 1 – school background

School 1 is an English Medium located in Maseru, Lesotho and the school community composes of different nationalities and with people of different religious affiliations. School 1 operates in accordance with the rules and regulations of the Ministry of Education and Training and so it is answerable to the Principal Secretary of Education. This School is accredited by different accreditation boards, including CIS. In School 1 both males and female students are taught together, thus this school can be referred to as what is called a co-educational school. According to Teacher A the Head Teacher and Deputy are recruited from backgrounds that already have exposed them to new trends in education, teaching and learning.

In School 1 History is offered from Grade 8 to Grade 12. It is compulsory from Grade 8 to Grade 10 and is an elective in Grade 11 and Grade 12. School C has three streams for students in Grade 8 to Grade 10 and so the number of students per class is between twenty five and thirty. The size of the rooms and the low numbers of students allow for desks to be arranged according to the needs of the teacher. However in Grade 11 and Grade 12 there are necessarily no streams because many of the subjects including History, are electives and so the numbers are determined by how many selected the subject. For the History classroom in Grade 11 and 12 there are 8 and 12 students respectively, making History the second subject with a low number of students in the school.

School 1 has installed projectors and computers in most of the classrooms and the History classroom is among those with the mentioned resources. The School also has a computer lab with access to the Internet, but the lab is specifically used for teaching Computer lessons and Information Technology. However the community of the school, including teachers and students still has access to Internet facilities. There is also a library with a variety of books for different subjects and different departments have a number of reference books. There is also a well-equipped science lab.
In this School History is taught by a number of teachers some of whom are not qualified teachers and others who did not study History at higher levels of education. With regard to the timetable, Teacher A’s is laden with 30 lessons of forty minutes each. The Grade 10 History results in the last three years show a consistent 75% pass rate

**Teacher A profile**

Teacher A is a female of 45 years at the time of the study. The Teacher is qualified with a B. Ed. in Accounting and Commerce as teaching subjects, possesses Honours Degree and Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) in the same majors. Teacher A also graduated in 2010 with Masters in Education (MEd) Policy and Governance and has been in the teaching profession for more than twenty years. However Teacher A started to teach History only in 2012, implying that this teacher has six years’ experience in teaching History. All three Grade 10 History classes are taught by Teacher A. It should be highlighted that Teacher A does not teach History only, but is also teaching her own subjects of specialisation.

**4.4.3.2 School 2 – school background**

School 2 is a Government school in Maseru, Lesotho and it offers the localised curriculum, namely LGCSE. This localised curriculum is accredited and recognised by Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) and according to ECOL the curriculum and certification are recognised internationally. School 2 is co-educational for it has male and female students who are taught together. In School 2 recruitment and appointment of both Head teacher and deputy is done differently from that in school 1. In this school according to Teacher B appointment is guided by long service in the school.

School 2 is one of the long established schools and has two streams for every class. At this school History is offered from Grade 8 to Grade 12 and it is taught by two teachers. Each teaches one set from Grade 8 to Grade 12. The number of students in each class from Grade 8 to Grade 10 is between 45 and 50. The numbers in Grade 11 and Grade 12 drop to 15 and 18 respectively because the subject is an elective.
Within the staffroom building there is a computer room where there are three computers that are utilised by the teachers at their different times, on first come first serve basis. There are no facilities for Internet and so the computers are simply for typing purposes. There are different departments with their own offices within the main building. The classroom walls are mounted with chalkboards and notice boards and because of the large numbers of students in each Grade 8 to 10 classrooms, the chairs are arranged all facing the chalkboard at all times. Teacher B has 27 lessons of forty minutes each.

The Grade 10 History results in the last three years show a pass rate – 60%, 63% and 58% respectively.

Teacher B profile

Teacher B is a female aged 29 years and is a bearer of a BA Degree in Geography and Environmental Management. Teacher B graduated in 2015 and started teaching in 2016, meaning that this teacher has one year and a few months in the teaching field. Teacher B teaches History and Geography to Grade 8 and Grade 9 students. It is necessary to highlight that Teacher B is not a qualified teacher.

4.4.3.3 School 3 – school background

School 3 just like School 2 is a government school in Maseru, Lesotho and it is one of the pilot schools for the localised curriculum. LGCSE is accredited and recognised by CIE and therefore according to ECOL it is recognised internationally. School 3 is co-educational for it has male and female students who are taught together. Just like in School 2 in School 3 appointment of the Head teacher and deputy is guided by long service in the school.

School 3 has two classes of Grade 8 to Grade 12 and English is the medium of instruction. History is taught from Grade 8 to Grade 12 and it is compulsory in Grade 8 and Grade 10, but an elective in Grade 11 and Grade 12. In each class of Grade 8 – 10 there are between 55 and 60 students and because of such large numbers the desks are arranged all facing the chalkboard at all times. In School 3, History is taught by one teacher from Grade 8 to Grade 12. Teacher C had 30 lessons of forty minutes each.
There is a computer lab and twenty computers in School 3, however there is no Internet. Teachers use the lab simply for typing materials. In terms of books individual students are expected to buy their own prescribed books, in this case it is only one History book. In the History classrooms the chalkboards are the only things mounted on the walls. In this school there is a library with a few books and a photocopying machine, which for the duration of the empirical research, was out of order. One of the classrooms is used as a science lab that is short of equipment necessary for a science lab.

The LGCSE results for History in particular, seemed to indicate some improvement from just 55% to 70% in 2016 and 90% in 2017.

Teacher C profile

Teacher C is a male teacher aged 35 years and is a qualified History teacher. The Teacher graduated with Diploma in Education in 2012 and joined the teaching profession soon after. Teacher C started the teaching career in 2012 and School C is the first school that the Teacher started his teaching career in. At the time of the study Teacher C had five years and some months as a teacher in School C and in the process to further studies with one of the universities to pursue Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT).

Having presented the type of sampling and produced information on schools and teachers that participated in the study, the next step that is as important, is to discuss how data was collected.

4.4.4 Data Collection

Data collection is a process of collecting information from all relevant sources to find answers to the research problem, test hypothesis and evaluate the outcome (Research Methodology in Education, 2016: 1).

University of Minnesota (2018: 1) argues that when evaluating a program there are alternative ways for the researchers to get information and this includes the choice of data collection methods. The data collection methods can be divided into two groups namely; qualitative and quantitative methods. Hathaway (1995: 541) states that both qualitative and quantitative approaches can serve research purposes but in different
ways and with different effects. Therefore the way in which they are used and the insight provided is a function of the paradigms grounding the approaches.

The choice between qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection according to University of Minnesota (2018: 1) therefore depends on the area of research and the nature of the research aim and objectives. In addition each field has its preferred set of data collection instruments. In social sciences where the primary data collection involves human subjects, researchers are taught to incorporate one or more secondary measures that can be used to verify the quality of information being collected from human subjects. It is imperative to mention once again that this study followed qualitative research. Consequently the study was obliged to employ qualitative data collection methods. The discussion of data collection methods was therefore necessary in this study to enable the researcher to identify the relevant data collection methods to answer the main aim of “teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools” and to address the objectives as well.

Hathaway (1995: 545) offers the view that for qualitative and interpretive inquiry, the researcher becomes an actor in a real situation and continues to mention that the researcher must attend to the total situation and integrate information from all directions including interviews and observations simultaneously. It is in the manner described above that the researcher engages what is being researched to understand what is taking place. The researcher’s knowledge can then be used as a guide, directing the researcher to possibilities and insights into that which is being researched.

In this study the researcher came into contact with the phenomenon in reality by being in the classroom in Lesotho high schools and observed as History was being taught. Being in the classroom was necessary because according to Hathaway (1995: 547) understanding the events, activities and utterances in a specific situation, requires a complex appreciation of the overall context in which the phenomenon occurs. Qualitative data collecting methods play an important role in impact and evaluation by providing information that is useful to understand the process and assess changes in people’s perceptions of their well-being (University of Wisconsin, 2008: 1). Qualitative methods are characterised by the fact that they
tend to be open-ended and have less structured protocols. This means that the researchers may change the data collection strategy by adding, refining or dropping informants.

Secondly qualitative methods rely heavily on interactive interviews and participants may be interviewed several times to follow up on a particular issue, clarify concepts or check the reliability of data. Thirdly they use triangulation to increase the credibility of other findings. Finally with qualitative methods generally the findings are not generalised to any specific population. Rather each case study produces a single piece of evidence that can be used to seek general patterns among different studies of the same issue (University of Wisconsin, 2008: 1). Contrary to qualitative data collection methods there are quantitative data collection methods. Research Methodology in Education (2018: 1) posits that quantitative data collection methods are based in mathematical calculations in various formats and include questionnaires with closed ended questions. In addition quantitative data collection methods rely on random sampling and structured data collection instruments (University of Wisconsin, 2018: 1).

Since qualitative data collection methods do not involve numbers or mathematical calculations and instead are concerned with words, sound and feeling, they were considered suitable for this study, because of the descriptive and interpretivist design of this study. The interpretivist nature of research allowed this study to utilise qualitative research methods, namely: observations (where participants are observed in their natural environment), interviews and document analysis to capture the freedom and natural development of the phenomenon. It is important to highlight that both the interviews and observations are regarded as primary methods of collecting data fundamentally, because they include information collected and processed directly by the researcher (University of Minnesota, 2018: 1).

As important was that this study was guided by critical pedagogy and this theory is based on dialogue and negates a one-sided relationship (Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014: 81-82; Daily Struggles, 2016: 1). The dialogic nature of critical pedagogy allowed this study to employ qualitative data collection methods. Henning, Van Rensburg & Smith (2004: 5) contend that qualitative research methods allow the respondents a more open-ended way of giving their views and demonstrating their actions. In addition
qualitative research is nourished mostly by the different nature of the information provided by the people participating in the inquiry (De Gialdino, 2009: 1).

The above described philosophical assumptions seem to suggest that epistemology in qualitative research is directly linked to constructivism. This is basically because Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) states that constructivism accepts reality as a social construct and as subjective. This view is similar to that attached to interpretivist positions that are founded on the theoretical belief that reality is socially constructed and that what is known is always negotiated within the cultures, social settings and relationship with other people. The foregoing seems to suggest that both interpretivist paradigm and constructivism oppose the idea that there is a single methodology to generate knowledge.

Considering that both are grounded in qualitative research, further implies that they both utilise qualitative methods, which include observations and open-ended interviews (Nieuwehuis, 2007: 51). This study utilised semi-structured interviews and class observation to ensure that only the relevant information to address the research question was collected. These methods were suitable for this study fundamentally, because qualitative research rigour lies in the consistency between the research objectives and the underlying paradigmatic assumptions (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). The second reason that made both the observations and interviews suitable as data collection tools in this study, was a combination of ontological and epistemological assumptions of constructivism that knowledge is not passively accumulated, but rather is an active involvement based on social interaction (Research Methodology in Education, 2016: 1).

It is against this backdrop that being present in three Lesotho high schools as the teachers taught, History allowed the researcher to be an active observer. This is because the ontological assumptions of both interpretivism and constructivism suggest that reality is not rigid, can be interpreted and it is a social process of meaning making (Vanson, 2014: 1 and Carnaghan, 2013: 1). The class observations and interviews that were employed in this study afforded interaction, dialogue and language. The forgoing helped the researcher to establish the meaning that teachers in Lesotho high schools give to a transformative History curriculum.
4.4.4.1 Observations as data collection method

Observation is a systematic data collection approach and researchers use all their senses to examine people in their natural settings (RWJF, 2008: 1). In addition observations might be used first when understanding of a setting in a detailed way is valuable. Secondly observations might be used when it is important to study a phenomenon in its natural setting and finally when asking people what they do is likely to be different from actual behaviour.

So, observation of a field setting involves spending a prolonged amount of time in the setting; clearly expressed, self-conscious notations of how observation is done; methodical and tactical improvisation in order to develop a full understanding of the setting of interest and recording one’s observations (Kawulich, 2005: 1; RWJF, 2008: 1 and Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2009: 1). To this argument RWJF (2008: 1) posits that there are two types of observations in research, namely: participant observation and non-participant observation. In this study it is important to observe pedagogy and assessment to establish re-alignment with student-centred approaches and the wider context for knowledge society as indicated in the previous sub-sections, hence the use of observations.

4.4.4.1.1 Participant observation

Participant observation is a research strategy that aims to produce knowledge both on and through interaction between people and according to International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences (2001: 1) interaction is central to participant observation. Firstly participant observation is significant in the way that its main objective is to explore phenomena as they emerge in interactions between people in a given context. Secondly, knowledge generation occurs through personal interaction between researchers on the one hand and the people that make up the social context under study on the other.

Nieuwenhuis (2007: 85) explains that observer as participant focuses mainly on the role as an observer in the situation. The researcher may look for patterns of behaviour to understand the assumptions, values and beliefs of the participants and to make sense of the social dynamics. In participant observation the researcher remains uninvolved and does not influence the dynamics of the setting. Hence in this
study the actions, words and expressions were of utmost importance than the actions of the researcher. Therefore participant observation affords the researcher opportunities to engage in a process of socialisation and enculturation into the context and to become part of the interaction and practices that produce the phenomena being investigated. RWJF (2008: 1) is of similar view that participant observation combines participation in the lives of the people being studied with maintenance of a professional distance that allows adequate observations and recording of data.

Another important point is raised by International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences (2001: 1) that one of the central features of participant observation is the production of field notes. The above mentioned source emphasises that without field notes there is little point in conducting observations. In some cases it may be possible to tape record interaction as it happens. However many authors including (Kawulich, 2005: 1; RWJF, 2008: 1; and including International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2001: 1) agree that researchers have traditionally placed less value on recording, as they see the actual process of note taking as itself part of the process through which the researcher comes to understand connections between processes and underlying elements of interaction.

In this study the researcher observed the context within which History was taught in schools of Lesotho. As discussed in the previous sub-section it is in the context that perspectives are defined (De Gialdino, 2009: 1). Observations were not only limited to classroom but extended to the whole school environment. At the time of the study the researcher was a teacher in one of the schools in Lesotho and a teacher of History for twenty five years. The researcher also had experience in teaching in local schools in Lesotho and so was different from the participants. For this reason the researcher could read the situation with a greater degree of accuracy and in a shorter space of time than in a culturally unfamiliar setting. To this effect Radnor (2002: 49) elucidates that in an educational context it is often the case that the observer is an educator. In such a case the participants and the researcher share a common culture and understand each other in the sense that they are all part of the educational system.
This study employed participant observations because data cannot be reduced to figures (Strydom, 2011: 329). The aim of the study was to understand how History teachers make meaning of a transformative History curriculum and the aim was achieved through understanding their words, expressions and observing their actions in the participants’ natural place. These actions among others included:

- how teaching was conducted, methods and strategies used, how the resources were used, how is assessment conducted, lesson planning, what learning activities are used, what challenges are teachers experiencing)

Observation of the above was necessary for (De Gialdino, 2009: 1), Strydom (2011: 329) and RWJF (2008: 1) contend that people’s conceptions of reality are not directly accessible to the outsiders and therefore methods are required to unravel and capture these viewpoints as accurately as possible. People cannot study social life without being part of it and participant observation is a procedure of recording and observing conditions, events, feelings, physical settings and activities throughout looking rather than asking (Strydom, 2011: 329). In this study therefore, the researchers observed behaviour, made field notes, recorded actions, and studied interactions and events in a semi-structured manner. The above-mentioned procedure was encouraged by Kawulich (2005: 1); Strydom (2011: 330) and International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences (2001: 1) contention that while doing the research the researcher should make field notes which should be written up at the first available opportunity. These reports should be included in the final and formal report on the study.

Making field notes and recording actions was made by use of the observation schedule that had been drawn up before the observations were undertaken. Willis (2008: 137) argues that in order to collect observation data, the observer must make decisions as to what to observe and what to ignore, because the observer has the full range of events occurring within the classroom from which to choose. In light of the foregoing it is necessary to draw an observation schedule. Guided by the foregoing the researcher prepared the observation schedule (see appendices). Preparing an observation schedule is an important aspect for researchers that employ participant observation and they are advised to find the value and relevance for their studies even before they start the empirical study (Willis, 2008: 137 and
Radnor, 2002: 49). The realisation should encourage the researchers to be keen in observation, to write excellent notes and to reflect on what has been learned (Strydom, 2011: 329). This can also determine the cues or facts that the researchers are looking for and how they will recognise them if they see them (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 84).

Another essential point is raised by Radnor (2002: 48) and Strydom (2011: 329) when they argue that watching and listening can give researchers a sense of social life of others and phenomenon being studied as it arises. The first-hand information allowed the researcher to gain additional insight on the perceptions of History teachers on a transformative History curriculum.

Participant observation was important for this study, because it allowed the researcher to collect, among others the following information:

- The interaction between teachers and students (power issues)
- Physical setting of the classrooms
- The environment created by the teacher
- Lines of communication
- Language of communication

Observation schedule (appendix 8).

Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 6) state that participant observations do not remove the answer from its context, instead they give meaning to the phenomena being studied. As such the list of activities that the researcher observed was important because they happened in the natural environment and assisted in achieving the aim of this study. Participant observation encouraged the researcher to get the voice, as well as capture the actions and feelings of the participants in making meaning of a transformative History curriculum. Strydom (2011: 329) supports the foregoing and attests that the degree of involvement from complete participation to complete observer is crucial to be considered when doing participant observation. Researchers should decide beforehand on the role they intend to take in the situation of participant observer.
It is important to note that participant observation is characterised by an open, non-judgemental attitude; it is interested in learning more about others and for being a careful observer and a good listener; and being open to the unexpected in what is learned (Kawulich, 2005: 1).

4.4.4.1.2 Non-participant observation

Conversely non-participant observation is observation with limited interaction with the people one observes (International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2001: 1). Fundamentally in non-participant observation the researcher observes passively from a distance without participating or influencing in any group activity. However literature argues that purely non-participant observation is extremely difficult as one cannot penetrate into the heart of matter without participating in it. This approach is not conducive for both the researcher and the participants because it does not encourage building relationships and trust between the two.

Guided by literature on data collection instruments this study employed participant observations because it allowed for the researcher to get an “insider” viewpoint (Kawulich, 2005: 1; RWJF, 2008: 1 and Thomas et al., 2009: 1). The choice for this technique was supported by literature presented in the previous paragraphs which suggests that information collected through participant observation may be much richer than that obtained through non-participant observation. Secondly participant observation was regarded suitable because the data are exclusive field notes and describe events and impressions. The above-mentioned process made data collected in this study, to be qualitative and description was not reduced to numbers.

Considering that in many cases the researchers are the only members of the project and can set their own involvement (International Encyclopedia of Social Behavioral Sciences, 2001: 1), the researcher spent some 5 weeks in the selected Lesotho high schools as a participant observer. Just like the interviews the observations were necessary for they also facilitated for direct collection of primary data. Observing three classes provided the researcher with an opportunity to analyse transcripts in detail. It is imperative to highlight that all field notes made during the collection of primary data contained date, times, location and details of participants as recommended by literature. In the words of Kawulich (2005: 1) and The University of
Sheffield (2017: 1) the observations provided the researcher with ways to check for non-verbal expressions of feelings, determine who interact with whom and check how much time is spent on various activities, so that the researcher could enjoy deep and rich data collection.

The other method that was utilised to collect data was interview.

### 4.4.4.2 Interview as data collection method

Interviewing is another predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research because researchers obtain information through direct interchange with an individual (Strydom, 2011: 342). In conducting interviews there is an opportunity for the researcher to question participants why they teach the way they do. As such the responses contributed to achieving the aim of the study. The employment of interviews in this study was encouraged by Mertens (2010:370: 371) argument that, although observations allow the collection of data through the researcher’s direct contact in the setting, not all researchers have the opportunity to conduct extensive observations and the interviews can validate the data being collected. Radnor (2002: 50) asserts that to be able to understand what makes people do what they do, we need to ask them.

Gill, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick (2008: 192) posit that the purpose of the research interview is to explore views, experiences, beliefs and motivations of individuals on a specific matter. In this study the purpose of research was to explore the views, experiences and beliefs of individual teachers regarding a transformative History curriculum. According to Abraham (2005: 1) interviews offer a good opportunity for the researcher to interact with the participants and in this study the interviews created opportunity for the participants to describe the philosophy that guides the teaching of History in their own classrooms.

According to Gill et al., (2008: 192) there are three fundamental types of research interviews namely,

- Structured interviews
- Unstructured interviews
- Semi structured interviews (in-depth interviews)
4.4.4.2.1 Structured interviews

Structured interviews are essentially verbally administered questionnaires in which a list of pre-determined questions are asked, with little or no variation and responses that warrant further elaboration. Gill et al., (2008: 192) attest that the nature of structured interviews only allows for limited participant responses and therefore are of little use if depth is required.

4.4.4.2.2 Unstructured interviews

Unstructured interviews do not reflect any pre-conceived theories or ideas and are performed with little or no organisation. Unstructured interviews are usually very time consuming for they often last long hours and can be difficult to manage and to participate in as the lack of pre-determined interview questions provide little guidance on what to talk about (Gill et al., 2008: 192).

4.4.4.2.3 Semi-structure interviews (in-depth interviews)

Interview schedule (appendix 7)

Semi-structured interviews consist of several key open-questions that help to define the area to be explored, but also allow for the interviewer and interviewee to diverge in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail. The flexibility of this approach particularly compared to structured interviews allows for the discovery or elaboration of information that is important to participants but may not have previously been thought of as pertinent by the research team (Gill et al., 2008: 192) and (The Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 2001: 1 and Lynn University, 2005: 1).

Considering that qualitative interviews are an attempt to understand the world from the participant’s point of view (Strydom, 2011: 342) this study employed interviews and specifically semi-structured interviews to enhance the reliability of the study. Strydom (2011: 347) argues that qualitative studies typically employ semi-structured interviews because they are in-depth interviews and the purpose of such interviews is not to get answers to questions but an understanding of meaning that people make to an experience. Consequently semi-structured interviews offer an opportunity
for the researcher to establish the meaning that is given to a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools.

This study therefore employed semi-structured-structured interviews, because studies conducted indicate that this type of interview allows the participants’ concerns and intentions to surface. In this, study semi-structured interviews provided and allowed the researcher to establish the meaning and understanding that teachers in Lesotho attach to transformative History curriculum. Consequently this study employs semi-structured interviews in order to determine the perceptions, facts and words and expressions of the History teachers to the issue of transformative teaching and learning. Semi-structured interviews are also important, because Nieuwenhuis (2007: 87) points out that the aim of qualitative research is always to obtain rich descriptive data that will help the researcher to understand the participant’s construction of knowledge. In this study, semi-structured interviews allow for probing and clarification of answers. In this regard Nieuwenhuis (2007: 87) recommends for researchers to be attentive to the responses of the participants so that they can identify new emerging issues that are directly linked to the phenomenon being studied.

The employment of semi-structured interviews in this study did not allow the researcher to dominate the proceedings, but to construct knowledge with the participants (Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Kincheloe, McLaren & Steinberg, 2011: 1 and Breunig, 2009: 248). Construction of knowledge was also made possible by critical pedagogy which by its nature is empowering and as a result it allowed teachers to reflect on their own world and their beliefs. Open ended questions further increased conversation and encouraged deep understanding and meaning given to transformative History curriculum by teachers in Lesotho high schools. Semi structured interviews, as pointed out by Maree (2007: 257) allow the researcher to obtain verbatim responses and to follow up on any new topic that participants may introduce. Guided by literature presented in the previous paragraphs semi-structured interviews were relevant for this study because they provided a deeper understanding of social phenomenon than would be obtained from any other form of interviews.
Another important point to highlight is the contention by Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89) that interviews have to be recorded. Just like with the observations the importance of tape recording (Kawulich, 2005: 1; RWJF, 2008: 1 and International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2001: 1) is also highlighted in that when the interview is completed, the researchers have time to listen and review notes and reflect on the interview. However, Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89) cautions that before the recordings are done, the researcher should request permission from the participants. Guided by the foregoing the researcher requested permission, but just like with the pilot study participants did not approve of the use of a voice recorder. As such no voice recorder was utilised, but the researcher relied on taking notes to collect interview data from schools in Lesotho.

Although writing is time consuming Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89; Keesing-Styles, 2003: 1; Kincheloe et al., 2011:1 and Breunig, 2009: 248) share the same view that the importance of taking notes should not be undermined in that the researchers can use the notes to review the answers and ask additional questions at the end of the interview. When the process of observations and interviews is concluded, the researcher is expected to prepare a report. The practice is in line with what Nieuwenhuis (2007: 89) suggests that at the end of it all the researcher needs to make a written record (transcript) of what was said for the purposes of analysis.

In order to ensure the success of the interviews, literature recommends that it is imperative to design an interview schedule. The schedule should assist the researcher to ask questions that are likely to yield as much information about the study phenomenon as possible and to also address the aims and objectives of the research. To this effect (Gill et al., 2008: 192) recommends that it is best to start with questions that participants can answer easily and then proceed to more or sensitive topics. This can help put participants at ease, build up confidence and rapport and often generate rich data that subsequently develops the interview further.

Against this backdrop, the researcher prepared an interview schedule (attached to study as appendix) and the interview questions, which were arranged from those that could easily be answered by the participants to the complex ones allowed for collection of information that assisted the researcher to address the main aim and objectives of this study. The interview for each participants lasted about twenty five
minutes and the same questions were asked to all participants. The above described procedure took into consideration the recommendation of Gill *et al.*, (2008: 192) that an average interview should last between twenty and thirty minutes. The other point to mention is that the interviews were conducted either in the computer lab or in one of the unoccupied classrooms in the respective schools. The decision was encouraged by literature that wherever, possible interviews should be conducted in areas free from distractions and at time and locations that are most suitable for participants.

At the end of the interview the researcher thanked the participants for their time.

It can be summarised that both data collection instruments described in the preceding sub-sections assisted the researcher to collect primary data and to achieve the main aim and all objectives of this study. Through observations the researcher was able to establish the environment, nature of resources and materials available to support the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The semi-ended interviews highlighted issues relating to support, in terms of training and professional development and why they did things the way they did. The procedure was therefore necessary because Goddard and Melville (2001: 10) and Pellissier (2007: 20) attest that qualitative approach research seeks to explore where and why a practice does not work.

The third data collection method is document analysis.

**4.4.4.3 Document Analysis as data collection method**

Document analysis schedule (appendix 9)

Drawing from Bowen (2009), *Research Methodology in Education* (2016: 1) offers an explanation that document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. The author goes on to state that document analysis can be used as primary method of data collection and can contain and provide data that no longer can be observed. Therefore the researcher should treat the documents like participants or informants that provide the researcher with relevant information.
Kohlbacher (2006: 1) and Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) are of the same view that document analysis is an invaluable part of most schemes of triangulation in which there is a combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. Document analysis is done in order to seek convergence and corroboration by qualitative researcher. Kohlbacher (2006: 1) and Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) further agree that in document analysis there is a question of how many documents a researcher should gather. Both above-mentioned authors suggest that a wide array of documents is better.

However Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) is quick to attest that the question should be more about quality of documents rather than quantity and further suggests that the researcher must evaluate the original purpose of the document. Also important is determining whether the document was solicited, edited or anonymous and determine the latent content of the document. According to Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) latent content refers to the style, tones, agenda, facts or opinion that exist in the document. As such documents should be assessed for their completeness suggesting that the researcher should determine how selective or comprehensive the information from the documents is.

Against this background the researcher decided to analyse documents that were found in the three schools, namely: the schemes of work, lesson plans, class work/homework and test/examinations and text books. The above-mentioned documents assisted the researcher to determine what the teachers in Lesotho high schools were teaching, how they taught and what it was that the students were exposed to. Document analysis was suitable for this study, because literature states that documents reveal what people value and in this study the researcher was able to reveal the understanding and meaning attached to a transformative History curriculum. Research Methodology (2016: 1) attests that document analysis is an efficient and effective way of collecting data, because documents are manageable and practical resources. Not only that, but that documents are stable, non-reactive data sources and they can be read and reviewed multiple times and documents remain unchanged by the researcher’s influence or research process.

This study started first by analysing CAFP to determine if indeed the Framework reflected a transformative curriculum. The previous framework was subject-oriented
and discipline knowledge was emphasised. On the other side, the CAPF is inclined to be an integrated, holistic approach and treatment of issues and it is linked with the real-life problems. It is worth mentioning that document analysis was encouraged by The Glossary of Education Reform (2014: 1) assertion that teachers may not follow policies established by the government or it may be that policies contradict teachers’ philosophical assumptions of education. It was imperative to do CAPF analysis in order to establish how effective teachers were in implementing a transformative History curriculum. The need to determine the extent to which pedagogy and assessment encourage a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools necessitated for employment of document analysis.

Another document that was analysed was the History syllabus for the reason that the way teachers teach might be shaped by the aims of the History syllabus. One fundamental factor is that while the revised curriculum might be congruent with the nature of History the implementation at school level highly depends on the perspectives of the teachers and how they interpret the policy. The employment of document analysis therefore enabled the researcher to establish the extent to which the revised curriculum aligns to the objectives in the History syllabus. In document analysis there is a question of how many documents a researcher should gather. (Borrowing from Bowen) Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) posits that a wide array of documents is better. However the author is quick to highlight that the question should be more about quality of documents rather than quantity. Hence in this study, besides the Policy framework, evaluation was done on schemes of work, the lesson plans, tests and text books used in each of the three schools. Document analysis forms part of triangulation process as it confirms and addresses the issues of reliability and validity.

Finally these three qualitative methods namely interviews and observations and document analysis were employed in this study because they are believed to be steps in working with primary sources for contextual understanding and to extract information to make informed judgements. The three methods therefore provided the researcher with an opportunity to look for evidence of transformative teaching than would be obtained from purely quantitative methods. The three methods also provided opportunity to the researcher to analyse transcripts in detail. Borrowing from Hathaway (1995: 551) the methods further provided opportunity to compare
transcript analysis to first see if the intervention was implemented the same way by schools. In this case the intervention is the CAPF that encourages transformative teaching. Secondly the methods provided opportunity to establish participants’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum. All of the foregoing process of data collection was critical in addressing the problem of what might be regarded as factors that contributed to the inability of teachers to implement a transformative History curriculum and so led to the recommendations of what could be done to make the phenomena a success for schools in Lesotho.

4.4.5 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process used to inspect, transform and remodel data with a view to reach conclusion from a given situation (Kalpesh (2013: 1). So following data collection data needs to be critically analysed to provide an explanation of various concepts, frameworks, theories and methods used. This process makes data analysis the most crucial part of research. University of Pretoria (2018: 1) adds that data analysis summarises collected data and it involves the interpretation of data gathered through the use of analytical and logical reasoning to determine patterns, relationships or trends. The analysis of qualitative research involves aiming to uncover and understand the big picture by using the data to describe the phenomenon and what it means.

In this study analysis of data assisted the researcher to uncover the meaning that is attached to a transformative History curriculum by teachers in Lesotho high schools. Considering that qualitative data analysis is based on interpretive philosophy analysis this study relied on inductive reasoning to interpret the meaning derived from the observations, interviews and document analysis to reach an informed conclusion.

Data analysis is an important step in research and Premium Survey Service (2011: 1) suggests that before diving into analysing results, researchers should look back at the objectives they were trying to accomplish. The main aim of this study was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.
This study utilised critical pedagogy as a point of reference in order to achieve the main aim and objectives as mentioned in (1.5). This is because among other principles, critical pedagogy encourages transformative teaching rather than transmission of knowledge; allows students to question knowledge rather than accept it as passive recipients and is committed to the emancipation of the oppressed. As such the analysis made clear if the way teachers teach, methods and strategies used, the resources utilised were effective to implement a transformative History curriculum. The study further utilised critical pedagogy to analyse the data collected in order to highlight and identify the conditions that may be regarded as oppressive (to both the teachers and students) and therefore form a barrier for transformative teaching and learning. The foregoing then allowed the researcher to present suggestion and recommendations for the improvement and implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools.

In order to achieve the above-mentioned objectives, the information that is collected from observations and interviews, was reduced in a way that facilitates interpretations of the findings. Field notes were transcribed immediately after each interview about the thought and ideas and that was done fundamentally so that the information could be of assistance in data analysis. The choice of this kind of analysis is referred to as a coding system which involves labelling and coding (Lauer, 2006: 48; Creswell, 2008: 244 and Johnson and Christensen, 2012: 93). Data collected was interpreted and the methods that guided this study were subjective and analytical, unlike those in probability sampling, which are objective and inferences are statistical.

The findings of the unfolding stories in this study were narrated, because firstly as mentioned above, qualitative results are descriptive and secondly qualitative research allows for meaning making and not for statistical representation, as seen with positivism paradigm.

4.4.5.1 Analysis of data from the observation

Analysis of data from observations, occurs as notes are being prepared. These written accounts of the observations constitute field notes (Merrian, 1998: 104). Full notes are to be written and typed soon after the observations to preserve information.
Guided by the foregoing the researcher jotted down notes during each class observation in the three high schools in Maseru Lesotho. Sometimes the information jotted down was in the form of sentences, while other times it was just a word. These sentences helped the researcher to remember what was observed later on when the notes were rearranged and translated into field notes and a detailed description of what was observed, including record of activities. Kawulich (2005: 1) contends that in trying to analyse information from observation field notes, one is trying to develop a model that helps to make sense of the actions of the participants.

Fundamentally the preliminary analysis fosters self-reflection and in the words of RWJF (2008: 1) self-reflection is crucial for understanding and meaning making. Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003: 5) elucidate that interpreting the data is attaching meaning and significance to the analysis and that meaning begins with the point of view of the people being studied. In this study the researcher first tried to understand the meaning that was attached to transformative History curriculum by teachers in Lesotho schools. Secondly, preliminary analysis reveals emergent themes and identifying emergent themes, while still in the field allows the researchers to shift their own attention in ways that can foster a more developed investigation of emerging themes (RWJF, 2008: 1). The emergent themes are arranged in a system known as coding. Coding is when the researchers locate meaningful parts using different symbols or descriptive words that are determined by the researcher (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 104 and Research Methodology, 2016: 1).

The coding system was employed to analyse data collected from the observations. All codes in this study were assigned meaningful titles that were guided by the main aim and objectives of the study. This approach allowed the researcher to interpret signs, words and actions of the participants when the notes were being transcribed. As literature suggests the researcher is to go beyond the surface meaning and captured a deeper meaning of phenomena De Vos (2005: 120). This procedure is important, because the answers should not be removed from the context in which they appear, because when that happens the social meaning and significance can become distorted. Considering the descriptive nature of the study, detailed descriptions were made to make meaning that was attached to a transformative History curriculum by teachers in the three selected high schools in Lesotho.
4.4.5.2 Analysis of data from the interviews

In interviews analysis can be done through coding (Alshenqeeti, 2014: 41). An interpretive researcher derives categories from emergent themes within an understanding of the participant’s viewpoint of the context (Hathaway, 1995: 546). Features are noticed and identified through an interpretive process whereby data and categories emerge simultaneously with successive experience.

Guided by the foregoing this study utilised a coding system to analyse data collected from interviews. The purpose was to reduce the amount of data into usable and useful information and to compare data across similar incidents. Just like with observations, data collected from interviews need to be read for understanding. This information also needs to be sorted and the interpretivist nature of the study allowed for interpretation of words of the participants. This process requires the researcher to read and re-read the text (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 104) to allow the researcher to divide data into meaningful analytical units.

The first step that the researcher is to take, is to examine verbatim transcripts of the interviews, re-read the text and listen to the tape recording as suggested by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003: 1). The procedure of coding should assist the researcher to identify similarities or consistencies across all transcripts. In this study, to determine why there were differences in responses provided during interviews, the researcher read the words and the terms of the participants and categorised them into themes. The process continued until all common and different patterns of the interviews were compared with each other according to the main aim and objectives of the study. The analysis in this study depended on saturation whereby, according to Thorne (2017: 1) additional interview is not believed to add any new information.

The next step, as suggested by literature, was to compare the findings of the observations and interviews with the findings of literature review and discuss the differences between them. This is to enable the researcher to link research findings to the research main aim and objectives Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003: 1). The final step is then to write a complete report. The report is in narrative and not in figures because this study is guided by qualitative methodology. The report should then highlight those suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of teaching towards a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho schools.
4.4.5.3 Analysis of data from document analysis

Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) asserts that analysis of data from document analysis incorporates coding content into themes (thematic analysis) similar to how interview transcripts are analysed. Thematic analysis can be considered a form of pattern recognition with the documents’ data. This analysis takes emerging themes and makes them into categories used for further analysis. Hence it is necessary to keep check of patterns that emerge time and time again through reading different documents and this can be a word or a paragraph (SAGE, 2017: 1). Kohlbacher (2006: 1) and Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1) share the same view that analysis of data from document analysis includes careful coding and category construction and that the emerging codes and themes may also serve to integrate data gathered by different methods.

Informed by the foregoing, in this study analysis of data was carried out from History lesson plans, class work and homework, including tests and examinations documents. Analysis was done on the mentioned documents to determine agenda, tones and opinion in such a way that the documents were given voice and meaning. The focus of analysis was to determine the perspectives that teachers are holding about the teaching of History and if teaching addressed the requirements of a transformative History curriculum.

4.4.6 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a research instrument yields the same results on repeated trials and many scholars, including Trochim (2006: 1) and Alshenqeeti (2014: 44) call the process replication. The same above-mentioned authors agree that interviews have poor reliability, due to their openness to many types of bias. To prevent the bias and ensure reliability, the researcher utilised different methods of data collection, namely: interviews, observations and document analysis. Many of the scholars refer to this approach as triangulation. These methods were utilised to complement data collected from each other.

To further assure reliability, the researcher avoided asking leading questions during the interviews as recommended by Alshenqeeti (2014: 44) and to collect data from the observation, the researcher utilised the structured observation schedule.
Furthermore the active involvement of the researcher in the construction of knowledge, regarding teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools, assures reliability.

In qualitative research, context is very important and as such in this study the researcher spent time and forged good relationship with the participants, in order to construct knowledge of a transformative History curriculum. Data collected from the observations, interviews and document analysis was analysed in a way that created a thick narration and description, using the words of the participants.

4.4.7 Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which the instruments utilised measure what they are supposed to measure. Leung (2015: 1) argues that validity is the appropriateness of the tools and data in research. This includes the choice of methodology for answering the research question. The foregoing therefore suggests that the research design, sampling and data analysis should be appropriate, as well as the results and the conclusions that are drawn from data. So fundamentally criteria for evaluating research from an interpretive perspective, require careful consideration and articulation of the research question.

Another important aspect is that validity becomes a moral question and so there must be consideration to carry out inquiry in a respectful manner. There is also need for awareness and articulation of the choices and interpretations the researcher makes during the inquiry process and evidence of taking responsibility for those choices because the choices that researchers make throughout the research process have political and ethical considerations (RWJF, 2008: 1). Participants should also be informed about the purpose of the study before the start of empirical research. According to Gill et al. (2008: 192) this gives participants some idea of what to expect and increases the likelihood of honesty. Consequently participants in this study were made aware that the aim of this study was to establish the perspectives that teachers hold about a transformative History curriculum.

From the ontological interpretivist position validity cannot be grounded in an objective reality. What is taken to be truth is negotiated and there can be multiple valid claims to knowledge Kawulich (2005: 1) and RWJF (2008: 1). Consequently
this study used three different methods, namely: interviews, observation and document analysis to collect data. The choice of the three methods was encouraged by Kawulich (2005: 1) who asserts that validity is stronger with the use of more than one method of collecting data, because it makes it possible to collect different types of data. Curtis et al. (2000: 1) argue that the sample should produce believable descriptions. The sample in this study was three teachers in Maseru Lesotho and it encouraged validity, because the population from which it was selected was also small. The purpose also was not to generalise to the entire population, but to generate a deep understanding of the phenomenon and establish if there was evidence of transformative History teaching in Lesotho high schools.

4.4.8 Trustworthiness

Marrow (2005: 250) and US National Library of Medicine (2016: 1) share the view that trustworthiness implies the use of appropriate research tools to meet the stated objectives of the investigation. In addition trustworthiness includes demonstrating rigour so that the research findings have the integrity to make an impact on practice, policy or both. Trustworthiness in qualitative research is all about establishing credibility, transferability and confirmability and these are discussed in the following sub-sections. The use of triangulation in this study ensured trustworthiness. The employment of observations, interviews and document analysis as data collection tools, is evidence enough to suggest that appropriate methods were utilised. The methods were instrumental in complementing each other and as such in ensuring that findings were trustworthy.

4.4.9 Credibility

Cohen and Grabtree (2006: 1) and Trochim (2006: 1) agree that credibility involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are believable. Brown (2005: 1) argues that credibility requires demonstrating in one or more ways that the research was designed to maximise the accuracy of whatever is being studied. Credibility can be enhanced by prolonged engagement and persistent observations. In this regard research design ensured accuracy, in that class observations were carried out each forty minutes per observation, until saturation was reached.
The presence of the researcher and the time that was spent in the three high schools in Maseru Lesotho, assisted the researcher to study the environment, the relationships and the actions and behaviour of the participants. In addition, the use of various forms of triangulation enhanced credibility, because data was collected from multiple sources, including interviews, observations and document analysis. Data was also collected from multiple sites, as mentioned above from the three high schools. The purpose was to minimise and understand the biases that might be introduced by the participants in each of the schools.

In this study the findings are articulated in a manner that is logical and the methodology for answering the research question was followed and this renders the conclusions credible and believable.

4.4.10 Transferability

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalised or transferred to other contexts (Cohen and Grabtree, 2006: 1; Trochim, 2006: 1 and Schurink, Fouche & de Vos, 2011: 320). This study gives a thick description of the results and findings of the empirical research. The description gives detailed information so that the readers can decide for themselves if the results are transferable to their own context. To this end Brown (2005: 1) and Trochim (2006:1) agree that transferability is the responsibility of the person seeking to apply the results of the study to a new context; simply it is the responsibility of the reader.

Brown (2005: 1) and Trochim (2006: 1) reiterate that the responsibility of the original investigator ends in providing sufficient descriptive data and demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests with the reader. It is important to emphasise that three high schools based in Maseru, Lesotho offered context for this study. As such when people think of transferability they should consider context in terms of among others geographical location, historical, economic and technological aspects.

Considering that qualitative research studies are meant to study a specific phenomenon in a certain population, and in a particular, context and that it employs a small sample, suggests that in this study the generalisation of qualitative research findings is not an expected attribute (Borrowing from Leung (2015: 1). However, in
this study transferability by potential user was provided by the use of a thick description of the inquiry and the fact that participants were selected purposefully, which supported transferability.

4.4.11 Confirmability

Trochim (2005: 1), Cohen and Grabtree (2006: 1) and Schurink et al. (2011: 421) share the view that confirmability is the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others. They all add that confirmability is the degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings are shaped by respondents and not the researcher’s bias, motivation or interest. In order to enhance confirmability, the researcher kept the written field notes and those gave the voice of the participants. In addition some transcripts form part of the appendices. Furthermore, the findings are based on participants’ responses and not any other bias or personal motivation.

4.4.12 Triangulation

Many authors, including RWJF (2008: 1), Kawulich (2005: 1) and Leung (2015: 1) agree that triangulation involves using multiple data sources in a research study to produce understanding. Qualitative researchers use this technique to ensure that a phenomenon under investigation is rich, robust, comprehensive and well-developed. This study employed qualitative methods, namely: observations, interviews and document analysis to collect rich data from History teachers in Lesotho high schools.

Research Methodology in Education (2016: 1), Cohen and Grabtree (2006: 1) and Schurink et al. (2011: 421) are of the same view that the purpose of triangulation is to provide a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility and corroborating findings across data sets, which can reduce the impact of potential bias. Literature contends that the context is also important in the construction of knowledge and the degree of accurate representation of reality varies in degree and that encouraged the researcher to utilise different sites, namely three high schools in Lesotho and three qualitative data collection methods, namely observations, interviews and document analysis.

174
4.4.13 Ethical considerations

Social scientists, conducting field work, confront ethical dilemmas in the course of implementing their investigations. In particular it is those researchers who are actively engaged with participants in their natural environments (International Encyclopedia of the Social Behavioural Sciences, 2001: 1). The challenge rests with the fact that fieldwork involves a range of methodologies, including participant observations and in-depth interviews. It is for this reason that Alshenqeeti (2014: 44) points out that when it comes to dealing with human participants, the research project should rigorously follow ethical considerations. This is because some of the procedures in empirical research may intrude into participants’ private lives with regard to time and the level of sensitivity of questions asked.

Guided by the foregoing, this section addresses the ethical issues associated with privacy, informed consent and voluntary participation.

4.4.13.1 Informed and voluntary consent

Strydom (2011: 117) posits that written consent are a necessary condition in qualitative research. Kawulich (2005: 1) argues that before participating in the empirical research participants should be provided with informed and voluntary consent forms. Gill et al. (2008:1 92) and Springer (2010: 93) concur and add that before participating in empirical research participants should be informed about the purpose of the study. This gives participants some idea of what to expect. The consent forms (appendix 6) were designed and distributed not only to the three teachers but to the principals of the participating schools as well.

Kawulich (2005: 1) and Strydom (2011: 118) assert that it is not only the informed consent of the participant or guardian of the participant that is needed, but also those of persons in authority such as head of the institutions. The foregoing involves writing letters that identify the organisation and the researchers that want to embark on the project and the extent of the time involved. Guided by the foregoing the researcher prepared a letter to the Ministry of Education and Training in Lesotho to request permission to conduct research (appendix 2). Secondly letters that requested permission to conduct research were written to the principals of the selected schools (appendix 4). Letter was explaining the aim of research and
voluntary participation was also issued to participants (appendix 5). Finally the 
consent forms (appendix 6) were issued to the participants in selected schools. 
Participants in this study signed informed consent and these were kept in a safe and 
a private place to protect their identity. This action was motivated by Gill et al. (2008: 
192) and Strydom (2011: 117) assertion that these consent forms should be signed 
and treated with the utmost discretion and stored by the researcher where they could 
be accessed in the duration of the research project. Obtaining informed consent 
implicated that all possible and adequate information on the goal of the research project 
was given to the potential participants

In the consent forms a brief explanation of the nature of the study, as well as the 
rights of the participants were well articulated. The information included among 
others: the expected duration of the participant’s involvement; the procedure which 
was to be followed during the project; the possible advantages and dangers to which 
participants may be exposed; as well as the credibility of the researcher, as well as 
issues of voluntary participation, as emphasised by Springer (2010: 93) and Strydom 
(2011: 115 and 117). Participation should at all times be voluntary and no one should 
be forced to participate in a project and must be psychologically competent to give 
consent and they must be aware that they would be at liberty to withdraw from the 
investigation at any time.

As a further attempt to protect participants, Strydom (2011: 115) suggests that 
researchers should identify and eliminate those participants who could prove 
vulnerable. Hence in this study, participants were on voluntary basis and participants 
could withdraw from the research without any repercussions as recommended by 
(Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtie, 2006: 147). The decision was in line with an assertion 
from literature that nobody should ever be coerced into participating in a research 
project. The participants were also informed of the procedure, which in this study 
included class observations and interviews and document analysis; the expected 
duration of the participant’s involvement; the possible advantages and dangers to 
which participants may be exposed as well as the credentials of the researcher.

The consent forms clearly indicated that each class observation was to take forty 
minutes and interview less than an hour. The duration of the project was to last five 
weeks. In addition to the foregoing, Strydom (2011: 115) emphasises that the
participants should be thoroughly informed beforehand about the potential impact of the investigation. In this study the researcher ensured that no harm was caused by informing participants of the purpose of the study. In addition harm was prevented by accurate reporting. The harm takes place in research in the form of faking of interview data and inaccurate reporting of results. When inaccurate reporting occurs harm is caused to the participants and the foregoing necessitates the identification of an ethical issue (Springer, 2010: 93). This step is important, because it offers the participants the opportunity to withdraw from the research project if they so wish. In this way the researcher can be said to be observing the ethical aspects of research.

4.4.13.2 Privacy/anonymity/Confidentiality

Bogdan and Biklen (2003: 45) and Strydom (2011: 119-120) argue that privacy, implies the element of personal privacy while confidentiality indicates that only the researcher should be aware of the identity of the participants. That compelled the researcher to handle the educational background of the participants, which were provided by the participants, with confidentiality. In this way information was handled in a confidential manner and literature posits that every individual has the right to privacy. The foregoing further implies that both the participating schools and the participants should remain anonymous.

Hence in this study, the participating schools and the participants were identified by numbers and the letters of alphabet respectively. This was done because Bogdan and Biklen (2003: 45) contend that identities should be protected so that the information the researcher collects does not embarrass or in any other way harm the participants. To further observe privacy and confidentiality the study was guided by Bogdan and Bikeln (2003: 45) contention that no information about individuals should be disclosed to others and that researcher should be particularly watchful of sharing information with people at the research site who could choose to use the information in political or personal ways.

4.4.13.3 Prevention against harm

It is the researcher’s ethical responsibility to safeguard the storyteller (RWJF, 2008: 1). To protect the participants’ rights and to avoid causing any harm, Alshenqeeti (2014: 44) attests that the researcher should assure the participants that the
collected data will be strictly confidential and anonymous. The relationship should be based on trust between the researcher and the participants. The researcher should also inform participants of the purpose of the study (RWJF, 2008: 1 and Alshenqeeti, 2014: 44). For this reason in this study the researcher observed all ethical consideration including distribution of consent voluntary forms, raising the issues of confidentiality and anonymity. Even in the field notes, the identity of the participants and their respect schools was concealed by use of numerical figures and letters of the alphabet respectively.

4.4.13.4 Issues of power relations

Orb, Eisenhaver & Wynaden (2001: 96) argue that the issues of power rest with the principle of justice, which includes fairness. The researchers should avoid exploitation and abuse of participants. In particular the researchers’ understanding and application of the principle of justice in qualitative research, is demonstrated by recognising vulnerability of the participants and their contributions to the study.

In this study the researcher understood the position as a researcher and the role was to remain in the position of a researcher. The researcher listened attentively and observed carefully during the class observations and interviews respectively. That was to avoid misinterpretation of actions, behaviour and practice. Since the use of a voice recorder was not acceptable to the participants during interviews, the researcher took down clear notes.

Orb et al. (2001: 96) point out that conducting qualitative research in an area in which the researcher works or is already known, raises several issues of ethical consideration. One may get better results, because of knowing the situation and having the trust of the participants. On the other side the known researcher may get less information, because staff may feel coerced to participate and may limit the information they give. It is in this light that in this study the researcher made her own role known and clear to the participants, so that the researcher may be regarded as such and not as someone who is doing something dubious (drawing from Orb et al. (2001: 96). In this way the researcher was able to gain the trust of the participants.
### 4.4.14 Pilot Study

A pilot study is a requisite initial step in exploring a novel intervention or an innovative application of an intervention and Leon, Davis & Kraemer (2012: 1) contend that pilot studies represent a fundamental phase of the research process. This study conducted a pilot study to explore the implementation of the CAPF, which was on its fifth year since the first implementation in Lesotho high schools. This was indeed the first phase that was to prepare for the larger empirical research. The purpose of this first step was to establish consistency and success of the procedure and methods selected for data collection. The pilot study served an important part in that it brought to the attention of the researcher that a number of participants did not favour the use of tape recorders used on them. As such that aspect brought some modifications in the final procedure of the process of data collection for the actual and main research.

The procedure described above was encouraged by many authors, including Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001: 1) and Leon et al. (2012:1) who concur that purpose of conducting a pilot study is to examine the feasibility of an approach that is intended to be used in the larger scale study. The second important thing is that a pilot study can be critical in research and provide experiences that strengthen and confirm competencies and skills required for the investigation to be conducted with accuracy and precision. The above mentioned authors further agree that a pilot sample size is based on the pragmatic and necessities for examining feasibility.

Consequently the pilot sample was two teachers; male and female in the same school. The school that was selected was not the one where the researcher was teaching at and not any of those that had already been identified as samples to be involved in the main study. The selection was due to Crossman’s (2017: 1) view that only schools and teachers that are not involved in the main research become part of the pilot study. Although the researcher’s school was not involved in the main study the researcher was not comfortable in including the school in a pilot study. The decision was encouraged by literature that conducting qualitative research in an area in which the researcher works raises several issues of ethical consideration. One may get better results, because of knowing the situation and having the trust of the
participants. On the other side the known researcher may get less information because staff may feel coerced to participate and may limit the information they give.

In the pilot study that was conducted, the syllabus and practices were basically the features that were selected to help achieve the objective because literature states that not all aspects of the larger scale and design can be focused on (Research Methodology in Education, 2016:1). The feedback was that there were different perspectives that were held by teachers regarding a transformative History curriculum. The larger scale study would then reveal more because the data collection instruments were tested and found to be reliable tools to use in the large scale study with minor modifications.

The pilot study increased the likelihood of success in the main study, because the researcher gained some skills in research and some modification in the data collection instrument was addressed early enough.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter introduced qualitative methodology that guided this study. Consequently the qualitative methods were employed to collect data from three high schools in Lesotho. This methodology was chosen, because the nature of the research question requires understanding and making meaning of the phenomenon. It is in this light that sampling was small and it was selected on the basis of convenience in terms of time, financial implications and availability of the participants. This chapter also indicated that a coding system was utilised to analyse data collected from the observations and interviews. Finally the chapter presented a clear discussion on the ethical considerations.

The above mentioned procedure assisted the researcher to establish the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH DATA TOWARDS ESTABLISHING TEACHERS’ PERSPECTIVES OF A TRANSFORMATIVE HISTORY CURRICULUM IN LESOTHO HIGH SCHOOLS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to establish the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. This topic was pursued because of the implementation of the revised curriculum in Lesotho schools in 2013. The teachers seem to struggle in adapting to the new ways demanded by the revised curriculum. History as a subject seemed to be still being taught in a manner that does not encourage development of skills that are necessary in the 21st century and as envisaged by the revised curriculum. The skills amongst others include interpretation, ability to make informed decisions, problem solving and analytical skills.

It further seems History teachers still employ methods that do not support a transformative History curriculum, despite the implementation of CAPF. Hence this study was to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools (see 1.5; 4.2). In order to achieve the above-mentioned main aim, three objectives were identified and suggested to guide the study and below are the three objectives as stipulated in chapter one (see 1.5; 4.2)

The first objective was to determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative history curriculum

The second objective was to establish how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum

The third objective was to present the suggestions and recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

Therefore the presentation, analysis and interpretations of the research data were done on the basis of the above-mentioned objectives. Critical pedagogy was at the centre of the process of interpretation and analysis of research findings because it is the theory that guided this study. The use of critical theory was important because
having a theoretical framework about teaching and learning allowed the researcher not only to determine the level of understanding that teachers had about a transformative History curriculum (Objective 1), but to achieve objective 2. The similarities between critical pedagogy and transformative teaching and learning among others, include learner centred approaches and an environment that is conducive for learning, both of which require adequate and relevant resources and openness.

In addition the interpretation and analysis of the research data was achieved through the use of literature study on transformative education and specifically transformative teaching and learning in a History classroom. Information from literature review assisted the researcher to achieve Objective 1, mentioned in the previous paragraphs. Concepts that emerged from the review were organised into themes. The themes were compared and contrasted to the information collected from the observations, document analysis (test papers and students’ notebooks) and interviews that were conducted during the empirical research.

The procedure described in the previous paragraph was pivotal in assisting the researcher to establish teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools (Main Objective of the study). It further provided space for suggestions and recommendations for successful implementation of transformative History teaching and learning (Objective 3).

5.2 Research participants’ profiles

In order to determine the level of understanding of the teachers (objective 1) regarding a transformative History teaching and learning, the study focused on three high schools in Maseru, Lesotho, a teacher from each school bringing the total of three teachers. This small interaction was encouraged by qualitative methodology (see 4.3.1) that underpins this study and purposive sampling that is embedded in non-probability sampling (see 4.4.2.1.2). The following table represents the participating teachers’ profile.
Table 5.1 Participating History teachers’ profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Year obtained qualification</th>
<th>Subjects taught and teaching experience</th>
<th>Majors</th>
<th>Professional Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>B.Ed. in Accounting and Commerce; Honours in Accounting and Commerce; PGDE Accounting and Commerce and MEd Education Policy and Governance</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Accounting, Commerce and History 18 years</td>
<td>Commerce and Accounting</td>
<td>Received training and Online workshops (ongoing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>BA Degree in Geography and Environmental Management</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Geography and History 1 year</td>
<td>Geo</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Diploma in Education</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>History 5 years</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Advance Certificate in Teaching Received training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 presented the profiles of History teachers in three schools in Lesotho. Table suggests two main things; firstly that not all of the participants are qualified teachers and secondly that not all took History as a major at tertiary level. One out of three participating teachers is not a qualified professional teacher. Firstly this suggests that Teacher B did not receive teaching training at tertiary level and as such is not exposed to the requirements of teaching as a profession. Secondly Teacher B took History as a module at higher institutions of learning to serve the
purposes of environmental management and this further suggests that Teacher B has not received training to teach History as a subject. Thirdly the teacher has one year experience suggesting that Teacher B is not well exposed to the processes of teaching and learning.

Although Teacher A did not take History as a subject, this participant is at least a qualified teacher in B. Ed. Accounting and Commerce and a bearer of MA Education. This suggests that Teacher A has been exposed to teaching and learning approaches in higher institutions of learning, pointing to the fact that Teacher A received teacher training although not necessarily in History teaching. This teacher training may be relevant to the teaching of a transformative curriculum. Considering that Teacher A obtained the highest qualification in 2010, further suggests that the participant should have received training in practises and approaches relating to transformative teaching and learning, because transformative teaching is relatively a current educational trend.

With the hindsight Teacher A could be expected to demonstrate aspects of transformative teaching and learning in the History classroom. Moreover Teacher A explains that the school she is working at encourages and pays for online professional development (ongoing) and exposing her to new trends and alternative learning and teaching approaches. The online workshops allow for interaction with teachers from around the globe, different settings and environment and as such the experience is informative.

In this regarded it can be expected that Teacher A possesses knowledge and skills about the recent trends in education including transformative education. The expectation could be that Teacher A would transfer the skills acquired about teaching and learning into a History classroom. The second expectation is based on the number of years in teaching that Teacher A has, bringing to the realisation that this participant has more than twenty years as a teacher. It is expected that Teacher A has experienced a paradigm shift in teaching, because when the CAPF was implemented, Teacher A was long in the teaching service.

Teacher C on the other hand, is a trained History teacher and obtained the Diploma in 2012. The foregoing suggests that just like Teacher A, Teacher C should also have received some training in approaches to teaching and learning. In addition
Teacher C is pursuing the studies in Advanced Certificate in Teaching (ACT) suggesting that this teacher is continuing to be empowered in current trends in teaching and learning. The analysis between Teacher A and C highlights that the two possess knowledge about teaching and new trends in education. Both are experienced teachers between five and twenty five, implying that they have skills and expertise in the teaching field. However Teacher C possesses not only skills in teaching but in the teaching of History and the fact that Teacher C is pursuing ACT makes this participant to possess more knowledge, skills and expertise in the teaching of History over Teacher A. It should however be emphasised that the similarity between Teacher A and Teacher C is that when the CAPF was introduced in Lesotho, both already had an idea of the Alternative Teaching approaches. The two also had an opportunity to be exposed to the CAPF early enough in its inception.

The profile of Teacher B points to a participant who did not receive training in teaching and as such lacks knowledge, skills and expertise in teaching. The second point indicates that Teacher B has a one year experience in teaching, implying that Teacher B does not have expertise, because this participant is still getting to familiarise self with the whole concept of teaching. The chances that Teacher B has an understanding of a transformative History curriculum are low, as this participant is neither a teacher by profession nor possesses experience. Teacher B as participant supports the statement made in chapter two that there is a misconception that History can be taught by any other person (see 3.7.2), including those people who are not qualified teachers. The findings therefore lead to the conclusion that chances for Teacher B to use traditional and teacher centred methods are high. Consequently it is the above described situation that poses a challenge to the teaching and implementation of CAPF.

Having presented the profile of the three participants the next section is the presentation of data of the first objective.
5.3 Data addressing the first objective: determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum

The section deals with the first objective of this study which is to determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum. In order to achieve this first objective, the following aspects will be looked at:

- Managing curriculum change
- Understanding of a transformative History curriculum
- Conceptualisation of History as a school subject

5.3.1 Management of curriculum change

The purpose of this section is to establish how the change towards the new transformative History curriculum was managed and the impact it might have on the participants’ knowledge.

In order to determine if curriculum change in Lesotho was managed correctly, the participants were asked the following question:

*How did you get to know about this revised curriculum?*

Managing curriculum change fundamentally starts with effective leadership (see 3.4). Effective implementation of curriculum demands both a clear articulation of policy and systematic understanding of the new demands and there are a number of things that need to be done when curriculum is changed. Some will include changing the culture of the school and improving individuals’ knowledge and skills, unpacking the specifications so that all staff know exactly what is involved in teaching the curriculum (see 3.4.1), ongoing professional development and workshop (see 3.4.2), capacity building (see 3.4.3) and support in terms of resources (see 3.4.4).

It seems the use of workshops to implement CAPF was the most commonly used method as displayed in these responses.

Teacher A when saying “I am familiar with the revised curriculum I have attended workshops on the revised curriculum” and supported by Teacher C when asserting “Yes the Ministry of Education and Training offered a one week workshop where a lot of information was disseminated”.

186
However, even though workshops were held some teachers had issues about the quality of the workshops, as shown in this response by Teacher A “But there was a lot of information in few days”. This might have some impact on teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum and the way it is supposed to be taught. The fundamental reason being that in such workshops with a lot of information to disseminate, teachers sit and information is delivered to them (see 3.4.2). This traditional way of offering professional development yields no outcome for teachers’ knowledge fundamentally because the practice tends to treat teachers as objects and passive participants (see 3.4.2).

One of the key factors to curriculum support is the provision of on-going on-site support (see 3.4.2). From the responses of the participants it becomes clear that there was some form of support given by the schools to their respective teachers as shown by this response by Teacher A when asserting that “What really helps me improve my teaching is that the school pays for on-going online workshops”. Teacher C adds to this by agreeing the “He has received a hard copy of the framework”. This type of support by schools is very important as it might go a long way in shaping teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

The type of school based support, though it was there but for all of the participants felt that it was not enough. Teacher A and Teacher C felt that by just being given the documents and not being taken through them was not enough, as Teacher A puts it: “Enough time should be given to teachers to understand the policy” Teachers C concurs by saying: “I must say a lot of things were still not clear”. Teacher B shares a similar view by saying “I was given a History syllabus when I first joined the school and I simply follow it. But what I need is lots of exposure and communication about this revised curriculum”.

The responses by many participants seem to corroborate literature that in a number of cases teachers receive copies of the framework, but no training in the use of the framework itself. In the case where training has been offered, it generally remained of short duration (see 3.4.2). This speaks to the way the schools are managed. It is the responsibility of the school management team to properly induct new teachers into what is required in their subjects (see 3.7.6).
This situation of lack of proper management and support is even made worse by the assertion by Teacher A by mentioning that “*However so far I have attended for Accounting. Honestly I have not been exposed to any History workshop*” and supported by Teacher B that “*I am not familiar with the revised curriculum framework*”. In cases like this, one would expect the management of schools to have been able to pick this matter up and arranged for some appropriate workshops to address this lack of History teaching training by Teacher A and B. Teacher A is an experienced teacher and Teacher B is novice in teaching, but it seems both need workshops to familiarise themselves with the revised curriculum.

Consequently literature contends that it is critical to pay close attention to training and supporting both new and experienced teachers. However there is evidence to suggest that support for beginning teachers has been uneven, inadequate and limited in scope and ambition (see 3.4.2). Another important aspect is that change requires diffusion of information to raise awareness of reform (see 3.4.1). This therefore points to both the education experts and policy makers in Lesotho to invest in professional development because the aim is to improve teaching.

The following paragraph presents data from the observations.

Managing curriculum change fundamentally starts with effective leadership (see 3.4). The important aspect of curriculum management is the need for equipment, resources and infrastructure to implement the curriculum. These resources among others include rooms, equipment, tools, ICT, books, library and other learning resources (see 3.4.4; 3.7.4).

For Teachers A in School 1 there are a number of resources to utilise for teaching and these include the available desk top and projector in the classroom, a variety of History text books and availability of Internet for both students and teachers. The classroom walls are mounted with whiteboards, students’ work and charts that have been bought but are relevant to the school curriculum as a whole. There is also a library with a good number of books for different subject including History. There is a computer lab and a well-equipped science lab. Each department has its own office with a desk top and a number of a variety of books on the shelves (see 4.4.3.1). The availability of the abovementioned resources may point to some understanding by the leadership of the way in which curriculum change is to be managed.
The following resources were seen as evidence

This picture represents a classroom in School 1

Figure 7: A Classroom in School 1
The picture above is the contents of another book besides the prescribed one. It is evident that resources for Teacher A are relevant for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The fundamental issue to remember is that Teacher A teaches in an English Medium School (see 4.4.3.1) and it seems the context and leadership play an important part with regard to availability of resources. There is assertion by Teacher A that “the SMT comprise of those with good background to current trends in education” (see 4.4.3.1). This assertion might suggest that the SMT is familiar with the requirements of a transformative curriculum. SMT is therefore investing in the resources that encourage effective implementation of a transformative curriculum.
For Teacher B in School 2 there is a room within the staffroom building, referred to as the computer lab. There are three computers for use by teachers at their different times. The computers are simply for typing because there are no Internet services. The classroom walls are mounted with chalk boards and about sixty desks are arranged all facing the board (see 4.4.3.2). Each learner possesses one text book the same as that utilised by the teacher.

Figure 9: Textbook for School 2

Above is the prescribed text book that is used by both the teacher and students.

Teacher C in School 3 seems to be in the same situation with Teacher B. There is a computer lab but there are no Internet services. This suggests that although in School 3 there are about twenty computers the lab is simply used for imparting
typing skills for students and basically by teachers to type tests and examinations. Just like in School 2 the classroom walls are mounted with chalk boards and about fifty to sixty desks are arranged all facing the board (see 4.4.3.3). Each learner possesses one text book, the same as that utilised by the teacher. The difference between Teacher B and Teacher C is that for the latter there is a library although most of the books are English novels (see 4.4.3.3).

Figure 10: Textbook in School 3

The conditions for Teacher B in School 2 and Teacher C in School 3 point to lack of relevant resources and this may suggest lack of understanding of the way in which curriculum change is to be managed.
The next paragraph presents data from document analysis

Document analysis is a form of research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. The use of document analysis is to determine whether the document was solicited, edited and determine the style, tones and agenda in the document (see 4.4.4.3). There is an assertion from literature that documents should be assessed for their completeness. This implies that the researcher should determine how selective or comprehensive the information from the document is (4.4.4.3).

There may be a number of constraints in managing curriculum change and the devolution of responsibility for curriculum to local levels. These constraints include the inadequate preparation for principals and teachers for curriculum change (see 3.4.3). Effective management of curriculum change demands systematic understanding of the new demands. In areas where capacity is not adequate there is need to give support necessary to fulfil the expectations of policy makers (see 3.4.1).

Teacher A produced the scheme of work and a lesson plan.

Figure 11: Scheme of Work for Teacher A   Form A Scheme      [On-going]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC 1</th>
<th>TEACHING POINTS</th>
<th>Key Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to History</td>
<td>1. What is History Definition x 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. why do we study History</td>
<td>Book 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To understand the present in the context of the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To cultivate a sense of identity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
whole week. The HODs check them on a weekly basis usually on every Monday before the start of classes. The foregoing might indicate effective management on the side of the SMT, in carrying out follow-up activities to check the schemes and lesson plans. This procedure points to a range of capacities to facilitate the curriculum implementation cycle and monitoring and supervision (see 3.4.3).

Considering that Teacher A is not a qualified History teacher the type of scheme presented above might point to collegiality. The fact that there are departmental meetings to draw up the schemes of work support the statement that collegiality offers great opportunity to learn from each other (see 3.4.3). Collegiality is the best on-going professional development that keeps teachers up-to-date on emerging technology tools for classroom and new curriculum resources (see 3.4.3). Teacher A response seems to affirm the contention that the SMT should have a working knowledge and understanding of the demands of the new curriculum development through holding regular meetings, encouraging training workshops and professional development, to ensure that all staff are kept informed of curriculum developments (see 3.4.3).

Teacher B also produced a scheme of work but it does not look like a formal document.
It seems as though Teacher B does not have time to plan for her lessons. The scheme of work is not elaborate, it simply looks like the topics were taken from the syllabus and put into writing. Furthermore, it seems there is lack of understanding regarding the scheme of work and lesson plan. On the other hand Teacher C failed to produce a scheme of work, but instead produced the History syllabus for the topics, which are simply followed chronologically as they appear in the History syllabus. This type of documents might suggest the lack of collegiality and mentoring in the case of Teacher B. There is assertion that mentoring is a learning tool for both the mentor, as well as the person being mentored (see 3.4.3).
The failure by Teacher B to produce a formal scheme of work and Teacher C to present a scheme of work, points to a lack of effective management of curriculum change. It seems capacity is not adequate to give the support necessary to fulfil the expectations of policy makers (see 3.4.1; 3.4.3).

The failure to produce the necessary documents or complete and comprehensive documents (4.4.4.3) by many of the participants, points to a lack of effective management of curriculum change. The fundamental duties of the leadership include unpacking the specifications so that all staff knows exactly what is involved in planning the overall schemes of work against the timetable (see 3.4.1). The situation for Teacher B and C points to a lack of competent staff and inadequate preparation of principals and teachers for curriculum change (see 3.4.3). Data seem to support literature in that it is in context that senses are created, perspectives are defined and meanings are constructed (see 4.3.1). In this study the context within which many participants operate, suggests that curriculum management in Lesotho was not managed correctly and this may affect the understanding and implementation of a transformation curriculum. Undermining the process of change has led many curriculum reforms to adopt over-simplistic approaches in trying to change the existing practices and thinking in schools (see 3.4).

5.3.2 Understanding of a transformative History curriculum

A transformative History teaching curriculum tends to be seen as that of developing and refining the historical consciousness of children and students at large (see 3.7.1; 3.7.2). It is also evident that a transformative History teaching curriculum is teaching that enables learners to develop critical faculties (see 3.6). A conceptualisation of a transformative History curriculum identified the following constructs: it is learner-centred, skill-based, consciousness raising, it creates a conducive learning environment, makes assessment an integral part of learning and uses resources meaningfully (see 3.8.2.1, 3.8.2.2, 3.8.2.6, 3.8.2.5, 3.7.3, 3.7.4)

In order to achieve teachers’ understanding of the concept of transformative teaching and impact it has on their teaching participants were asked the following question:
What do you understand by the phrase ‘transformative teaching?’

Transformative teaching is more learner-centred than teacher-centred (see 3.8.2.1). Learner-centred methods can encourage dialogue to assist learners to become collaborative with others and that the teacher does not shape the discussion (see 3.8.2.1). In view of the definition provided above, a transformative History curriculum therefore requires that the teacher becomes a facilitator and assists learners to shift from being passive recipients of information to become active producers of knowledge (see 3.8.2.1). Literature posits that one of the fundamental practices of learner-centred is interactive teaching and the practices, among others, include collaborative learning, case studies and presentations (see 3.8.2.1).

From the responses given by the participants there is clear indication that some of learner-centred practices were employed in the teaching of History. It seems presentations were the popular method among the participants, with Teacher A saying: “I am aware that the revised curriculum emphasises learner-centred approach. This approach requires learners to be active. Group work and presentations allow students to be active”. Teacher A further responds by saying: “In my teaching I do not emphasise dates and names like when I was in high school those students who did History used to say. So yes I think there is a change in to approach to teaching History”. Teacher A seems to have accepted change brought by the framework policy.

Teacher C concurs and adds “Group work, presentations and whole class discussions are some of the methods that encourage learner-centred teaching”. Teacher C adds by saying “I started teaching in 2013 when the revised curriculum was introduced. So I have no experience of teaching any other curriculum besides the current one”. The awareness of the emphasis on learner-centred approaches by the curriculum might impact on teachers’ understanding of a transformative curriculum and the way History might be taught.

However, as much as most of the participants are aware of learner-centred approaches, it seems none have an idea of the phrase, transformative teaching. This is made evident by Teacher A’s response: “No idea of the phrase”. Teacher A is supported by Teacher B with the assertion: “I am hearing that phrase for the first time”. Teacher B adds that: “I started teaching in 2017 so I have no experience of the
past curriculum. Therefore I am not in a position to comment for this question”. Teacher C gives the assertion: “I have no idea of the phrase”. There is an assertion by Teacher C: “However I am aware that the way we are expected to teach History is different from the way we were taught”. The response suggests that although it is the first experience, Teacher C might be aware of the change needed in teaching History. However, the lack of knowledge and inability by all the participants to define transformative teaching has a direct impact on the teaching. The participants might not teach effectively to achieve the requirements of a transformative History curriculum in that the methods may be learner-centred, but learner-centred is only one of the many principles of transformative teaching.

These responses once again point to the school management team to support teachers by giving induction that is so much required. There is an assertion that effective leadership is critical to the success of implementation of new or revised curriculum. The role of the leadership is therefore to unpack the specifications so that all staff knows exactly what is involved in teaching the curriculum (see 3.4.1). This lack of support might further point to the lack of understanding by the leadership itself who in turn require in-service training, in order to be able to impart knowledge to the subordinates. The fundamental key for leadership’s ability to offer support to members of staff, is to develop in-service training for the head teachers themselves for the more the school leadership understands the concept and feels comfortable the more likely they will support teachers (see 3.4.2).

The lack of support for teachers by leadership is further seen in the response given by Teacher B “Honestly I am not familiar with the framework so I am not sure of the practices encouraged by it”. To this effect literature contends that support for beginning teachers has been uneven, inadequate and limited in scope (see 3.4.2). Leadership should have picked up that Teacher B is not a qualified teacher and is relatively new to the teaching profession and looked at ways of assisting the understanding of some constructs in teaching.

Results from Teacher B are also consistent with literature, in that when schools have shortages of teaching staff for History, they simply allocate this subject to those that have not specialised in the subject (see 3.7.2). This is done under the unfortunate and incorrect assumption that History is merely the accumulation of facts and
therefore can be taught by any other teacher. This view might impact negatively on the teaching of a transformative History curriculum.

This situation forces the leadership to demonstrate knowledge and its commitment and so the leadership should have appointed some members for coordinating the changes and instigating the staff development that is required (see 3.4.1) to address the lack of knowledge for implementation of a transformative History curriculum, specifically for Teacher B. Teacher B demonstrates lack of understanding of a transformative History curriculum by saying: “I encourage my students to work alone so I can check individual understanding”. One of the principles of transformative teaching is collaboration and it seems the teacher lacks knowledge of the importance of this approach. The support could foster teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

There is also contention that curriculum change can include restructuring the needs of the society and introducing the latest and updating not only methods, but content and new knowledge (see 3.4). Consequently the success depends on all stakeholders having the capacity to develop or adopt a shared vision and commitment. The workshop by the Ministry of Education and Training are regarded as necessary because curriculum change requires diffusion of information to raise awareness of reform (see 3.4.1). Literature asserts that teachers need to be familiar with the new concepts and should strongly be motivated.

The responses point to lack of understanding of the concept ‘transformation teaching.’ Lack of understanding of transformative teaching might suggest that teaching may not address a transformative History curriculum (it is learner-centred, skill-based, community-based, consciousness raising, it creates a conducive learning environment, makes assessment an integral part of learning and uses resources meaningfully (see 3.8.2.1, 3.8.2.2, 3.8.2.6, 3.8.2.5, 3.7.3, 3.7.4). As such, strong teacher development is needed to immerse teachers in the knowledge, skills and values of transformative teaching (see 3.4.2).
5.3.3 Conceptualisation of History as a school subject

The purpose of this section was to establish how participants conceptualise History as a school subject. The understanding is important, as it will enable one to have a clearer picture of what the participants’ view of History is and therefore the impact that this conceptualisation is having on the way it is taught and dealt with in the classroom.

Participants were asked the following question

*What is your definition of History?*

A simple definition of History is the study of the story of the past (see 3.5.1). However for those operating at academic level, History is very much a process of investigation using particular methods and skills to analyse and interpret sources. With regard to the above History cannot be a very objective discipline because content alone can never be objective, but the procedure of History can (see 3.5.1).

It seems most participants gave the simple definition of History that History is a narrative of the events of the past (check 3.5.1), with Teacher A saying: “*History is the story of the past*”. Teacher B asserting that “*History is about what happened in the past...*” Teacher C is of the same view that: “*There are two definitions the first is History is the story of the past*”. With this type of understanding that is demonstrated by all the participants, there are few chances that that they can address skills or teach in a transformative manner.

However, even though all the participants gave a simple definition to History Teacher A and Teacher C went further to point out that there is another definition to History. Teacher A highlighted: “*I often read that History is the study of the story of the past*”. Teacher C concurs that: “*The second is that History is the study of the story of the past*”. This additional definition of History may influence approach differently from the first definition of just the story of the past.

Teacher A and C may seek to approach History as an academic subject and employ some of the methods that are learner-centred. This second definition may signal to Teacher A and C that learners need to be actively involved in the learning process. The understanding however, may not necessarily lead to effective use of methods required by a transformative History curriculum because in the previous sub-section
there is evidence that all participants lack understanding of the phrase ‘transformative teaching’ (see 5.3.2).

It is imperative to mention that Teacher C may go an extra mile in an understanding of and addressing skill based teaching and this is demonstrated in Teacher C’s words: “...then students do whole class discussions. This helps my students to improve their communication skills”. The use of discussions encourages communication and critical thinking that helps learners to transform from silent members to class leaders. Critical thinking is the core of transformative learning (see 3.7.2). History as an academic discipline is very much a process of investigation using particular methods and skills to analyse and interpret sources. Fundamental to the teaching of History, is the use of the inquiry method which encourages learners to discover and explain different perspectives and interpretation about the past (see 3.5.1).

Teacher B on the other hand contends that: “.....we share this through storytelling in the form of reading from a text book” and goes further to say: “I give class work and homework”. Although Teacher B may not provide another definition of History, like Teacher A and C, there seems to be hope for engaging learners in learning through class work and homework. It is still possible however, that Teacher B involvement may not address skills and teach in a transformative manner. It seems Teacher B holds an understanding that History is a narrative objective discipline; a perspective that was dominant in the last century (see 3.5.1). So for Teacher B the factual knowledge that is communicated to students reduces the efforts to create a historical awareness and to empower students.

Literature asserts that History is not only a narrative (3.5.2.4), but an act of both investigation and imagination that seeks to explain how people have changed over time (see 3.5.2.2, 3.5.1). There is need therefore for this subject to create opportunity for learners to develop a number of skills necessary to address the challenges in the 21st century (see 3.6). The responses suggest that all participants view History as a narrative objective subject. This conceptualisation may lead to a negative impact in the way this subject is taught and dealt with in the classroom in that methods and practices may not address a transformative History curriculum.
5.4 Data addressing the second objective: Establish how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum.

This section deals with the second objective of this study which is to establish how effective teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum. This section is looking at the practices that teachers are using to implement the transformative curriculum. In order to achieve this second objective, presentation is organised according to the following five constructs,

- Teaching methods and approaches used
- Learning environments
- Assessment
- Use of resources
- Curriculum leadership and support

5.4.1 Teaching methods and approaches

History needs to be taught well, in order to make learners gain deep appreciation of the relevance of their learning. Recent research in teaching and learning of History advocates for instructional approaches that engage learners in the process of doing History, including the use of primary sources and conducting a historical inquiry (see 3.7.2).

Participants were asked the following question

*What are some of the teaching methods that you employ in your History classroom?*

The key factor is that pedagogy is inseparable from content in History education reform and pedagogical approaches have implications on the role of the teacher. The skill-based and empowering nature of a transformative History curriculum is not congruent with traditional methods. It requires approaches that encourage learners to discover the truth (see 3.5.2.4). This aspect points to inquiry methods that encourage reflection, critical thinking skills – discovery, inquiry, investigation, interpretation, analysis and comparison among others (see 2.2.2.2.4; 3.6; 3.7.1; 3.7.2).

The responses from most of the participants indicate group work and presentations. Teacher A indicated: “I use group work, presentations, audio-visual and towards the
end of the year I give project work as part of coursework. It carries some percentage towards the final mark end of year. All students research on one same topic using different sources of information and then I mark them”. Teacher C concurs with Teacher A that “I use group work, presentations and whole class discussions”. Teacher B offers a different response from the two when saying “I use text book”.

Teacher A and Teacher C’s responses point to some aspects of constructivist paradigm, because group work and presentations are learner-centred approaches. This may go a long way to employ critical pedagogy as it aligns with constructivism in that knowledge is a social construct. Critical pedagogy challenges traditional ways of teaching and learning processes and it is grounded in dialogue (see 2.2.2.1). Group work and presentations utilised by Teacher A and Teacher C are regarded as some of the methods that encourage dialogue. Dialogue in a classroom is necessary and central to meaning making because it is in dialogue that students consider viewpoints and perspectives of others and develop communication skills (see 2.2.2.2.1).

The practices utilised by Teacher A and Teacher C, imply that teaching in both teachers’ classrooms may address skills, as well as vital aspects of a transformative curriculum. Conversely Teacher B uses a text book only. While the text book is still important in the teaching of history, constructivism suggests that the teacher acts as a facilitator towards construction of knowledge and not to memorise it (see 2.2.2.1). For teacher B therefore pedagogy seems not to support learner-centred approaches and as such may not address skills. The empowering nature of a transformative History curriculum emphasises on the development of independent and analytical skills (see 3.5.2.4). Literature posits that constructivist theory should point to a number of different teaching practices to construct knowledge actively rather than ingesting knowledge from the text book and encouraging reproduction of a series of facts (see 2.2.2.1). The subjective nature of History is congruent with curriculum as praxis and so views teaching and learning as a process of inquiry rather than banking (see 3.5.2.3).

In summation it might be that both Teacher A and C are qualified teachers and experienced in the field that they are employing some practices that address skills. On the other hand the practices for Teacher B might point to lack of qualification in teaching and for being a novice in the profession (see 4.4.3.3; 5.2).
OBSERVATIONS teaching methods and practices

In the History classroom observations were on how teachers teach.

It seems most of the participants used learner-centred approaches.

Teacher A utilises group work and presentations. Learners are given homework and encouraged to use different sources of information. The use of different sources of information is made possible by the availability of resources, including a variety of history books that learners have and the availability of Internet (see 4.4.3.1). These methods allow learners to engage with and construct knowledge. Group work allows for sharing of ideas and collaboration among learners and presentation may enable learners to develop communication skills (see 2.2.2.1).

The use of different sources of information by learners in Teacher A’s classroom, encourages discussion, as learners might bring different perspectives and this may also allow for reflection. This approach is grounded in critical pedagogy, which encourages knowledge to be critically analysed and it is grounded in dialogue and reflection. Literature further posits that critical pedagogy supports learner-centred relationships which include interaction that allows questioning (see 2.2.2.1). Critical pedagogy is linked to constructivism in that the focus shifts from teacher to learners (see 2.2.2.1). Teacher A’s methods seem to be supported by literature that posits that in a History classroom constructivism encourages the use of inquiry-based activities that should foster the construction of knowledge and development of critical thinking and decision making skills (see 2.2.2.1). Teacher A seems to teach in a manner that supports implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

Teacher B, just like Teacher A, also gives homework to learners, however, the use of only one prescribed text book limits the engagement of learners in construction of knowledge. Most of the learners come up with similar responses and there are no other perspectives. It can therefore be mentioned that practices that are utilised by Teacher B might not address a transformative curriculum, because transformative education is education that enables them to constructively consider multiple viewpoints and perspectives in dialogue with others (see 3.8.1).

Like the other two participants, Teacher C gives homework, but his situation is more similar to that of teacher B. This approach points to lack of resources and this challenge, encourages teacher-centred practices that support reproduction of
knowledge (see 2.2.2.1). The traditional way of teaching impedes on effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

Constructivism is not a particular pedagogy, but encourages the use of active techniques and real-world problem solving to create more knowledge, reflect on tasks and how their understanding is changing (see 2.2.2.1). There is need for the participants to make use of different teaching approaches in order to implement a transformative curriculum effectively. Learners should deal with complex and real world situations and thus community-based learning should be part of teaching. In the classroom situation project-based learning can help emphasise real world application and promote divergent thinking by asking learners to apply skills as they would in real life (see 3.8.2.3).

Teacher A’s project task to learners: “What did Hitler hope to achieve by Anschluss?”

Teacher A uses project work, however the nature of the task seems not appropriate. Fundamentally project based learning should portray interactive teaching and raises critical consciousness rather than developmental (see 3.8.2.3). Secondly in order to raise consciousness, constructivists believe that learners should not be stripped down and given simplified problems and basic drills (see 2.2.2.1). The nature of the task given to learners seems to indicate that Teacher A might not address a transformative curriculum, for the simple reason that critical consciousness is the process in which the learners develop the ability to analyse, pose questions and take action on the political, social and cultural contexts that shape their lives (see 3.8.2.6).

One way to overcome this problem is to use a pedagogy that shows learners how to critically analyse and act to change neighbourhood and that is critical pedagogy because it is situated in the life world of students and is oriented towards human well-being (2.2.2.2.7).

There can also be a similar assertion for Teacher B and Teacher C that the lack of use of project work indicates that the two participants might not employ methods that address skills and a transformative curriculum. There is need for project-based learning and learners must work on projects that deepen their knowledge and understanding of the neighbourhood in which they live and show how they can bring about change in them (see 3.3.2.6).
Progressive approach is pedagogical approach that puts strong emphasis on problem solving and critical thinking. Proponents of progressive approach argue that knowledge is not static and that all reality or truth changes. Knowledge is dynamic and learners should be allowed to learn freely and should only be assisted to discover new truths (see 3.2.2.2). It is evident that progressive approaches utilises skill-based methods. Namely: discovery, inquiry, investigation, interpretation and analysis. Literature clearly indicates that critical consciousness can also involve integration of community service learning (see 3.8.2.6). Critical epistemology of critical theory views knowledge as socially constructed and influenced by power relations from within society (see 2.2.2; 2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2; 2.2.2.6).

Another practice that was observed in Teacher A’s classroom was use of group work. Learners are given one lesson of forty minutes to complete the task. Learners are allowed to utilise text books, their cell phones and tabs to find information. The next forty minutes each group is given about six minutes to present to other whole class. This kind of approach encourages discovery of information and dialogue as different groups discuss their view point in support or against the information they collected. In Teacher A’s classroom the teacher is there to support and direct learners and does not give information to students to just accept. The use of learner-centred methods by Teacher A can be attributed to availability of resources and so learning becomes interactive as learners are expected to participate in conversation (see 2.2.2.2.2).

Teacher A demonstrates features of a facilitator and activities are learner-centred. This implies that learning is situated within constructivist paradigm and critical pedagogy that emphasise that focus should shift from the teacher to the learners (see 2.2.2.1). Learner-centred approaches allow for dialogue and dialogue negates teacher-centred approaches (see 2.2.2.1; 3.8.2.1; 3.8.2.4). Teacher A therefore demonstrates some ability to teach in a transformative manner because there is dialogue and students are active members of the class.

Teacher A also shows documentaries to learners and allow for discussion on why certain incidents in the documentary occurred. This goes a long way to support a transformative History curriculum and this might point to support by leadership to make relevant resources available (see 3.4.4). Availability of resources enables Teacher A to use a variety of teaching methods in a manner that may encourage a
transformative History curriculum, because literature posits that no teaching method can be said to be the only best method in the teaching of this subject (see 3.7.2).

Teacher C’s classroom is characterised by learners in groups and the discussion of the tasks. In a similar manner like Teacher A, learners are given some time to find information in the prescribed text book and then engage in whole class discussions. So in Teacher C’s classroom, methods and activities involve learners in learning. This can go a long way to assist in the teaching of a transformative curriculum. However there are some restrictions, because of lack of materials that can be utilised by learners to find information. Learners rely solely on their prescribed text books. This might point to the SMT to ensure availability of resources to assist Teacher C to implement a transformative History curriculum. Literature contends that an important aspect of curriculum management is the need for equipment, resources and infrastructure to implement the curriculum (see 3.4.4).

Contrary to the situation in Teacher A and Teacher C’s classrooms, in Teacher B’s class, one learner at a time reads text on the topic and the teacher is the one who gives all explanations. Learners copy notes on the board and are expected to be at their desks for the whole lesson. Teacher B seems to rely heavily on teacher-centred approaches and as such, might not teach in a transformative manner. While the text book is important, constructivism modifies the role of the teacher to guide learners to construct knowledge rather than ingesting knowledge from the text book (see 2.2.2.1).

There is an assertion that with (Tyler’s model) curriculum as product, learning is a linear process and frequently the book or the teacher provides only a narrow content area and learning is an individual process (see 3.2.2.1). Although the text book is one of the important resources in the process of teaching and learning, it takes much away from the learners and they can end up with little or no voice (see 3.2.2.1). To this end there is contention from literature that History taught in schools is highly susceptible to simplified presentation, due to teachers who lack skills and knowledge of the nature of History as a subject. Such teachers do not possess the knowledge on how a historical inquiry is conducted (see 3.7.1). Against this backdrop, Teacher B employs teaching practices that encourage History to be regarded as a narrative only.
5.4.2 Conducive environment

Teachers using transformative learning as their instructional approach need to have a learning environment that is safe, open and trusting. Essentially such an environment should allow for participation, collaboration and critical reflection. Only if learners interact with their teacher and each other, will their learning experience be truly transformative (see 3.8.2.5). Secondly, a conducive environment is liberating because there is dialogue and communication between the teacher and learners and among students themselves (see 2.2.2.5).

The participants were asked the following question

*How can you describe your classroom environment?*

Discussion, dialogue and conversation encourage a conducive environment. The role of the teacher is therefore replaced with that of facilitator who creates an environment in which learners are comfortable and feel free to discuss with others (see 3.8.2.5).

Most responses indicate a collaborative classroom environment, supported by Teacher A when saying: “I also encourage them to assist each other learn...”. Teacher C concurs and in his words says: “There is cooperation and collaboration among my students because I use group work and presentations”. Teacher A adds that: “Students in my class interact because of the use of group work and presentations”. With this type of environment there is possibility for encouragement and support of a transformative History curriculum. Both Teacher A and C may address some values and teach in a transformative manner for the fact that both collaboration and interaction are fundamental elements to learner centred approach, which is one of the principles of a transformative curriculum.

The response from Teacher B on the other hand, indicates the use of traditional methods. This follows the saying by Teacher B: “I do a lot of explanation after students read text”. It seems the approach is teacher-centred, because all explanations are done by the teacher, suggesting that learners are expected to accept the interpretation that is given by the teacher. Such environment compels learners to be passive. Firstly, in order to create a conducive learning environment
the teacher is required to become a facilitator and needs to create an environment for openness (see 3.8.2.5) and in the situation of Teacher B this is not the case. In a liberating classroom there is dialogue and what can be referred to as democratic communication which disconfirms domination (see 2.2.2.2.5).

Secondly a conducive classroom requires the employment of critical pedagogy for it allows for a liberating environment that challenges the teacher as an authority who transfers knowledge to passive learners (see 2.2.2.2.5). The inability for teacher B to create a liberating classroom environment may be advocated to a lack of teacher training and further points to ineffective management to support this novice teacher in terms of ongoing workshops and professional development (see 4.4.3.2; Table 5.1).

Teacher A and C might go an extra mile in creating a conducive environment that encourages transformative teaching in that Teacher A says: “....that means students should not laugh when others make mistakes because they are all here to learn”. There is a sense of caring and trust in the statement by Teacher A. Teacher A’s response is supported by literature contention that learners learn best in a non-threatening environment, therefore feelings and knowledge are important in the learning process (3.2.2.3).

Teacher A is demonstrating a humanistic approach which some of its core principles include respect for human dignity and respect for cultural diversity (see 3.2.2.3). The same sentiments are shared by Teacher C: “My students have developed the attitude of helping each other learn and they are free to ask questions”. There is a sense of open environment where all are free to make mistakes and there is a sense of trust that is created among the learners and the teacher as well. Teacher C just like Teacher A, demonstrates a humanistic approach, which is also about a sense of shared responsibility (see 3.2.2.3). Both Teacher A and C demonstrate some skills in creating a conducive learning environment and that is one step in the direction for a transformative curriculum.

A key step in creating and supporting a transformative curriculum is to create an environment of openness in which all learners feel safe and trusting to participate in learning (see 3.2.2.3). Such an environment as described above encourages
learners to use critical thinking skills to question assumptions and authority in order to enhance the relationship between teacher and learners (see 3.2.2.3).

Teacher A in particular supports the assertion that a teacher is supposed to establish an environment that facilitates the development of sensitive relationships among learners (see 3.2.2.3), by emphasising that students should not laugh at each other. Teacher C emphasises an open environment where learners are free to ask questions. It seems both teachers though they may not necessarily have a clear definition of the phrase transformative curriculum, employ approaches that to some extent encourage a conducive environment for learning.

Teachers B on the other side, seems to be unable to create an environment that is conducive for transformative learning and in her words: “I am strict but there are those students who challenge me with noisy and restless behaviour. But I bring them to the front so I can deal with them”.

In order to create a conducive learning environment the teachers work themselves out of the lone position of authority, to one of co-learners among a class of self-directed learners (see 3.8.2.5). Such a classroom environment encourages learners to use critical thinking to question authority in order to enhance the relationship between teacher and learners (see 3.8.2.5). The response by Teacher B seems to highlight no chances for a transformative conducive learning environment because liberating classroom environment is anti-authoritarian (see 2.2.2.2.3), negates one-sided relationships and creates space for learners to assume more responsibility for the class (see 2.2.2.2.5).

**OBSERVATIONS: ENVIRONMENT**

In humanistic approach the core principles are respect for human dignity, equal opportunities and a shared sense of responsibility. The environment in Teacher A's classroom allows for learners to interact with another. Learners are allowed to ask questions and the teacher does not always give responses as she encourages learners to go and consult with books or internet sources and share their responses. Learners are motivated to work in collaboration with the teacher ready to listen and assist one another in learning. There is an environment of a liberal classroom where respect for each other’s opinion is demonstrated. This situation points to a
humanistic approach and might go a long way in creating an environment conducive for transformative curriculum.

Another factor that might contribute to humanistic approach is the low number of learners in Teacher A’s classroom, less than twenty five per class. This influences the way desks and chairs are arranged and they are not always facing the board and the arrangement allows the movement of the teacher among the learners (see 4.4.3.1). Literature contends that humanistic approach requires low teacher-learner ratio because the most important person is the learner and not the teacher (see 3.2.2.3). The environment for Teacher B is different from this for Teacher A.

The environment in Teacher B’s classroom is that which does not encourage collaboration and interaction as it is emphasised that learners should work alone. It seems the environment in Teacher B’s classroom negates constructivism, which emphasises that in a classroom situation learners are expected to be active members in order to construct knowledge (see 2.2.2.1). In Teacher B’s classroom the power of what to do and how to do it rests with the teacher. Literature posits that a classroom situation that demonstrates imbalances to maintain the status quo of the teacher as authority is regarded as oppressive (see 2.2.2; 2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2.2). The environment in Teacher B’s classroom denies learners the opportunity to think for themselves. The problem is that traditional method is obsolete as a way to prepare and equip learners with the skills necessary in the 21st century world (see 3.2.2.1). Traditional approach discourages creativity, suggesting that Teacher B might not effectively implement a transformative History curriculum.

The environment in Teacher B’s classroom therefore seems not to encourage a transformative History curriculum because it represents the epistemological concept of conformity and passive absorption of selected knowledge. The principles of dialogue, interaction and emancipation are overlooked in Teacher B’s classroom. The humanistic approach is learner-centred in nature and is typified by learners taking responsibility for their own learning (see 3.2.2.3). It seems Teacher B’s classroom lacks a lack of conducive environment to support an effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

The situation presented above might also point to a lack of professional development. The leadership should have picked up that Teacher B is not a trained
teacher and should have assisted through on-going professional development. Professional development is viewed as the most effective approach to improve the teachers’ instructional practices after they enter the workforce (see 3.4.3). Teacher B’s approach might also be aggravated by large numbers in the classroom which are between fifty and sixty (4.4.3.2).

The environment in Teacher C’s classroom is that which allows learners to question some information and allows for learners to make mistakes. In this classroom learners assist each other to learn, because in the case where some make mistakes or do not offer any responses as required, others are quick to come to their assistance. This is done by either clarifying the question or probe each other to lead to the responses. The level of dialogue and cooperation in Teacher C’s classroom is recognisable. It is this presented situation that has the potential to encourage a conducive environment for transformative teaching.

The environment in Teacher C’s classroom is liberating and of humanistic approach. Humanistic approach is about the total person who is involved in gaining knowledge and working towards wisdom (3.2.2.3). Humanistic approach is really about creating a need within the child, or instilling motivation in the child (see 3.2.2.3). The humanistic approach that is evident in Teacher C’s classroom goes a long way to support a conducive environment for a transformative curriculum. In a liberating classroom there is dialogue and communication between teacher and learners and among learners themselves (see 2.2.2.2.5).

However, lack of space might impede effective implementation, because the numbers in each class are high with about fifty to sixty students (see 4.4.3.3). In Teacher C’s words: “I can say I am free with students. I realise that they have come to appreciate that working in groups is helpful for their learning”. Teacher C highlights some challenges by mentioning that: “The only setback is that I am always at the front because the class is full so I cannot come closer to all groups”. Like mentioned earlier, a humanistic environment requires low learner-teacher ratio (see 3.2.2.3).

This situation for both Teacher B and C points to lack of resources and effective management and this might impede on effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The fundamental issue of curriculum management is the need for
resources which among others include rooms, books ICT and library (3.4.1; 3.4.4). The large numbers seem to inhibit the movement of Teacher C to reach all groups and also during group work learners are paired according to where they are seated. This might not be an effective way to form groups.

5.4.3 Makes assessment an integral part of learning

Assessment of learners’ transformative growth is essential and best performed by the teacher in cooperation with the learners. Teachers should regularly conduct a planned formative assessment in which evidence of learners’ progress and achievement is used to adjust teaching and learning (see 3.7.3).

The participants were asked the following question

*How can you describe your classroom assessment?*

Teacher A responds by saying: “*All students research on one same topic using different sources of information and then I mark them*”. Teacher A may demonstrate awareness of the necessity for project work, but the implementation does not necessarily address a transformative curriculum, because project based learning is interactive rather than developmental (see 3.3.2.6). Teacher A also mentions: “*I normally inform students of the topics to cover in a test and when I give feedback we revisit the topics again depending on performance of students*. “*In this school we use continuous assessment and examinations for promotion and each carries a certain percentage*”.

Both Teacher B and C respond in similar ways with Teacher B asserting: “*We do continuous assessment and tests given during the course of the year together with final examination help in promoting our students to the next class*”. Teacher C gives a contention: “*We use tests and examinations for the purposes of promotion to the next class*”. From the responses it seems all participants focus on assessment as a tool to assist in promoting learners to the next level in academic learning.

However Teacher A seems to have some understanding that feedback is important and that might go long way to using and making assessment an integral part of learning. Teacher A is the one that marks learners’ written work and gives feedback. Teacher A gives the assertion that: “*Yes when I realise students did not understand the concept or topic I then sit to find how best I can teach it. That is why my methods*
shift from group work to audio visuals”. In this case it can be deduced that Teacher A uses assessment to improve instruction. Teacher A seems to be a reflective teacher and this might influence her to implement a transformative History curriculum effectively.

Formative assessment theory explains that the teacher should pay attention to the interaction between learning intentions and learner’s responses, in order to analyse and act on those to improve instruction (see 3.7.3). Theories have noted that formative assessment is a process and not a specific measure and that tacit knowledge are revealed through educator and learner discussion, reflection and experience (see 3.7.3).

Most participants seem to have a lack of understanding of formative assessment and as such this points to lack of reflection on the sight of the participants. On the side of learners it suggests that they are not able to identify their current state of knowledge and beliefs. To this can then be mentioned that the teachers might not utilise formative assessment in a manner that allows for adjustments in teaching and learning.

**Document analysis data: assessment**

**Assessment (Skill-based approach)**

In praxis assessment is based on self-assessment instruments and portfolios and is continuous (see 3.2.2.4). The subjective nature of History is congruent with praxis (see 3.5.2.3.). Furthermore History as an academic subject is an act of both interpretation and imagination and utilises particular skills to find, analyse and interpret sources of evidence that seek to explain how people have changed over time (see 3.5.1; 3.7.1). Therefore in praxis assessment indicates the need for skills including interpretation of the source and it should be continuous (see 3.7.1).

Data collected from the document analysis is also presented.

The following is the document depicting the nature of assessment given in Teacher A’s classroom
Teacher A explains “I have learned from my colleagues that in for as long as students support their answers there cannot be really wrong answer. So at least I emphasise that there are supporting statement for responses”. This response might suggest some understanding of the definition of History as an academic subject. This might assist Teacher A to go a long way in planning assessment that is skill-based.

The academic definition held by Teacher A seems to suggest that the teacher possesses some understanding that History requires the use of sources to interpret and give meaning to. Interpretation is necessary, due to the fact that evidence about the past can include the remains, which among others include bones, art work and written accounts (see 3.5.2.3) and the foregoing makes History subjective.
For Teacher B the situation is directly the opposite to that of Teacher A.

The nature of assessment in Teacher B’s classroom:

When was the Jameson Raid?

Who won the Second Anglo-Boer War?

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The questions above are regarded as low order and any curriculum that is organised purely around product reduces History to assimilation and retention of facts through memorisation (see 3.2.2.1). History offers learners opportunity to acquire creative and critical thinking and it is this nature of this subject that makes History not congruent with traditional methods referred to as ‘banking concept’ (see 3.2.2.1).
Assessment in Teacher B’s classroom is based on objective questions. The type of assessment seems to suggest that Teacher B takes History as based only on facts and as an objective discipline. However there is a contention that content alone can never be objective, but the procedure of History can (see 3.7.2). So the factual knowledge is being reduced in favour of efforts to foster the development of a historical awareness.

The nature of assessment given by Teacher B seems not to support a transformative History curriculum. This situation may point to the lack of management to increase capacity building that aims at increasing the collective power of the people. In order to increase the collective power of the people a range of capacities is required to facilitate curriculum implementation and understanding core concepts such as learner-centred approaches (see 3.4.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.3). The situation for Teacher B might also point to lack of support in terms of training. There is the contention that attention must be paid to providing novice teachers with early and adequate support for induction programs create opportunity for novice teachers to learn best practices and analyse and reflect on their own (see 3.4.1 3.4.2; 3.4.3).

The situation in Teacher B’s classroom also points to lack of resources for there is only one prescribed book that is utilised by both the teacher and the learners. In the words of Teacher B “Each learner has a prescribed text book but according to me I don’t think this means enough resources. One book cannot contain all information”. This situation points to the contention that the SMT should channel resources where they are most needed and ensure that the new curriculum get a fair budget (see 3.4.4).

It is important to present on assessment in Teacher C’s classroom. The nature of assessment in Teacher C’s classroom
Figure 15: Assessment Paper for Teacher C

It seems assessment in Teacher C’s classroom is relatively similar to that given by Teacher B. Most of the questions seem to demand for objective responses. The nature of History requires interpretation and this is a highly subjective process throughout. It is this subjective nature that makes History congruent with curriculum as praxis (see 3.2.2.4). Assessment in Teacher C’s classroom seems not to be congruent requirements of a transformative History curriculum. The situation might point to lack of resources to allow for different perspectives and interpretation and analysis. There is only one text book that is utilised by both the teacher and the
learners. Although Teacher C claims he has his own History books it is not easy to photocopy material for students due to lack of equipment.

There is contention from literature that any substantial changes to the definition of History would make inevitable changes to the existing subject, assessment and textbooks. So the situation for Teacher B and Teacher C advocates for management to channel resources where they are most needed.

5.4.4 Uses resources meaningfully

An important aspect of curriculum management is the need for equipment, resources, and infrastructure to implement the curriculum. These resources include rooms, equipment, tools, ICT, books, library and other learning resources (see 3.4.4).

The following question was asked to the participants

*Are there enough relevant resources to enable you to implement transformative curriculum?*

Teacher A contends: “*I can say so because there are a number of text books I can use with students.*” Teacher B responds explaining that: “*Each learner has a prescribed text book but according to me I don’t think this means enough resources*”. Teacher C concurs and gives an assertion that: “*Well there are no books to support this revised curriculum*”.

It seems for most of the participants the most important resource is a book and for Teacher A there is a variety of books, not only just the prescribed one. This is an indication that learners can be referred to different sources to find information. This assertion is based on Teacher A’s response that presentations are some of the methods that are employed in her class. Teacher A may stand a better chance to some extent, to teach research skills where learners find information on their own and this might lead to teaching in a transformative manner.

Unlike Teacher A, the situation for Teacher B and Teacher C is different because both teachers rely solely on a prescribed text book. For both teachers the lack of different kinds of History books might impede on their teaching in a transformative manner. This is supported by Teacher B when saying: “*One book cannot contain all information and we do have access to internet*”. There is contention from Teacher C
that: “The challenge is lack of resources. Promises were made by the government but there are still no books that support the curriculum”.

Teacher A continues by mentioning that: “There is a computer in the department and teachers have access to the internet. And there are projectors in the school”. Teacher A’s response is contrasted by Teacher C when saying: “There is the computer lab but with no access to the internet. Even I do have a smart phone and a laptop but the issue is who should pay for data for use to prepare students work?”

The lack of books and access to Internet seem to impact on effective teaching for both Teacher B and C.

Lack of resources for Teacher B and Teacher C just like already mentioned suggests that the SMT should direct funds where they are most needed (see 3.4.4).

The concerns are an indication of disappointment for lack of resources. Literature suggests that today’s learners are much more familiar with technology than learners ever were before (see 3.3.2.4). Therefore learners’ expectations of technology to be made available by institutions are very high. Learners’ expectations are for technology that enables them to contribute and participate in learning through sharing (see 3.3.2.4).

There was a follow up question

*How comfortable are you with the use of technology?*

It seems all participants are comfortable with the use of technology with Teacher A saying: “I am very comfortable. That is why it is easy for me to search for question papers on internet and also to use the projector.” Teacher B follows with a contention: “I rely on technology for everyday information. So I can say I am quite comfortable because I rely on my smart phone for information”. Teacher C concurs and asserts that: “I have my own smart phone and I am really comfortable with the use of technology”.

Teacher A seems to be on a good standing as compared to the others in that the resources in the school allow her to put to use her skills in technology in teaching. The key factor is that the computer technology of the 21st century influences curriculum development at every level of learning.
Although Teacher B and C have skills in the use of technology, the lack of resources implies that both Teacher B and C might not employ it as a teaching method. This leads to failure to involve students in interactive learning that exposes learners to sharing and analysis of different perspectives (2.2.2.2; 3.8.2.3)

How important is the use of technology is necessary in the History classroom?

Teacher A responds with an assertion that: “I already use technology in my class because students watch documentaries. Some of these students do have tabs so I have realised that when they are given tasks some information must have been searched from the Internet”. Teacher B gives a positive response by saying: “I think the use of technology would help me to improve teaching and learning. However the setback is that our children do not have access to the internet”. There is an assertion from Teacher C that: “The use of technology is important because like I mentioned earlier I have a laptop which I can use if I have internet to get some material for students. If we had access to internet our students would also use the computer lab for deeper understanding of the topics I cover with them”.

In this situation Teacher A also seems to have an advantage in that, not only is there a computer in the department, but learners also have their own tabs which they can use in learning. There are some chances that Teacher A may address skills and teach in a transformative manner. The advancement of technology has weakened the monopoly of formal education institutions on the creation, transmission and validation of knowledge (see 3.3.2.4). For Teacher B and C the situations in which there are either no computers or access to the Internet, suggest that both teachers may not address skills and not teach in a transformative manner.

Literature indicates that the advancements in technology necessitate a different approach to teaching and learning. So technological change is redefining not only how to communicate, but how teachers need to educate (see 3.3.2.4). The readily availability of information has lessened the necessity for a curriculum that is teacher-centred and rooted in the aim to prepare citizens for democratic societies (see 3.3.2.4). To sum up data collected from the interviews, it is evident that many of the participants lack understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

The data seem to suggest that this lack of understanding is due to lack of support by the leadership (SMT). Not only ineffective management, but also lack of resources,
professional development and capacity building, contribute to lack of teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

5.4.5 Curriculum Leadership and support

It is the responsibility of the school management team to properly induct new teachers into what is required by their subject (see 3.7.6). Teachers require extensive planning time to create a constructivist classroom and atmosphere (see 3.7.5).

The following question was asked to the participants:

*What type of support do you get from the leadership?*

Teacher A explains that: "There are departmental meetings in which we scheme and plan together. There are also special staff meetings convened to deliberate overall teaching strategies. There is great support indeed through the online workshops and resources that are available in the school". The fact that the leadership of the school is recruited from an environment that have already exposed them to current trends in educations (see 4.4.3.1), seems to be a contributing factor to support that which is described by Teacher A.

Teacher B responds by saying: "So far I cannot say much support because although the management emphasises that we plan together not much is happening regarding that". Teacher B is in the teaching field for one year and this is the teacher who does not have a teaching qualification. It seems Teacher B is not receiving the type of assistance required and this might imply that there is no supporting culture. The situation points to lack of effective leadership and in the absence of support Teacher B might not be able to implement a transformative History curriculum.

Teacher C responds by saying: "The challenge is resources. Promises were made by the Government but there are still no books that support the curriculum and there is still no internet. The computers are there but what use are they without the access to internet?" Teacher C explains by saying "Leadership encourages us to plan together. However there is a challenge for me because I am the only teacher of History in the school. What I simply do is to follow the syllabus as is given to us". Teacher C continues by saying: "Not much really even from the government because there are not even resources for the Localised curriculum". Similarly in the absence
of support from the leadership and government Teacher C might not be able to implement a transformative History curriculum.

It is important to highlight again that Teacher B and C come from Government schools and the Ministry of Education and Training is the main organ that brings major reforms in curriculum. One would expect that Teacher B and C would get direct support not only from the SMT, but from the government through the SMT.

The responses from most of the participants point to the assertion that curriculum change in Lesotho was not managed effectively. The lack of resources and effective management of curriculum impacts on the implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

5.5 Conclusion

The understanding of curriculum change is relevant to this study because Lesotho changed its curriculum in 2008 aligning itself to Vision 2020 and the revised curriculum was then implementation started in 2013. That change could be viewed as seeking for teaching to become learner-centred, encouraging self-directed learning, empowering students with critical skills, values and social attitudes as well as a self-emancipation tool from the threat of poverty all of which are aspects of a transformative curriculum. The change in the Lesotho curriculum framework is an attempt to end the uncoordinated curriculum activities that are no longer responsive to the aspirations of Basotho people (MOET, 2008: 2 & 6).

The transformative nature of the revised Lesotho curriculum seems to be congruent with critical pedagogy that structures this study in that critical pedagogy encourages emancipation of learners from oppressive conditions. Literature contends that the curriculum framework represents the vision of the society regarding teaching and learning (see 2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2; 3.2.2.3). The framework sets the subjects within the wider context and shows how learning experiences have to contribute to the attainment of wider goals. Consequently one of the driving factors for change is relevance (see 3.2.2; 3.2.2.1). However in this study relevance and implementation of a transformative History curriculum cannot be achieved, because there is a lack of understanding of core concepts such as transformative teaching (see 5.4.1) by the very teachers who are supposed to implement change.
The lack of knowledge and inability to define transformative teaching has direct impact on teaching. The teachers might not teach effectively in that the methods may not address a transformative History curriculum. It seems most of the participants to some extent teach in a transformative manner, however data indicate that they are not intentionally teaching for transformative learning (see 5.4.1). Therefore this might suggest that they cannot make students have a learning experience that changes what they believe, how they think or how they act.

From transformative perspective teaching is creating conditions that have the potential to transform the learner on many different levels (cognitive, emotional, social, creative and spiritual). Teaching further invites both students and teachers to discover their full potential as learners, as members of society and as human beings. This perspective suggests that the ultimate transformative goal is to help develop more nurturing human beings who are better able to perceive the interconnectedness of all human, plant and animal life. In that regard holistic education is an educational philosophy consistent with the transformative view. Learning is said to have occurred when these experiences elicit a transformation of consciousness that leads to greater understanding of and care for self, others and environment (see 3.8.1; 3.8.2; 3.8.2.1; 3.8.2.2; 3.8.2.3; 3.8.2.4; 3.8.2.5; 3.8.2.6).

However, many of the participants seemed to ignore the holistic nature of transformative teaching. The methods that encouraged a transformative History curriculum were not well explored, the assessment was not divergent enough and the environment was not liberating and consciousness-raising at all. Guided by the information presented, the study established that teachers have different perspectives of a transformative History curriculum. The data corroborate literature that it is in context that perspectives are made. Teacher A’s perspective is encouraged by the availability of curriculum support, resources and collegiality that are present in the school. Teacher C may not be able to apply all the principles of a transformative curriculum, but the fact that emphasis on teaching is on learner-centred practices and the classroom environment shows signs of humanistic approach, indicates a different view from the other two participants.

Teacher B and Teacher C’s perspective is guided by lack of resources, ineffective leadership, lack of collegiality and professional development. There seems to be not
much difference in their teaching of History due to the constraints mentioned above. Indeed context plays a vital role in shaping perspectives.
CHAPTER 6

Discussions of findings, recommendations, summary and conclusions

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History in Lesotho High schools. The aim emanated from the realisation that the Government of Lesotho through its Ministry of Education and Training rolled out the implementation of the revised curriculum in 2013. The CAPF emphasises methods that shift from memorisation to evaluation and practices that stimulate critical reflection, empathy and those that encourage learners to develop greater responsibility for their learning. Emphasis is therefore of methods that are interactive, learner-centred and encourage application of information (see 1.1).

This chapter therefore presents a brief summary of the research methodology that was employed to achieve the main aim in this study. Qualitative methodology assisted the researcher to achieve the main objective mentioned above.

The chapter further discusses the findings of the study and components of a transformative History curriculum. The conclusions of the findings are also highlighted and some issues that may be considered for further research emanating from the study are presented. The chapter ends with a personal reflection on the study.

6.2 Aim and objectives of the empirical research

The main aim of this empirical research was to

- Determine teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools

This aim was supported by the following objectives to:

- Determine teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum.
- Establish how effective teachers are in implementing a transformative History curriculum.
• Present suggestions and recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

6.3 Research Methodology

6.3.1 Critical pedagogy guided the study in order to achieve the main aim and objectives

The study was located within and guided by critical theory (see 1.3; 2.2; 2.2.2) (see Chapter 2). Critical pedagogy traces its origins back to critical theory and considering that critical pedagogy applies to a number of educational perspectives that address the issues of power in teaching and learning (see one) assisted the researcher to achieve the main aim and objectives of this study. Critical pedagogy as the conceptual framework of the study allowed for qualitative methodology and methods to collect data (see 2.2; 2.2.2).

Chapter 3 was an extensive literature review in pursuit of knowledge and understanding of concepts including transformative curriculum and the nature of History that then assisted to determine perceptions and perspectives and guide conclusions that were reached. Considering that the study was qualitative, the success therefore depended on the observations, the open ended interviews and document analysis as aspects of empirical research. The mentioned aspects form part of the appendices attached to the study. The findings were then presented in Chapter five.

Having given this overview the next section presents the methodology

6.3.2 Qualitative methodology

As mentioned in the previous section, the study employed qualitative methodology. The naturalistic nature of qualitative research allowed the researcher to be in the natural area to collect data and critical pedagogy was central in determining understanding and implementation of a transformative History curriculum and revealed a range of behaviour and perceptions of the sample in the study. Through purposive sampling the context became three high schools in Maseru Lesotho with two teachers from international school and two from local schools bringing the total of participants to four (see 4.4.2; 4.4.2.1; 4.4.2.1.1) (see chapter four). However due
to unforeseen circumstances one teacher from an international school could not participate in the study. The withdrawal of the teacher was accepted with regard that participation was on a voluntary basis and no one should be forced to participate in a project (see 4.4.13; 4.4.13.1; 4.4.13.2; 4.4.13.3; 4.4.13.4) (see chapter four).

The total number of schools that participated remained three and the participants were three instead of four. It is important to explain that despite the withdrawal of one teacher, the sample remained reliable and validated the main aim of the study because two contexts namely of international and government schools were still represented as originally planned. In addition the withdrawal did not affect the research tools that were utilised to collect data suggesting that the trustworthiness of the study remained credible, transferable and confirmable (see 4.4.6; 4.4.7; 4.4.8; 4.4.9; 4.4.10; 4.4.11; 4.4.12) (see chapter four). The selected schools became insight of the settings that had the potential to be a clue that unlocked a more comprehensive understanding of the context in determining teachers' perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

6.4 The findings from the literature and empirical research

6.4.1 Objective 1: Determine teachers' understanding of a transformative History curriculum

Literature contends that change in curriculum has great impact on classroom teaching and learning. The statement supports the need to establish teachers' understanding of a transformative History curriculum and the foregoing was achieved by classifying understanding in terms of managing curriculum change (see 3.4; 3.4.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.3; 3.4.4), understanding of a transformative curriculum (see 3.6; 3.7.1; 3.7.2; 3.7.3; 3.7.4; 3.8; 3.8.2.1. to 3.8.2.6) and conceptualisation of History as a subject (see 3.5.1; 3.5.2; 3.5.2.1; 3.5.2.2; 3.5.2.3; 3.5.2.4). The categories were arranged in the manner described above because the analysis of qualitative research involves aiming to uncover and understand the data to describe the phenomenon and what it means. In this study as mentioned earlier the phenomenon is transformative History curriculum.
6.4.1.1 Managing curriculum change

Considering that Lesotho rolled up implementation of a revised curriculum in 2013 implies the need for teachers to understand the change that is required by the new framework. There is evidence from literature that change in curriculum involves grappling with new beliefs, understanding, skills and behaviours. In addition the change means alteration to its philosophy by way of adapting methods that include human interaction (see 3.4; 3.4.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.3; 3.4.4). Curriculum change efforts are typically labelled as implementation of intended curriculum into classroom practice in schools. Hence there is reason that a range of capacities is required to facilitate curriculum implementation as well as understanding core concepts such as framework, local curricular and transformative teaching. Managing curriculum change fundamentally starts with effective leadership (see 3.4.1; 3.4.3).

Findings from the empirical research seem to indicate that the change towards the revised CAPF was not managed effectively. The participants explained that they did not receive adequate training during and after the inception of the revised CAPF (see 5.3.1). As a result they were not well equipped to teach a transformative History curriculum. Literature asserts that change requires fundamental changes in the administrative system that supports the instructional system in order for change to be successful (see 3.3.1). In this study the administrative system implies the schemes and lesson plans, because these are documents that support teaching and learning. The lack of most of the participants to produce comprehensive schemes and lesson plans (see 5.3.1) is testimony enough to indicate that there was not proper orientation given to teachers regarding the History curriculum.

If education experts or policy makers aim to improve teaching and learning they should invest in professional development. This becomes necessary because in a number of cases teachers have received copies of the framework, but no training in the use of the framework. In cases where training has been offered it remained of short duration (see 3.4.2). This contention is supported by responses from empirical research that point to lack of familiarity with the framework (see 5.3.1). Responses therefore suggest there is evidence that corroborate literature on lack of effective management in that the need for systematised reinforcement and sustainable development was not addressed correctly. Teachers are fundamental to successful
implementation of curriculum and to learners’ learning, hence investing in professional development becomes a necessity. The lack to invest in professional development for the participants once again implies that curriculum change was not managed effectively.

Lack of effective management of change was further revealed by lack of resources to support the change and implementation of a transformative History curriculum. The teachers who participated in the study mentioned that there was lack of text books. The responses were corroborated by observations where the same prescribed text book was also used by the teachers (see 5.3.1). There is contention that any substantial changes to definition of History would make inevitable changes to the existing text books (3.5.1). The definition of History in the History curriculum (see 3.5.1) has implications on the text books that have to be utilised, not necessarily the content, but demands a variety to allow for historical inquiry and development of skills. Lack of availability of text book points to a lack of effective management and suggests that curriculum change was not managed effectively.

Curriculum change involves change to improve quality to meet international trends in curriculum and to broaden the conception of curriculum, including several materials and practical components (see 3.3.1). Curriculum change therefore requires a complete system in terms of resources. Literature posits that there may be constraints in devolution of responsibility for curriculum to local levels and these constraints include lack of material resources and of funding (see 3.4.4).

Responses from most of the teachers who participated in the study corroborated literature and revealed lack of resources namely, rooms, books, computers, Internet facilities and well equipped libraries (see 5.4.4). While other support materials such as the curriculum guides were disseminated as hard copies to support the change, lack of other important equipment and resources implies lack of effective management. Today’s learners are much more familiar with technology than learners were ever before. Subsequently the learners’ expectations of technology to be made available by institutions are very high. The constraints in ICT in schools that participated in the study is evidence enough that curriculum change was not management effectively.
6.4.1.2 Understanding a transformative History curriculum

The understanding of a transformative curriculum is important because it has implications on the implementation of a transformative History curriculum. Transformative learning involves learner-centred approaches, is about learner empowerment, interactive teaching, dialogic, employs conducive environments and raises consciousness (see 3.8.2.1; 3.8.2.2; 3.8.2.3; 3.8.2.4; 3.8.2.5; 3.8.2.6).

Findings from empirical research seem to corroborate the literature study on lack of understanding of transformative teaching. The participants in this study limited transformative teaching to only learner-centred methods which include group work, presentations and discussions (see 5.3.2). The activities did not seem to go beyond just ensuring participation from learners and this was demonstrated by lack of tasks that were oriented to problem solving. In addition, although the participants employed the learner-centred methods mentioned above, the practices were not fully interactive in nature because interactive practices are framed as participation within communities and such practices build upon the basis of social learning guided by social constructivism (see 3.8.2.3).

Transformative History teaching is therefore skilled based and so encourages learners to engage in social action and thus understanding and manipulation of knowledge is preferred over just merely acquiring it (see 3.7.1; 3.7.2). However the practices in the participants’ classroom did not seem to stimulate critical reflection and consciousness raising which are some of the key principles of transformative teaching. This was revealed by the use of tasks, which were basic in nature and requires learners to search information from one prescribed text book (see 5.3.2). From the findings it can be concluded that lack of curriculum management by curriculum developers and the Ministry of Education and Training contributed to lack of understanding of transformative teaching. Fundamentally there was lack of information disseminated to the teachers regarding the use of the framework because of the short duration of the workshops (see 5.3.1).

Curriculum change is a common means of learning, implementation and managing whereby curriculum requires diffusion of information to raise awareness of reform (see 3.3.1; 3.4; 3.4.1). Both the Ministry of Education and Training and curriculum developers should have followed correct procedure to expose teachers to the
requirements of the revised curriculum and offer understanding of the concepts which include pedagogic approaches which in the case of the CAPF is driven by the principles of critical pedagogy. Sufficient time for workshops for dissemination of information should therefore have been created to ensure understanding of the concepts by the teachers who are the ones concerned with implementation of curriculum reforms.

The above suggestion emanated from the realisation that the participants were not aware that learner-centred approach is but one aspect of transformative teaching. There are other principles which among others include reflection, emancipation and openness. In addition their interpretation of interactive was only basis based on classroom interaction with peers, whereas in transformative teaching the concept means interaction is a social action and within communities. Most teachers therefore seem to be left behind when curriculum changes take place and so teachers continue to struggle to adapt to the new ways demanded by the revised curriculum (see 1.1; 1.2).

Results demonstrated that with the shortage of History teachers in some schools History was simply allocated to those teachers who were not trained to teach this subject (see 4.4.3.1; 4.4.3.2; 5.2). This finding was an indication and evidence that lack of pre-training contributed to lack of understanding of transformative teaching. Such participants were not exposed to pedagogic approaches simply because they were not teachers by profession. For this reason the teacher-centred approaches discouraged critical thinking and as such demonstrated lack of understanding of transformative teaching.

The lack and inability of the teachers who participated in the study to define transformative curriculum has direct negative impact on the understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

**6.4.1.3 Conceptualisation of History as a school subject**

Conceptualisation of History as a subject is guided by first, how one defines History (see 3.5.1), second the understanding of the nature of History (3.5.2) and third how historical inquiry is conducted (see 3.6; 3.7; 3.7.1; 3.7.2). A simple definition is that History is the study of the story of the past (see 3.5.1). However considering that one
cannot record everything that is true about an event in the past suggests that History becomes a process of simplifying the story and so becomes a process of investigation using particular methods and skills to interpret the past (see 3.7.1; 3.7.2). History is the narrative of events which have happened in the past however content alone cannot be objective but the procedure of History can (see 3.5.1). The nature of History is that because historians cannot study the past directly, they must rely on available evidence Consequently History becomes a process of investigation to interpret sources of evidence in order to offer an explanation or interpretation of the past (see 3.5.2; 3.5.2.1; 3.5.2.2; 3.5.2.3; 3.5.2.4).

Furthermore, people’s views of history are constantly changing as new discoveries that are made, cast doubt on previous knowledge (see 3.5.2.1; 3.5.2.2; 3.5.2.3; 3.5.2.4). This nature of History is not congruent with traditional approaches which Freire refers to as ‘banking concept’. Therefore the nature of History requires methods that encourage learners to make meaning to discover truth (see 3.6; 3.7; 3.7.1; 3.7.2). It is also worth noting that absolute truth is a rare commodity and it is no less available from History than from academic fields. Therefore every precaution is taken to avoid the bias that comes with the nature of History (see 3.5.2.1; 3.5.2.3). This therefore suggests that while History teaching originally focused on the facts the over-arching aim in the 21st century is no longer seen as that of giving learners detailed and solid knowledge of the past but developing and refining the historical consciousness (see 3.5; 3.6; 3.7). It is this conceptualisation that is necessary for one to be able to teach a transformative History curriculum.

The presented literature therefore suggests that any curriculum that is organised purely around product reduces History to assimilation and retention of facts through memorisation (see 3.3.2.1). Furthermore teachers who deliver History as substantive subject undermine the procedural component of historical knowledge and promote a simplistic view of History that focuses on historical content only (see 3.6; 3.7). The empirical findings confirmed that the participants held a simplistic view of the nature of History. Many considered History as a narrative of the events of the past (see 5.3.3). The simplistic definitions suggest that the participants did not hold a deeper understanding of the nature of History and how a historical inquiry is conducted. This understanding strongly prevented the participants to see the overarching aim of
History as that of developing and refining historical consciousness and that History is synonymous with praxis (see 3.5; 3.6; 3.7).

This lack of understanding was observed in the planning of History lesson where the past question papers were utilised without much thought as to what was the purpose of the lesson. Unfortunately many questions were of low order (see 5.4.3). Therefore, the History lessons did not contain inquiry questions to help learners to develop critical thinking, interpretation and analysis of sources of information. The definition offered by the participants, undermined the procedural component of historical knowledge.

Realising that there is an incorrect assumption that History is merely an accumulation of facts by those who have not specialised in this subject, it is important that the teaching of History, just like all other subject is left to those who took it as a major (see 3.7). History teachers need to plan their lessons and are encouraged to identify inquiry questions that help inspire debate and different viewpoints. History teachers need to realise that the nature of this subject requires them to address not only the political aspects but the economic, social developments and environmental elements (see 3.3.2.2; 3.2.2.3; 3.2.2.4; 3.2.2.5; 3.2.2.6) that are also contributing to changing the landscape and as thus encouraging curriculum change.

When the above-mentioned elements are confronted in a classroom situation they help develop historical consciousness and acknowledge the procedural component in the study of this subject (see 3.5; 3.6; 3.7). Teaching of History should therefore strive to equip learners with skills and project-based learning (see 3.2.2.4; 3.7; 3.7.1; 3.7.2) is recommended for such. Project-based learning is praxis in nature and this approach deepens the knowledge and understanding of the neighbourhood in which they live in and show how they can bring change therein (see 3.2.2.6). Given the importance of pre-training and in-service training, History teachers need to keep in touch with new trends in teaching through professional development. Teachers are encouraged to continue to employ learner-centred approaches and interactive practices to engage students actively in educational tasks but emphasis should be on inquiry and critical reflection.
Empirical findings indicated lack of use of project-based learning and where it was utilised it was not appropriate for the learners’ neighbourhood (see 5.4.1). The simplistic definition of History as a subject by the teachers who participated in the study contributed to all factors that contribute to curriculum change to be ignored and for teaching to be in a manner that did address a transformative History curriculum.

The following section discusses findings from literature and empirical research, addressing objective 2:

6.5 Objective 2: Establish how well teachers are implementing a transformative History curriculum

This section presents the findings of the strategies that History teachers use in their classroom and how effective teachers were in implementing a transformative History curriculum. The presentation takes on the findings in which the implementation was conducted.

6.5.1 Teaching Methods

Change in curriculum means change in pedagogy (see 3.5.1). A transformative History curriculum shifts pedagogy towards praxis approach (see 3.2.2.4). The interactive, dialogic, anti-authoritarian, liberating, critical consciousness and learner-centred principles of transformative learning (see 3.8.2.1; 3.8.2.2; 3.8.2.3; 3.8.2.4; 3.8.2.5; 3.8.2.6;) highlight the relationship with critical pedagogy and praxis because the two are also based on multiple perspectives, on dialogue and so learning negates a one-sided relationship (see 2.2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2.2; 2.2.2.2.3; 2.2.2.2.4; 2.2.2.2.5; 2.2.2.2.6; 2.2.2.2.7; 3.2.2.4). The statement above seems to suggest that critical pedagogy applies to a number of educational perspectives that address the issues of power in teaching and learning.

Participants in the study demonstrated a lack of a variety of methods and practices to teach History. Most relied on group work and presentations (see 5.4.1). Even where project work was utilised, it was not understood how it was supposed to be conducted. The findings produced evidence that points to lack of understanding of critical pedagogy that it does not only involve active learners in the classroom situation but that they must act upon environment and reflect upon their reality to transform it (see 3.2.2.4). Considering that Lesotho has localised curriculum
suggests that teachers should build on what the school have because localisation is an attempt to meet the direct needs of the society it serves (see 3.3.2.1).

The use of textbooks by some of the teachers who participated in the study (see 5.4.1) as the only method to impart knowledge, is not congruent with the nature of History. Both the definition (see 3.5.1) and nature of History (see 3.5.2) necessitate for inquiry-based and discovery methods and practices. Both aforementioned methods are skill-based approaches (see 3.7.1; 3.7.2) because they enable learners to direct their own learning and to find information, analyse it and interpret it. Transformative History curriculum therefore shifts the role of the teacher to facilitate learning, implying that the lessons, learning activities learners participate in, as well as knowledge and skills, contribute to the attainment of the wider goal. Through praxis and critical pedagogy the teacher abandons a technician mentality and assists learners to address social and community based issues through inquiry and community-based learning which brings the world into the classroom (see 2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2; 2.2.2.7; 3.2.2.4).

The findings therefore produced evidence of a lack of understanding of critical pedagogy and lack of community-based learning (see 5.4.1) and so indicate a lack of effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum. These results corroborate literature that school strategies will fail until they are connected to the regeneration of their neighbourhoods. Where reforms are not connected to neighbourhood children lack motivation to study because they see little or no relationship between schooling and improved life chances (see 3.2.2.4).

6.5.2 Conducive classroom environment

Conceptual frameworks possess ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions and shapes the thinking decisions one makes and as a result directs and influences practice in the classroom (see 1.3). Critical pedagogy that guides this study is about liberation and just like praxis, is oriented towards the well-being of human beings. It encourages interactive approaches, because it also aligns with constructivism in that knowledge is a social construct (see 3.2.2.4). Critical pedagogy therefore encourages learner-centred practices and for teachers to become facilitators and act as models of a democratic process.
In most of the participants’ classrooms the environment was liberating and there was an attempt for learners to assume more responsibility for the class (see 5.4.2). There were interactions between the learners during group work and presentations. The teachers emphasised respect as well as collaboration, and opportunities were created for learners to ask questions and there seemed to be a trusting environment (see 5.4.2). The findings corroborated literature that each must trust the other and there must be mutual respect, love, care and commitment (see 2.2.2.2.2; 2.2.2.2.5; 3.8.2.5). This kind of environment is regarded as humanistic and allows both teacher and learners to question their existing knowledge and creates space for new knowledge to be created (3.2.2.3).

6.5.3 Assessment

Any substantial changes in curriculum and to the definition of History would make it inevitable to change the existing assessment procedures (3.5.1). Teachers of History should have some conception of the nature of History before they can even try to teach (3.5.1).

There is evidence from empirical study that teachers who participate in this study had little conceptualisation of History (see 5.3.2; 5.3.3). Assessment was fundamentally on low order questions and there was no use of primary sources. In cases where source work was utilised, the questions did not require high order levels. Transformative learning impacts on assessment in that the learning process and outcomes are being continually evaluated, based on the dynamic interaction of the learning group (see 3.2.2.4). It was always the teachers marking and emphasis was on the grade and not necessarily for feedback to improve learning (see 5.4.3). In cases where reference was made to continuous assessment emphasis was also for purposes of grading for promotion.

In transformative curriculum assessment should help learners reflect on their learning because it is at the heart of praxis and it helps to unleash a sense of responsibility (see 3.7.1). There is contention that learners’ assessment should translate to formative assessment because this is a powerful influence on how and what teachers teach and it is an important source of feedback (see 3.4.1; 3.7.1).
6.5.4 Resources

There may be a number of constraints in localisation and the devolution of responsibility for curriculum to local levels (see 3.7.4). These constraints, among others, include lack of resources. The findings from empirical research pointed to a situation where there was much reliance on the use of the textbook (see 5.4.4). Even if learners were allowed to work in groups the tasks were directed to information from the textbook only. The nature of History negates the idea that curriculum is a textbook because a textbook does not align with that which is defined as essential at school (see 3.5; 3.5.1; 3.5.2; 3.5.3; 3.5.4; 3.5.5) and to aspired national educational goals. Even where there were adequate resources to allow for the inquiry and skill-based methods teachers tended not to consider the use of those resources to assist them to prepare lessons to conduct a historical inquiry.

There is dire need for relevant resources to assist in the teaching of History. The use of ICT could help learners understand the importance of different perspectives in the study of History. There is also the need for a number of different text books to be used as reference by learners.

6.5.5 Curriculum leadership and support

The crucial dimension to manage curriculum is changing the culture of the school simultaneously with improving the individual’s knowledge and skills. Fundamentally the way curricula are implemented depends on what are the teachers’ perspectives of the curriculum. Effective management of curriculum change, demands both a clear articulation of policy and systematic understanding of the new demands on individuals and organisations (see 3.4.1).

Empirical findings revealed that most of the teachers who participated in the study held a different understanding of the demands of the changes made in the curriculum (see 5.3.1; 5.3.2; 5.3.3; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.4.3; 5.4.4; 5.4.5) most of which were not intended by the curriculum as literature posits (see 3.4.1). The evidence indicated that the requirements of the curriculum were not well articulated to them.

The findings were sufficient evidence that management of curriculum change in Lesotho was not conducted effectively. Literature asserts that curriculum change is a common means of learning and implementation. Management of curriculum change
essentially requires the diffusion of information to raise awareness of reform (see 3.4.1) and diffusion can be achieved through professional development (see 3.4.2) capacity building (see 4.3.3) and support in terms of resources and knowledge (see 3.4.4).

6.6 Objective 3: Suggestions and recommendations for implementing a transformative History curriculum

6.6.1 Managing curriculum change

Understanding of the concept, transformative teaching is key to the teaching of a transformative curriculum. This concept can be emphasised at both the pre-training so that teachers familiarise themselves with the concept while still in institutions of higher education. All the participants including those who were trained qualified teachers, were not familiar with the concept and phrase ‘transformative teaching’ (see 5.3.1).

The following aspects of curriculum management need consideration in order to result in effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum

- Teachers should receive support from both the curriculum developers and the Ministry of Education and Training through in-service workshops. The workshops should not just be of short duration there is need to unpack the requirements of transformative teaching. The recommendation is based on the realisation that the participants claimed that the workshops that were organised by MoET lasted only a short duration and as such a number of things remained not clear (see 5.3.1). Since a transformative History curriculum is skill-based and requires the use of critical pedagogy the workshop should introduce teachers to critical pedagogy.

- It is important for the Ministry of Education and Training to create a supportive environment for teachers to develop together for the success of the implementation of the changes in Lesotho curriculum. This was brought by the realisation that many teachers who participated in the study continue to struggle in adapting the new ways demanded by the curriculum change (see 5.3.1). Clusters can be utilised to achieve the above, whereby schools may be
organised according to regions or districts to assist each other with different teaching strategies that enhance transformative learning. There is already the Lesotho History Teachers’ Association and it can be entrusted with the responsibility to organise school and the MoET can then support the effort financially and through their human resources to disseminate information.

- There should be time and space for on-going professional development. The findings pointed out that the majority of participants have not yet adjusted their assumptions of teaching as transformative due to lack of knowledge of the concept and critical pedagogy (see 5.3.1). In-service training and workshops should assist teachers to describe and examine their assumptions, expectations and feelings regarding teaching, knowledge and learning. The understanding can assist teachers to construct an informed theory of teaching so that appropriate action can be undertaken based on a deepened understanding of oneself and responsibility.

- It is critical to invest in teachers as learners both at pre-training level or in-service level so that teachers have the knowledge and skills to support their learners and the implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. There is contention from literature presented in this study that it is the mastery of the procedural knowledge that gives History its specialised credentials because content can never be objective but the procedure of History can.

**6.6.2 Teaching Methods**

The current pressures on History did not come out of a vacuum but the changing environment creates new educational demands. History teaching has had to face challenging political reforms and growing complexities of social and economic issues and all these changed the role of the History teacher, because these complexities affect young people and so they have to be confronted with in the classroom (see 3.6). New approaches to History on the methodological level need to be implemented in classroom teaching.
• Pedagogy in the History classroom should shift from memorisation to application of knowledge because economically, socially, culturally and politically landscape is changing fast. Critical pedagogy should guide History teaching because it shapes decisions that teachers make and as a result directs teaching and learning (see 2.2.2; 2.2.2.1; 2.2.2.2). This is brought by the realisation that practices employed by History teachers who participated in the study seemed not to raise consciousness and for learners to function as members of society (see 5.4.1).

• Teachers should employ methods that encourage the development of critical thinking and the ability to interpret information and evaluate sources of information. The pedagogical methods that encourage transformative History curriculum are inquiry-based, based on discovery and project work (see 3.5; 3.63.7; 3.7.1; 3.7.2).

• Dialogue should form part of important practices that are employed by History teachers in Lesotho high schools. It allows learners to express their own point of view and perspectives (see 2.2.2.2.1; 3.8.2.4).

6.6.3 Assessment

Assessment should be skilled-based and allows learners to analyse, interpret and determine the reliability of sources of information (see 3.7.3). Assessment in the participants’ classrooms was mostly objective (see 5.4.3).

• History teachers should plan their assessment and multiple assessments should be conducted to accurately assess learners’ learning of complex knowledge skills and disposition. History teachers in Lesotho therefore need exposure and a definition of formative assessment and skill-based assessment to help them recognise what is most important about this type of assessment. The understanding of formative assessment should assist teachers to adjust instructions, teaching and learning.

• Assessment should include source work based to encourage development of interpretation and analytical skills. Some key or command word should also include compare and contrast, assess, evaluate and when using source
based assessment it can include statements which demand for the message of the source.

- Feedback should be part of learning to allow learners to reflect on their knowledge and not solely for grades. Some participants mentioned that they used coursework and the assessment is continuous. It must be made clear what continuous assessment entails and what its use is for.

- Teachers should make use of self-assessment. Participants explained that they were the ones that mark learners’ work all the time (see 5.4.3). Assessment that is conducted in this manner does not allow reflection by the learners and it is highlighted by literature that reflection is an important aspect of transformative learning.

6.6.4 Resources

However the lack of resources and lack of access to Internet facilities in many of Lesotho high schools exacerbate the ineffective use of a variety of teaching methods (see 5.4.4).

- Those responsible for the change should therefore once again provide an environment that allows teachers to succeed by providing the necessary and relevant resources.

- There should be facilities for ICT. With the use of ICT there is a lot of information and learners should be able to evaluate the reliability of sources for use in their History work. There has to be an understanding that learner-centred practices also include critical methods namely inquiry, discovery and problem-solving to allow for the development of critical and independent thinking as well as critical reflection. History teachers in Lesotho high schools should be equipped with relevant resources including access to Internet and this should be done to achieve the effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum. Teacher A could facilitate better than the other participants because of availability of relevant resources (see 5.4.4). For the other participants there was not enough support regarding the resources and yet they were skilled to use technology as a teaching tool (see 5.4.4).
• Schools should have libraries well furnished with different History books and of course for other subjects to facilitate for information finding skills, interpretation and evaluation of different sources of information and to gain different perspectives.

• The Ministry of Education and Training should help schools have spacious classroom to allow teachers to create a humanistic environment. Availability of space in the classes would allow for groups and collaborative work rather than for the desk facing the chalkboard at all times. The teachers should have space to also move between desks to attend to different groups.

• In many schools there are a large numbers in History classroom from Grade 8 to Grade 10, because the subject is compulsory at these levels and this raises the need for more classrooms. Fundamentally skill-based learning requires a low teacher-learner ratio.

• There is need to do away with one teacher teaching all levels in the school. This was the situation for Teacher C (see 5.4.1).

6.6.5 Conducive learning environment

Transformative teaching invites both learners and teachers to discover their full potential as learners, as members of society and as human beings. The ultimate transformative goal is to help develop more nurturing human beings who are better able to perceive the interconnectedness of all human, plant and animal life (see 3.8.1; 3.8.2; 3.8.2.1). From this perspective teaching is creating conditions that have the potential to transform the learner on many levels (cognitive, emotional, social, creative and spiritual (see 3.8.2). Learning is said to have occurred when these experiences elicit a transformation of consciousness that leads to greater understanding of and care for self, others and the environment (see 3.8.2.5).

It is important to create a classroom environment that is liberating and History teachers should avoid authoritarian tendencies and act as models of democratic principles. The environment should allow for dialogue through group work, presentations and debate. Teachers should create a humanistic environment in
which learners feel free to learn and ask questions. Emphasis should be placed on values which include respect, love tolerance and caring for each other.

6.6.6 Curriculum leadership and a support

Collegiality is also necessary where History Teachers’ Association can learn from one another. Meetings should be organised by the association to share experiences regarding the teaching of a transformative History curriculum. Diffusion of information for awareness of changes in curriculum is important. Guided by the foregoing the effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools can be achieved through the following aspects:

- Collegiality at school level is also necessary as departments encourage members to plan together and continue to share experiences. It is through collaboration that the novice teachers, others that did not take History as major, and those that are not teachers by profession can be greatly assisted. This was brought about by the realisation that when schools in Lesotho have a shortage of History teachers, they simply allocate this subject to those who are neither trained professional teachers nor have majored in the subject (see 5.3.2). In addition departmental meetings do not allow and assist novice teachers to acquire knowledge on how to effectively teach History (see 5.3.2).

- Schools in Lesotho should do away with ‘one-man departments’. Teacher C was the only teacher of History in the whole school (see 5.4.1) suggesting that there are no other members to discuss challenges with.

- Ensuring that teachers have copies of the syllabus and that during departmental meetings they assist one another of the approaches to each section that can encourage implementation of a transformative curriculum. Training should be provided to allow teachers to possess a deeper understanding of how a historical inquiry is conducted and how this subject is taught for the success of a transformative History curriculum. Teachers need to look for ways of using History to encourage self-consciousness and cultural
identity in the next generation. Most participants were not trained History teachers (see Table 5.1).

- SMT should also direct funds where they are most needed particularly in resources which include rooms, ICT and relevant books for the curriculum.

6.7 Conclusion

Using both literature on transformative teaching and findings from the empirical research, the researcher was able to reach informed conclusions. The conclusions allowed the researcher to further make suggestions and recommendations regarding the implementation of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

For objective 1: Establish teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum. The findings pointed to a lack of sufficient knowledge and skills for a transformative History curriculum. The words, expressions and actions of participants point to a lack of understanding of transformative teaching, the nature of History and conceptualisation of History as a subject. Most of the participants perceive teaching and learning as only an application of learner centred methods. There is no consideration for other principles of a transformative curriculum because of lack of information on the concept. Against this backdrop it is concluded that teachers in Lesotho lack understanding of a transformative History curriculum.

For objective 2: Establish how effective teachers are in implementing a transformative History curriculum. The lack of understanding impacted negatively on effective implementation of a transformative History curriculum. It is concluded that participants teach the way they do because of lack of understanding of transformative teaching, the nature of History and conceptualisation of History as a subject. The interaction between participating teachers and their learners, the physical environment which was not liberating and lack of relevant resources inhibited a conducive environment for learning. Fundamentally the physical settings of the classrooms that did not allow free movement of the teacher between desks, the methods and strategies that were not guided by critical pedagogy, assessment was not skill-based and lack of constructive feedback, lack of proper lesson planning and reflection, all contributed to ineffective implementation of a transformative History curriculum.
Consequently the findings and conclusions presented in this chapter led to the suggestions and recommendations of a transformative History curriculum for high schools in Lesotho.

6.8 Issues for further research and suggestions

As mentioned previously this study did not include all History teachers in Lesotho. However the perceptions of the sample used in the study are important factors in putting forward the understanding and meaning attached to a transformative History curriculum. The limitation of the sample was minimised by the use of a number of different data collection methods for purposes of corroboration.

The nature of the study therefore makes it difficult to generalise the findings to a wider population of teachers in Lesotho. It is against this backdrop that the researcher

- Recommends that future research should include a bigger sample size as this would assist to corroborate the findings. The significance would rest with the fact that further studies into this topic may add valuable insight to a transformative History curriculum as this may identify aspects that were overlooked in this study.
- Recommends establishing learners’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum.
- Recommends for communities to become fully engaged as key components in the teaching of History.
- Recommends for measures to overcome the lack of relevant resources in the teaching of History.
- Recommends for ways to incorporate assessment as an integral part of learning.
- Recommend to establish measures that can enhance skill-based approaches in the teaching of History.
- Recommends for measures to raise awareness about conducive classroom environments to enhance History teaching.
A recommended model of framework to use as an intervention for a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools

Table 6.1: Critical pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To encourage learners to reflect critically about themselves and the places they inhabit</td>
<td>Start with classroom itself. Home, the neighbourhood and the global world. Provide opportunity for learners to interact and be in conversation with one another.</td>
<td>Teachers create an environment for critical inquiry and reflection on real life issues.</td>
<td>Critical thinking Reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enable learners to solve problems from group dynamics</td>
<td>Use of some real life issues. Allow for imagination</td>
<td>Group work Problem solving for imagination</td>
<td>Problem solving Effective communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning</td>
<td>Create an opportunity for learners to explore and manipulate ICT</td>
<td>Research Debate Collaborate e-learning</td>
<td>Research skills Reflection Creative thinking Effective communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enable learners to integrate classroom learning with</td>
<td>Create tasks that allow learners to be involved in small community project presentations</td>
<td>Project-based (raising awareness)</td>
<td>Collaborative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>community</td>
<td>To enable</td>
<td>Challenge learners to address issues of power in a classroom situation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inquiry</td>
<td>Project-based and Presentations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>Creative thinking and Reflection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To enable</th>
<th>Create a warm classroom situation</th>
<th>Group work Presentations Peer assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>learners to work with and learn from one another</td>
<td>Create tasks that require team work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To enable</th>
<th>Create tasks and an environment that allows learners to feel safe to ask questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>learners to question knowledge</td>
<td>Whole class discussions Group discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listening skills Reflection Critical thinking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.9 Personal Reflection

The journey to the completion of this study has been a long one and full of challenges including loss of moral to continue, combined with pressures put on me by my other responsibilities, both personal and work related. These were overcome by an unwavering academic support of my supervisor.

In academic writing the most challenge was to understand the conceptual framework namely critical pedagogy that unpins this study, but the understanding was achieved through wide consultation of different sources of information and reflection. It was critical for the researcher to discover how critical pedagogy formed the basis of the skill-based approach in the teaching of History. Critical pedagogy is not only progressive, but humanistic and praxis, and if it is understood, it can form a valuable tool for change, not only in learner but society at large since in transformative teaching communities are utilised as context for learning.

The participants shared with and allowed the researcher to be part of their busy schedule. Allowing the researcher to conduct class observations and interview them was indeed the best they could do to assist in the success of this study. Some days were worse than others but their willingness was always unwavering. Their ideas to some of the challenges facing implementation of the curriculum were a sign that they had accepted change, all what transformative teaching is all about – change reflection and action.
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Appendices

Appendix 1

Dear Miss Mateliso Lesoaana

Ethics Clearance: Teachers' perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools
Principal Investigator: Miss Mateliso Lesoaana
Department: School of Education Studies (Bloomfontein Campus)

APPLICATION APPROVED

With reference to your application for ethical clearance with the Faculty of Education, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Ethics Board of the faculty that you have been granted ethical clearance for your research.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence is: UFS-HSD2017/0800

This ethical clearance number is valid for research conducted for one year from issuance. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension.

We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure we are kept up to date with your progress and any ethical implications that may arise.

Thank you for submitting this proposal for ethical clearance and we wish you every success with your research.

Yours faithfully

Prof. MM Mokhele
Chairperson: Ethics Committee

Faculty of Education
09-Nov-2017
RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am MATSELISO LESAOANA, a teacher at Machabeng College, Maseru Lesotho. I am a PhD (Curriculum Studies) student registered with the University of the Free State, Bloemfontein.

I am requesting permission to conduct research in high schools in Maseru on the following research topic: The teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools. The title and proposal have been approved by the University of the Free State.

The study fundamentally aims to determine the teachers’ understanding of a transformative History curriculum because the revised Curriculum and Assessment Policy in Lesotho seems to encourage transformative teaching and learning. The study further seeks to establish if teachers are effectively implementing a transformative History curriculum and then to present recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum for Lesotho schools.

The research requires class observations and interviews with History teachers. Class observation will last for 40 minutes per observation and interviews will be conducted within the school premises at the time that does not interfere with teaching. It is for
this reason that I am requesting permission to approach schools that offer History as a subject and are located within Maseru town to provide participants for this study. It is anticipated that the empirical research will last for a month starting sometime in November 2017 or January 2018 depending on UFS Ethics Committee.

The participants will be selected on the basis that they are Form A – Form C teachers of History regardless of age, nationality and gender. The selection of the schools is guided by availability for participation and convenience to the researcher in terms of distance and financial availability.

To ensure trustworthiness and taking ethical consideration into account the names of both the participants and participating schools will not be revealed, but represented by both the letters of alphabet and numbers respectively. This is to ensure that all information is strictly treated as confidential and for academic purposes. Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Ministry of Education and Training with a bound copy of the full research report.

Attached please find the copy of my proposal and the letter from my supervisor. Your assistance regarding the matter will be highly appreciated.

If you have any questions please call Matseliso Lesaoana at 56133591 or email at matselisolesaoana@gmail.com

Looking forward to a favourable response and thanking you for your understanding.

I remain

Yours sincerely

Ms. Matseliso Lesaoana.
Appendix 3

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE KINGDOM OF LESOTHO
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING – MASERU
P.O.BOX 47 MASERU 100
22312240

The Principal

................................. high school
P.O. Box ..............
Maseru 100.

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH STUDY

Permission is hereby granted to Matseliso Lesaona to undertake a study relating to the Teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History Curriculum in Lesotho high Schools. It is the hope of the Ministry that the findings of this study will help in the advancement of the Ministry’s efforts to provide quality education.

I hope this will reach your favourable considerations

Yours Sincerely

[Signature]
Teboho Moneri- Regional Inspector Central
The Principal

Lesotho High Schools

Maseru.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, MATSELISO LESAOANA, am a student at the University of the Free State pursuing PhD in Curriculum Studies. I am a teacher at Machabeng College and I am kindly requesting permission to conduct research in your school.

The title of the study is: *The teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools*. The study seeks to establish if teachers are effectively implementing a transformative History curriculum and the findings will help to present recommendations for the implementation of a transformative History curriculum for Lesotho schools.

To obtain the necessary data the research requires classroom observations in Form A, B and Form C history classrooms and interviews with the participating History teachers. It is for this reason that I am requesting permission to solicit the participation of History teachers in your school. Class observation will last for 40 minutes per observation. Interviews will be conducted within the school premises at the time convenient to the participants and with no interference with teaching time and will last for less than an hour. The study should last one month starting from late November or 2017 January 2018 depending on approval by UFS Ethics Committee.

The researcher is all aware that there is limited number of schools that offer History and so your school was selected because it is still offering this subject. In addition the school is accessible to the researcher in terms of distance, time and costs. The
selection of participants is on the basis that they are teaching History, and not based on gender, race or age. The choice for your school is therefore seen as a way to help the researcher to achieve the aim of the study which is mentioned in the first paragraph.

To ensure trustworthiness of the study and taking ethical consideration into account the names of the participating schools and teachers will not be revealed. Both the participating school and teachers will be represented by both the letters of alphabet and numbers respectively. This is to ensure that all information is strictly treated as confidential and for academic purposes and that no information is traced back to any individual or school.

If I am granted permission all participating teachers will be expected to sign consent forms and a copy of the letter will be given to each participant for purposes of reference.

On completion of the study I take it upon myself to reveal the data if and when the school request so that it can contribute to their implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

I want to thank you for your consideration.

If you have any questions please call Matseliso Lesaoana at 56133591 or email at matselisolesaoana@gmail.com

Yours sincerely

Matseliso Lesaoana.
Dear Teacher

I am MATSELISO LESAOANA, a History teacher at Machabeng College. I am registered with the University of the Free State and am pursuing PhD in Curriculum Studies. The purpose of this study is to establish the teachers’ perspectives of a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.

I am requesting your participation in the study which will last for a month starting form late November 2017 or January 2018 depending on approval by UFS Ethics Committee. The study involves class observations in Form A, B and C which will last 40 minutes per observation. The interviews will be conducted in the last week of the research and will last less than an hour.

A voice recorder will be used to record interviews simply to assist the researcher to revisit data during analysis of information collected. Interview notes, transcripts and any other identifying participant information will be kept save in the personal possession of the researcher. This is to preserve the confidentiality of the participants.

In this study the participants were selected on the basis that they are the teachers of History, their schools are still offering History as a subject, accessibility and availability of the participants and convenience to the researcher in terms of time, financial implications and distance.

In order to satisfy ethical issues in this study numbers and letters of alphabet will be assigned to both the participating schools and participants respectively on all research notes. These data will be kept confidential in the personal possession of the researcher.

Obtaining written consent from the teachers is one of the requirements in conducting research. If you agree to participate in this study you will be asked to sign a consent
form. Your participation in this study is voluntary and if you choose to withdraw at any time there will be no penalties.

Considering that the study deals with emotions and feeling and that may bring some discomfort, you may decline to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. Taking ethical consideration into account the names of the participating schools and teachers will not be revealed. This is to ensure confidentiality and to protect your identity and so information cannot be traced back to you as a participant.

On completion of the study I take it upon myself to reveal the data if and when the school request so that it can contribute to their implementation of a transformative History curriculum.

I want to thank you for your cooperation.

If you have any questions please call Matseliso Lesaoana at 56133591 or email at matselisolesaoana@gmail.com

Thank you for your cooperation

Matseliso Lesaoana
Appendix 6

Agreement

I have read the contents of the letter and understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

If you agree to participate in this study please sign the consent form below

Researcher’s name : ........................................................................................................

Participant’s name (Print) : ............................................................................................

Participant’s Signature : ..................................................................................................

Date : .............................................................................................................................
Appendix 7

The following questions were prepared for the interviews with the three participants.

The purpose was to elicit responses that would enable the researcher to achieve the main aim and objectives of this study. Semi-structured interviews and open ended questions allowed for conversation and provided for a deeper understanding and meaning making.

The Interviews were held with the school premises and at the time convenient for the participant. Each interview lasted between thirty and forty minutes.

- How did you get to know about the revised curriculum (CAPF)?
- What do you understand by the phrase ‘transformative teaching?’
- What is your definition of History?
- What are some of the teaching methods that you employ in your History classroom? Why?
- How can you describe your classroom environment?
- How can you describe your classroom assessment?
- Are there enough relevant resources to enable you to implement a transformative History curriculum?
- How comfortable are you with the use of technology?
- Do you think that the use of technology is necessary in the History classroom? Explain
- What type of support do you get from the leadership?
Appendix 8

Page Observations schedule  (Context)

- **School environment** – what and where things are located
- The interaction amongst staff members and students
- The length of the school day
- Activities done during the school week

- **History classroom** – how teachers teach
- Does teaching encourage teacher-centred or learner-centred methods
- Different types of assessment
- Which one is more prevalent –
  - assessment for learning (embedded in formative assessment)
  - assessment as learning (self-assessment, self directed learning and reflection to achieve deeper understanding)
  - summative (evaluate students’ learning at the end of the instructional unit)
- The nature of classroom environment
  - Freedom
  - Allows dialogue
  - Interaction between teacher and students
  - and among student themselves
  - relationships
- resources utilised
- Listen to words used and observe action in general
- This type of observation helps to
  - Understand the motives, meaning and reason for action and behaviour
  - *Determine the teachers’ understanding and the knowledge of a transformative History curriculum*
  - *Establish how effective the teacher is in implementing a transformative History curriculum*
To suggest and recommend ways to improve teaching towards a transformative History curriculum in Lesotho high schools.
Appendix 9

The following is the list of the documents that were analysed at each school. The purpose of document analysis is to establish if the document are relevant and authentic to assist in the implementation of a transformative curriculum.

- The text books
- The lesson plans
- The History syllabus
- The scheme of work
- Assessment documents